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NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

Fiftieth Anniversary Volume

1857-1906

1907
Published by the Association
SECRETARY'S OFFICE, WINONA, MINN.

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CONTENTS

PAGE

Constitution 1
By-Laws 4
Calendar of Meetings 6
Officers 1905–6 and 1906–7 8
Report of Treasurer 12
Report of Board of Trustees 15
Memorandum Concerning Reincorporation 19
Act to Incorporate National Education Association 21
Proposed By-Laws 24

DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE

(Louisville Meeting)

Secretary's Minutes 29
Means Afforded by the Public Schools for Moral and Religious Training—*Mott* . 35
Effect of Moral Education in the Public Schools upon the Civic Life of the Community—*Thompson* 42
Woman's Part in Public Education—*Mrs. Hyre* 51
What Kind of Education Is Best Suited to Boys?—*Hälleck* 58
What Kind of Education Is Best Suited for Girls?—*Hamilton* 65
What Kind of Language-Study Aids in the Mastery of Natural Science?—*Harris* 73
The Superintendent's Authority and the Teacher's Freedom—*Corson* 80
The Teaching of Arithmetic—*Newcomb* 86
Suggestions for the Improvement of the Study Period—*McMurry* 10
Means of Improving the Efficiency of the Grammar School—*Brumbaugh* . . 108
How Can the Supervising Influence of Grammar-School Principals Be Improved?—*Jones* 112

ROUND TABLES

A. Round Table of City Superintendents of Larger Cities—
Interrelation of Functions in a City-School System:
Influence of the Supervisor—*Miss Harris* 117
Influence of the City Normal School or Training-School—*Mrs. Young* . 121
B. Round Table of Superintendents of Smaller Cities—
The Local Training-School as an Agency for the Preparation of Teachers—*Gordy* 124
The Best Means and Methods of Improving Teachers Already in the Service—*Vance* 126
C. Round Table of State and County Superintendents—
Teachers' Salaries and How Affected by the Operation of the Minimum-Salary Law—*Cotton* 132
Rural-School Architecture—*Olsen* 141
D. Round-Table Conference on Simplified Spelling—
Simpler Spelling: What Can Be Most Wisely Done to Hasten It?—*Andrews* 148
What Can Most Wisely Be Done to Hasten Simpler Spelling?—*Geddes* . 153
The Incorrigible Child—*Miss Richman* 158
The Examination of the Eyes of School Children—*Eberhardt* 173
What Should Be the Basis for the Promotion of Teachers and the Increase of Teachers' Salaries?—*Van Sickle* 177

3151

The Next Step in the Salary Campaign—*Felmley* 183
The New Phonetic Alphabet—*Hempl* 192
What Form of Industrial Training Is Most Practical and Best Suited to the Country Child?—*Kern* 198
Forms of Industrial Education Best Adapted to City Children—*Keyes* . . 203
Art as Related to Manual Training—*Addicott* 207
Report of Joint Committee on Instruction in Library Administration—*Miss Baldwin* 215
I. School Libraries 221
II. The Public Library and the Public School 224
III. How to Use a Library 228
IV. The School Library Room 234
V. Selecting and Ordering Books 239
VI. Children's Reading 244
VII. Incoming Books 249
VIII. Cataloging and Classification 251
IX. Call Numbers, Shelf-List, Loan System 261
X. Binding 266
XI. Library Associations 271
Appendix 275
Memorial Addresses—
John Eaton—*Jackson* 283
William Rainey Harper—*Judson* 293
Mrs. Mary H. Hunt—*Winship* 296
Albert Grannis Lane—*Cook* 297
Charles Duncan McIver—*Alderman* 311
Thomas Blanchard Stockwell—*Hoyt* 318
Albert Prescott Marble—*Meleney* 322

ANNIVERSARY PAPERS

Fifty Years of American Education—*Brown* 327
How the Superintendent May Correct Defective Classwork—*Harris* . . . 341
Recent International Congress at Liège—*Monroe* 351
The Teacher and the Librarian—*Schaeffer* 355
The Educational Awakening in England—*Sadler* 361
The Teaching of Modern Languages in England—*Brereton* 366
Secondary Education of Girls during the Past Fifty Years in England—*Miss Beale* 377
The Secondary Education of Girls in France—*Sée* 386
The Modern System of Higher Education for Women in Prussia—*Paulsen* . . 395
On the Developments and Changes in Primary Teaching in France during the Third Republic—*Levasseur* 408
What France Owes to America in the Matter of Education—*Compayré* . . . 417
The Rehabilitation of Philosophy in Germany—*Schwartz* 420
The Past and Future of German Education—*Paulsen* 430
Agricultural Instruction in the Kingdom of Hungary—*De Tormay* 445

HISTORICAL CHAPTER

I. Educational Associations—
Origin of Free Schools in the American Colonies—*Barnard* . . . 453
Home and School Training in New England in the Colonial Period—*Brainerd* 454
Home and School Training in the South During the Colonial Period—*Wertenbaker* 455

II. The Earliest Educational Associations in the United States—
The American Institute of Instruction—*Winship* 457
Western Literary Institute and College of Professional Teachers—*Monroe* 463
American Lyceum Association—*Monroe* 465
School Teachers and Superintendents—*Mann* 467
American Association for the Advancement of Education—*Monroe* . 471
III. Other Educational Associations—
The American Association for the Advancement of Science—*Howard* 475
American Library Association—*Dewey* 479
General Education Board—*Buttrick* 490
The Southern Education Board—*Murphy* 495
The Southern Educational Association—*Tighe* 499
The Carnegie Association for the Advancement of Teaching—*Pritchett* 504
Educational Journalism—*Bardeen* 506
State Teachers' Associations Organized Before 1857—*Monroe* . . 514
IV. The National Teachers' Association—*Russell* 516
V. The National Educational Association—*Hagar, Hancock, Harris* . . 521
VI. The Constitution 534
VII. List of Executive Officers with Calendar of Meetings 541
VIII. Board of Trustees 543
IX. List of Vice-Presidents with Terms of Service from 1857 to 1907 . . 544
X. List of State Directors by Election, 1857 to 1907 547
XI. List of Perpetual Directors, Life Directors, and Life Members . . 558

TITLES OF PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS FROM 1857 TO 1906, ARRANGED BY YEARS AND DEPARTMENTS

General Sessions 561
Department of School Superintendence 576
Department of Normal Schools 589
Department of Higher Education 595
Department of Elementary Education 599
Department of Manual Training 603
The National Council of Education 607
Department of Art Education 623
Department of Kindergarten Education 626
Department of Music Education 630
Department of Secondary Education 633
Department of Business Education 637
Department of Child-Study 639
Department of Physical Training 641
Department of Science Instruction 643
Department of School Administration 645
Library Department 646
Department of Special Education 648
Department of Indian Education 650

Titles of Papers Read before the International Congresses of Education, Chicago, 1893 652

BIBLIOGRAPHY OF TOPICS FROM 1857 TO 1906

Table of Classification 659
1. Agricultural Education 661

2. American Public Education 661
3. Architecture 663
4. Art Education 664
5. Biography 666
6. Biological Sciences 667
7. Education of the Blind 668
8. Child-Study 668
9. City-School Systems 670
10. Classical Education 671
11. Coeducation 672
12. College-Entrance Requirements 672
13. Commercial Education 673
14. Compulsory Education 674
15. Curriculum 675
16. Defectives and Delinquents (Other than Blind), Education of . . 677
17. Educational Literature 678
18. Education: Theory, Philosophy, Nature, and Meaning . . . 679
19. Elective Studies 680
20. Elementary Education 681
21. English Language and Literature as Subjects of Study . . . 682
22. Examinations 684
23. Exhibitions and Museums 685
24. Finances and Taxation 686
25. Geography as a Subject of Study 686
26. Government and Discipline of Schools 687
27. Higher Education—Colleges and Universities 687
28. History of Education 690
29. History Teaching 692
30. Indian Education and Other Minor Alien Races 693
31. Industrial Education 695
32. Kindergarten 696
33. Library and School 699
34. Manual Training 700
35. Mathematics as a Subject of Study 703
36. Music in Schools 703
37. Nature-Study 706
38. Negro Education 706
39. Normal Schools and Training of Teachers 707
40. Pensions for Teachers 711
41. Physical Education 711
42. Physical Sciences 713
43. Psychology and Education 713
44. Religious and Moral Education 715
45. Rural Schools 716
46. Salaries of Teachers 717
47. School Hygiene 718
48. School Laws 719
49. Science Teaching 719
50. Secondary Education—High Schools 720
51. Spelling 721
52. State and Education 722
53. Supervision, Organization, and Administration 723

54. Teachers 726
55. Teaching—Principles and Methods 727
56. Technical Education 727
57. Textbooks 729
58. Woman's Education and Work 729
59. Writing 730
Review of Secretary's Report, 1893 to 1906 731
Necrology List, January 1, 1906 to May 1, 1907 741
Active Membership List and Index 743
Educational Institutions and Libraries Enrolled as Active Members . . . 925
Statistical Table of Active Members for 1906 930
Statistical Table of Active Members, 1895 to 1906 inclusive 931
Statistical Table of Attendance from 1857 to 1906 932
Chart of Total Attendance for Fifty Years 934
Price List of Publications 936
Index 939

CONSTITUTION

OF THE

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

PREAMBLE

To elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching, and to promote the cause of popular education in the United States, we, whose names are subjoined, agree to adopt the following

CONSTITUTION

ARTICLE I—NAME

This Association shall be styled the NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

ARTICLE II—DEPARTMENTS

SECTION 1. It shall consist of eighteen departments: first, of School Superintendence; second, of Normal Schools; third, of Elementary Schools; fourth, of Higher Education; fifth, of Manual Training; sixth, of Art Education; seventh, of Kindergarten Education; eighth, of Music Education; ninth, of Secondary Education; tenth, of Business Education; eleventh, of Child Study; twelfth, of Physical Education; thirteenth, of Natural Science Instruction; fourteenth, of School Administration; fifteenth, the Library Department; sixteenth, of Special Education; seventeenth, of Indian Education; and eighteenth, a National Council of Education.

SEC. 2. Other departments may be organized in the manner prescribed in this constitution.

ARTICLE III—MEMBERSHIP

SECTION 1. There shall be three classes of members, namely, active, associate, and corresponding.

SEC. 2. Teachers and all who are actively associated with the management of educational institutions, including libraries and periodicals, may become active members. All others who pay an annual membership fee of two dollars may become associate members.

Eminent educators not residing in America may be elected by the Directory to be corresponding members. The number of corresponding members shall at no time exceed fifty.

SEC. 3. Any person eligible may become an active member upon application indorsed by two active members, and the payment of an enrollment fee of two dollars and the annual dues for the current year.

Active members only have the right to vote and to hold office in the general Association or in the several departments.

All active members must pay annual dues of two dollars, and will be entitled to the volume of *Proceedings* without "coupon" or other conditions. The annual active membership fee shall be payable at the time of the annual convention, or by remittance to the

Secretary before September 1 of each year. Any active member may discontinue membership by giving written notice to the Secretary before September 1, and may restore the same only on payment of the enrollment fee and the annual dues for the current year.

All life members and life directors shall be denominated active members, and shall enjoy all the powers and privileges of such members without the payment of annual dues.

Associate members may receive the volume of *Proceedings* in accordance with the usual "coupon" conditions, as printed on the membership certificate.

Corresponding members will be entitled to the volume of *Proceedings* without the payment of fees or other conditions.

SEC. 4. The names of active and corresponding members only will be printed in the volume of *Proceedings*, with their respective educational titles, offices, and addresses, to be revised annually by the Secretary of the Association.

ARTICLE IV—OFFICERS

SECTION 1. The officers of this Association shall consist of a President, twelve Vice-Presidents, a Secretary, a Treasurer, a Board of Directors, a Board of Trustees, and an Executive Committee, as hereinafter provided.

SEC. 2. The Board of Directors shall consist of the President of the National Educational Association, First Vice-President, Secretary, Treasurer, chairman of the Board of Trustees, and one additional member from each state, territory, or district, to be elected by the Association for the term of one year, or until their successors are chosen, and of such life directors as are now (July 10, 1895) in office.

All past Presidents of the Association now living (July 10, 1895), and all future Presidents at the close of their respective terms of office, and the United States Commissioner of Education, shall be life directors of the Association.

The President of the National Educational Association, First Vice-President, Treasurer, chairman of the Board of Trustees, and a member of the Association to be chosen annually by the Board of Directors, which member shall hold office for one year, shall constitute the Executive Committee.

SEC. 3. The elective officers of the Association, with the exception of the Secretary, shall be chosen by the active members of the Association by ballot, unless otherwise ordered, on the third day of each annual session, a majority of the votes cast being necessary for a choice. The officers so chosen shall continue in office until the close of the annual session subsequent to their election, and until their successors are chosen, except as hereinafter provided.

SEC. 4. Each department shall be administered by a president, vice-president, secretary, and such other officers as it shall deem necessary to conduct its affairs; but no person shall be elected to any office or of any department of the Association, who is not, at the time of election, an active member of the Association.

SEC. 5. The President shall preside at all meetings of the Association and of the Board of Directors, and shall perform the duties usually devolving upon a presiding officer. In his absence, the First Vice-President in order, who is present, shall preside; and in the absence of all Vice-Presidents, a *pro-tempore* chairman shall be appointed on nomination, the Secretary putting the question.

SEC. 6. The Secretary shall keep a full and accurate report of the proceedings of the general meetings of the Association and all meetings of the Board of Directors, and shall conduct such correspondence as the directors may assign, and shall have his records present at all meetings of the Association and of the Board of Directors. The secretary of each department shall, in addition to performing the duties usually pertaining to his office, keep a list of the members of his department.

SEC. 7. The Treasurer shall receive, and under the direction of the Board of Trustees hold in safe-keeping, all moneys paid to the Association; shall expend the same only

upon the order of said board; shall keep an exact account of his receipts and expenditures, with vouchers for the latter, which accounts, ending the first day of July each year, he shall render to the Board of Trustees and, when approved by said board, he shall report the same to the Board of Directors. The Treasurer shall give such bond for the faithful discharge of his duties as may be required by the Board of Trustees; and he shall continue in office until the first meeting of the Board of Directors held prior to the annual meeting of the Association next succeeding that for which he is elected.

SEC. 8. The Board of Directors shall have power to fill all vacancies in their own body; shall have in charge the general interests of the Association, excepting those herein intrusted to the Board of Trustees; shall make all necessary arrangements for its meetings, and shall do all in its power to make it a useful and honorable institution. Upon the written application of twenty active members of the Association for permission to establish a new department, it may grant such permission. Such new department shall in all respects be entitled to the same rights and privileges as the others. The formation of such department shall in effect be a sufficient amendment to this constitution for the insertion of its name in Art. II, and the Secretary shall make the necessary alterations.

SEC. 9. The Board of Trustees shall consist of four members, elected by the Board of Directors for the term of four years, and the President of the Association, who shall be a member *ex officio* during his term of office. At the election of the trustees in 1886, one trustee shall be elected for one year, one for two years, one for three years, and one for four years; and annually thereafter, at the first meeting of the Board of Directors held prior to the annual meeting of the Association, one trustee shall be elected for the term of four years. All vacancies occurring in said Board of Trustees, whether by resignation or otherwise, shall be filled by the Board of Directors for the unexpired term; and the absence of a trustee from two successive annual meetings of the board shall forfeit his membership therein. The Board of Trustees thus elected shall constitute the body corporate of the Association, as provided in the certificate of incorporation under the provisions of the Act of General Incorporation, Class Third, of the Revised Statutes of the District of Columbia, dated the 24th day of February, 1886, at Washington, D. C., and recorded in Liber No. 4, "Acts of Incorporation for the District of Columbia."

SEC. 10. It shall be the duty of the Board of Trustees to provide for safe-keeping and investment of all funds which the Association may receive from donations; and the income of such invested funds shall be used exclusively in paying the cost of publishing the annual volume of *Proceedings* of the Association, excepting when donors shall specify otherwise. It shall also be the duty of the board to issue orders on the Treasurer for the payment of all bills approved by the Board of Directors, or by the President and Secretary of the Association acting under the authority of the Board of Directors; and, when practicable, the trustees shall invest all surplus funds exceeding one hundred dollars that shall remain in the hands of the Treasurer after paying the expenses of the Association for the previous year.

SEC. 11. The Board of Trustees shall elect the Secretary of the Association, who shall also be secretary of the Executive Committee, and shall fix his compensation and his term of office for a period not to exceed four years.

ARTICLE V—MEETINGS

SECTION 1. The annual meeting of the Association shall be held at such time and place as shall be determined by the Board of Directors.

SEC. 2. Special meetings may be called by the President at the request of five directors.

SEC. 3. Any department of the Association may hold a special meeting at such time and place as by its own regulations it shall appoint.

SEC. 4. The Board of Directors shall hold its regular meetings at the place and not less than two hours before the assembling of the Association.

SEC. 5. Special meetings may be held at such other times and places as the board or the President shall determine.

SEC. 6. Each new board shall organize at the session of its election. At its first meeting a committee on publication shall be appointed, which shall consist of the President and the Secretary of the Association for the previous year, and one member from each department.

ARTICLE VI—BY-LAWS

By-laws not inconsistent with this constitution may be adopted by a two-thirds vote of the Association.

ARTICLE VII—AMENDMENTS

This constitution may be altered or amended at a regular meeting by the unanimous vote of the members present; or by a two-thirds vote of the members present, provided that the alteration or amendment has been substantially proposed in writing at a previous meeting.

BY-LAWS

1. At the first session of each annual meeting of the Association there shall be appointed by the President a committee on resolutions; and at the third session of such meeting there shall be appointed a committee on nominations, consisting of one member from each state and territory represented, the same to be appointed by the President on the nomination of a majority of the active members from such state or territory present at the meeting called for the purpose of making such nomination; provided, however, that such appointment shall be made by the President without such nomination, when the active members in attendance from any state or territory shall fail to make a nomination.

The meetings of active members to nominate members of the nominating committee shall be held at 5:30 P. M. on the first day of the annual meeting of the Association, at such places as shall be announced in the general program.

2. The President and Secretary shall certify to the Board of Trustees all bills approved by the Board of Directors.

3. Each paying member of the Association shall be entitled to a copy of its *Proceedings*.

4. No paper, lecture, or address shall be read before the Association or any of its departments in the absence of its author, nor shall any such paper, lecture, or address be published in the volume of *Proceedings*, without the consent of the Association, upon approval of the Executive Committee.

5. It shall be the duty of the President, Secretary, and Treasurer of the Association to appoint annually some competent person to examine the securities of the Permanent Fund held by the Board of Trustees, and his certificate, showing the condition of the said fund, shall be attached to the report of the Board of Trustees.

ACT OF INCORPORATION

At a meeting of the Board of Directors of the National Educational Association, held at Saratoga Springs, N. Y., July 14, 1885, the following resolution was passed.

Resolved, That a committee of three be appointed to secure articles of incorporation for the National Educational Association, under United States or state laws, as speedily as may be.

N. A. Calkins, of New York; Thomas W. Bicknell, of Massachusetts, and Eli T. Tappan, of Ohio, were appointed such committee.

Under the authority of the resolution quoted above, and with the approval of the committee, and by competent legal advice, the chairman obtained a

CERTIFICATE OF INCORPORATION

We, the undersigned, Norman A. Calkins, John Eaton, and Zalmon Richards, citizens of the United States, and two of them citizens of the District of Columbia, do hereby associate ourselves together, pursuant to the provisions of the Act of General Incorporation, Class Third, of the Revised Statutes of the District of Columbia, under the name of the "National Educational Association," for the full period of twenty years, the purpose and objects of which are to elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching and to promote the cause of popular education in the United States. . . . . To secure the full benefit of said act we do here execute this our certificate of incorporation as said act provides.

In witness whereof, we severally set our hands and seals this 24th day of February, 1886, at Washington, D. C.

NORMAN A. CALKINS. [L. S.]
JOHN EATON. [L. S.]
ZALMON RICHARDS. [L. S.]

Duly acknowledged before Michael P. Callan, Notary Public in and for the District of Columbia, and recorded in Liber No. 4, Acts of Incorporation for the District of Columbia.

CERTIFICATE OF EXTENSION

Office of the Recorder of Deeds
Washington, D. C.

TO ALL WHOM IT MAY CONCERN:

This is to certify that February 21, 1906, there was filed for record in this office a certificate of extension and of the corporate existence of the National Educational Association, incorporated in the District of Columbia, February 24, 1886, for a term of twenty (20) years, said extension being for a period of two (2) years from and including the 24th day of February, 1906.

In testimony whereof, I have hereunto set my hand and affixed the seal of this office this 21st day of February, A. D. 1906.

(Signed) R. W. DUTTON,
Deputy Recorder of Deeds, D. C.

(Seal)

CALENDAR OF MEETINGS

NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION

1857—PHILADELPHIA, PA. (Organized.).....
James L. Enos, Chairman.
W. E. Sheldon, Secretary.

1858—CINCINNATI, OHIO.
Z. Richards, President.
J. W. Bulkley, Secretary.
A. J. Rickoff, Treasurer

1859—WASHINGTON, D. C.
A. J. Rickoff, President.
J. W. Buckley, Secretary.
C. S. Pennell, Treasurer.

1860—BUFFALO, N. Y.
J. W. Bulkley, President.
Z. Richards, Secretary.
O. C. Wight, Treasurer.

1861, 1862—No session.

1863—CHICAGO, ILL.
John D. Philbrick, President.
James Cruikshank, Secretary.
O. C. Wight, Treasurer.

1864—OGDENSBURG, N. Y.
W. H. Wells, President.
David N. Camp, Secretary.
Z. Richards, Treasurer.

1865—HARRISBURG, PA.
S. S. Greene, President.,
W. E. Sheldon, Secretary.
Z. Richards, Treasurer.

1866—INDIANAPOLIS, IND.
J. P. Wickersham, President.
S. H. White, Secretary.
S. P. Bates, Treasurer.

1867—No session.

1868—NASHVILLE, TENN.
J. M. Gregory, President.
L. Van Bokkelen, Secretary.
James Cruikshank, Treasurer.

1869—TRENTON, N. J.
L. Van Bokkelen, President
W. E. Crosby, Secretary.
A. L. Barber, Treasurer.

1870—CLEVELAND, OHIO.
Daniel B. Hagar, President.
A. P. Marble, Secretary.
W. E. Crosby, Treasurer.

NAME CHANGED TO

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

1871—ST. LOUIS, MO.
J. L. Pickard, President.
W. E. Crosby, Secretary.
John Hancock, Treasurer.

1872—BOSTON, MASS.
E. E. White, President.
S. H. White, Secretary.
John Hancock, Treasurer.

1873—ELMIRA, N. Y.
B. G. Northrop, President.
S. H. White, Secretary.
John Hancock, Treasurer.

1874—DETROIT, MICH.
S. H. White, President.
A. P. Marble, Secretary.
John Hancock, Treasurer.

1875—MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.
W. T. Harris, President.
M. R. Abbott, Secretary.
A. P. Marble, Treasurer.

1876—BALTIMORE, MD.
W. F. Phelps, President.
W. D. Henkle, Secretary.
A. P. Marble, Treasurer.

1877—LOUISVILLE, KY.
M. A. Newell, President.
W. D. Henkle, Secretary.
J. Ormond Wilson Treasurer.

1878—No session.

1879—PHILADELPHIA, PA.
John Hancock, President.
W. D. Henkle, Secretary.
J. Ormond Wilson, Treasurer.

1880—CHAUTAUQUA, N. Y.
J. Ormond Wilson, President.
W. D. Henkle, Secretary.
E. T. Tappan, Treasurer.

1881—ATLANTA, GA.
James H. Smart, President.
W. D. Henkle, Secretary.
E. T. Tappan, Treasurer.

1882—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y
G. J. Orr, President.
W. E. Sheldon, Secretary.
H. S. Tarbell, Treasurer.

1883—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
E. T. Tappan, President.
W. E. Sheldon, Secretary.
N. A. Calkins, Treasurer.

1884—MADISON, WIS.
Thomas W. Bicknell, President.
H. S. Tarbell, Secretary.
N. A. Calkins, Treasurer.

1885—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
F. Louis Soldan, President.
W. E. Sheldon, Secretary.
N. A. Calkins, Treasurer.

1886—TOPEKA, KANS.
N. A. Calkins, President.
W. E. Sheldon, Secretary.
E. C. Hewett, Treasurer.

1887—CHICAGO, ILL.
W. E. Sheldon, President.
J. H. Canfield, Secretary.
E. C. Hewett, Treasurer.

1888—SAN FRANCISCO, CAL.
Aaron Gove, President.
J. H. Canfield, Secretary.
E. C. Hewett, Treasurer.

1889—NASHVILLE, TENN.
Albert P. Marble, President.
J. H. Canfield, Secretary.
E. C. Hewett, Treasurer.

1890—ST. PAUL, MINN.
J. H. Canfield, President.
W. R. Garrett, Secretary.
E. C. Hewett, Treasurer.

1891—TORONTO, ONT.
W. R. Garrett, President.
E. H. Cook, Secretary.
J. M. Greenwood, Treasurer.

1892—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
E. H. Cook, President.
R. W. Stevenson, Secretary.
J. M. Greenwood, Treasurer.

1893—CHICAGO, ILL.
(International Congress of Education.)
Albert G. Lane, President.
Irwin Shepard, Secretary.
J. M. Greenwood, Treasurer.

1894—ASBURY PARK, N. J.
Albert G. Lane, President.
Irwin Shepard, Secretary.
J. M. Greenwood, Treasurer.

1895—DENVER, COLO.
Nicholas Murray Butler, President.
Irwin Shepard, Secretary.
I. C. McNeill, Treasurer.

1896—BUFFALO, N. Y.
Newton C. Dougherty, President.
Irwin Shepard, Secretary.
I. C. McNeill, Treasurer.

1897—MILWAUKEE, WIS.
Charles R. Skinner, President.
Irwin Shepard, Secretary.
I. C. McNeill, Treasurer.

1898—WASHINGTON, D. C.
J. M. Greenwood, President.
Irwin Shepard, Secretary.
I. C. McNeill, Treasurer.

1899—LOS ANGELES, CAL.
E. Oram Lyte, President.
Irwin Shepard, Secretary.
I. C. McNeill, Treasurer.

1900—CHARLESTON, S. C.
Oscar T. Corson, President.
Irwin Shepard, Secretary.
Carroll G. Pearse, Treasurer.

1901—DETROIT, MICH.
James M. Green, President.
Irwin Shepard, Secretary.
L. C. Greenlee, Treasurer.

1902—MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.
William M. Beardshear, President.
Irwin Shepard, Secretary.
Charles H. Keyes, Treasurer.

1903—BOSTON, MASS.
Charles W. Eliot, President.
Irwin Shepard, Secretary.
W. M. Davidson, Treasurer.

1904—ST. LOUIS, MO.
John W. Cook, President.
Irwin Shepard, Secretary.
McHenry Rhoads, Treasurer.

1905—ASBURY PARK AND OCEAN GROVE, N. J.
William H. Maxwell, President.
Irwin Shepard, Secretary.
James W. Crabtree, Treasurer.

1906—No session

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

OFFICERS FOR 1905–1906
ALSO FOR 1906–1907

GENERAL ASSOCIATION

NATHAN C. SCHAEFFER	*President*	Harrisburg, Pa.
IRWIN SHEPARD	*Secretary*	Winona, Minn.
JASPER N. WILKINSON	*Treasurer*	Emporia, Kans.

VICE-PRESIDENTS

WILLIAM H. MAXWELL, New York, N. Y.
MISS N. CROPSEY, Indianapolis, Ind.
J. H. HINEMON, Little Rock, Ark.
ED. S. VAUGHT, Oklahoma City, Okla.
JOHN F. RIGGS, Des Moines, Iowa.
JOSEPH O'CONNOR, San Francisco, Cal.
D. B. JOHNSON, Rock Hill, S. C.
J. A. SHAWAN, Columbus, Ohio.
H. O. WHEELER, Burlington, Vt.
J. Y. JOYNER, Raleigh, N. C.
JOHN W. SPINDLER, Winfield, Kans.
J. STANLEY BROWN, Joliet, Ill.

BOARD OF TRUSTEES

(See *Art. IV, sec. 9, of the Constitution.*)

NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER, *Chairman*	New York, N. Y.	Term expires July, 1906
*ALBERT G. LANE	Chicago, Ill.	Term expires July, 1907
JAMES M. GREENWOOD	Kansas City, Mo.	Term expires July, 1909
NATHAN C. SCHAEFFER	Harrisburg, Pa.	*Ex officio*

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

(See *Art. IV, secs. 2 and 11, of the Constitution.*)

NATHAN C. SCHAEFFER	*President*	Harrisburg, Pa.
WILLIAM H. MAXWELL	*First Vice-President*	New York, N. Y.
JASPER N. WILKINSON	*Treasurer*	Emporia, Kans.
*ALBERT G. LANE	*Chairman of Board of Trustees*	Chicago, Ill.
NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER	*Chairman of Trustees from Oct. 8, 1906*	New York City
W. T. HARRIS	*Member by election*	Washington, D. C.

IRWIN SHEPARD	*Secretary*	Winona, Minn.

BOARD OF DIRECTORS

Directors ex officio

(See *Art. IV, sec. 2, of the Constitution.*)

NATHAN C. SCHAEFFER, Harrisburg, Pa.
WILLIAM H. MAXWELL, New York, N. Y.
NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER, New York, N. Y.
JASPER N WILKINSON, Emporia, Kans.
*ALBERT G. LANE, Chicago, Ill.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Winona, Minn.

Life Directors

(See *Art. IV. sec. 2, of the Constitution.*)

BICKNELL, THOMAS W., Providence, R.I.
BOARD OF EDUCATION, Nashville, Tenn.
BUTLER, NICHOLAS MURRAY, New York, N. Y.
CANFIELD, JAMES H., New York, N. Y.
COOK, E. H., Philadelphia, Pa.
COOK, JOHN W., DeKalb, Ill.
CORSON, OSCAR T., Columbus, Ohio.
ELIOT, CHARLES W., Cambridge, Mass.
GOVE, AARON, Denver, Colo.
GRAHAM, H. A., Mt. Pleasant, Mich.
*LANE, ALBERT G., Chicago, Ill.
LYTE, ELIPHALET ORAM, Millersville, Pa.
†MARBLE, ALBERT P., New York, N. Y.
MARSHALL, T. MARCELLUS, Stouts Mills, W. Va.
MAXWELL, WILLIAM H., New York, N. Y.
PARKER, CHARLES I., Chicago, Ill.
PHELPS, W. F., St. Paul, Minn.
PICKARD, JOSIAH, L., Cupertino, Cal.
PIKE, JOSHUA, Jerseyville, Ill.
SKINNER, CHARLES R., Watertown, N. Y.

*Died August 22, 1896

†Died March 25, 1906

Life Directors—*continued*

Green, J. M., Trenton, N. J.
Greenwood, J. M., Kansas City, Mo.
Harris, W. T., Washington, D. C.
*Hunt, Mrs. Mary H., Boston, Mass.
Jewett, A. V., Abilene, Kans.
Soldan, F. Louis, St. Louis, Mo.
Stratton, C. C., St. Johns, Oregon.
Taylor, A. R., Decatur, Ill.
Teachers' Institute, Philadelphia, Pa.
White, Charles G., Lake Linden, Mich.
Wilson, J. Ormond, Washington, D. C.

Directors by Election

North Atlantic Division

Maine	John S. Locke	Saco
New Hampshire	James E. Klock	Plymouth
Vermont	Isaac Thomas	Burlington
Massachusetts	Henry T. Bailey	North Scituate
Rhode Island	Walter Ballou Jacobs	Providence
Connecticut	Charles H. Keyes	Hartford
New York	James C. Byrnes	New York
New Jersey	John Enright	Freehold
Pennsylvania	John W. Lansinger	Millersville

South Atlantic Division

Delaware	George W. Twitmyer	Wilmington
Maryland	M. Bates Stephens	Annapolis
District of Columbia	Alexander T. Stuart	Washington
Virginia	Joseph L. Jarman	Farmville
West Virginia	Miss Lucy Robinson	Wheeling
North Carolina	J. I. Foust	Greensboro
South Carolina	Robert P. Pell	Spartanburg
Georgia	William M. Slaton	Atlanta
Florida	Miss Clem Hampton	Tallahassee

South Central Division

Kentucky	W. H. Bartholomew	Louisville
Tennessee	Eugene F. Turner	Nashville
Alabama	Isaac W. Hill	Montgomery
Mississippi	Robert B. Fulton (for 1905–6)	University
	E. F. Bass (for 1906–7)	Greenville
Louisana	Warren Easton	New Orleans
Texas	L. E. Wolfe	San Antonio
Arkansas	George B. Cook	Hot Springs
Oklahoma	Andrew R. Hickam (for 1905–6)	Oklahoma City
	Richard V. Temming (for 1906–7)	Edmond
Indian Territory	John D. Benedict	Muskogee

North Central Division

Ohio	Wells L. Griswold	Youngstown
Indiana	T. A. Mott	Richmond
Illinois	J. A. Mercer	Peoria
Michigan	William H. Elson (for 1905–6)	Grand Rapids
	Wales C. Martindale (for 1906–7)	Detroit
Wisconsin	L. D. Harvey	Menomonie
Iowa	A. V. Storm	Iowa City
Minnesota	John A. Cranston (for 1905–6)	St. Cloud
	A. W. Rankin (for 1906–7)	Minneapolis
Missouri	W. J. Hawkins	Warrensburg
North Dakota	P. G. Knowlton	Fargo
South Dakota	M. A. Lange	Millbank
Nebraska	George L. Towne	Lincoln
Kansas	L. D. Whittemore	Topeka

Western Division

Montana	Oscar J. Craig	Missoula
Wyoming	T. T. Tynan	Cheyenne
Colorado	L. C. Greenlee	Denver
New Mexico	C. M. Light	Silver City

*Died April 26, 1906.

Directors by Election—*continued*

Arizona	A. J. Matthews	Tempe
Utah	D. H. Christenson	Salt Lake City
Nevada	J. E. Stubbs	Reno
Idaho	A. G. Sears	Idaho Falls
Washington	Edward T. Mathes	Bellingham
Oregon	E. D. Ressler	Monmouth
California	Arthur H. Chamberlain	Pasadena

Dependencies

Alaska	Miss Cassia Patton	Sitka
Porto Rico	Frank H. Ball	San Juan
Hawaii	Arthur F. Griffiths	Honolulu
Philippine Islands	E. A. Coddington	Capiz, Panay

DEPARTMENT OFFICERS

National Council

ELMER E. BROWN	*President*	Washington, D. C.
AUGUSTUS E. DOWNING	*Vice-President*	Albany, N. Y.
J. W. CARR	*Secretary*	Dayton, Ohio
Miss ANNA TOLMAN SMITH	*Executive Committee*	Washington, D. C.
HOWARD J. ROGERS	*Executive Committee*	Albany, N. Y.
JAMES M. GREENWOOD	*Executive Committee*	Kansas City, Mo.

Kindergarten

Miss MARY C. MAY	*President*	Salt Lake City, Utah
ELMER E. BROWN	*Vice-President*	Washington, D. C.
Miss MAY E. MURRAY	*Secretary*	Springfield, Mass.

Elementary

Mrs. ALICE WOODWORTH COOLEY	*President*	Grand Forks, N. D.
CLARENCE F. CARROLL	*Vice-President*	Rochester, N. Y.
Mrs. JOSEPHINE HEERMANS	*Secretary*	Kansas City, Mo.

Secondary

EUGENE W. LYTTLE	*President*	Albany, N. Y.
WILSON FARRAND	*First Vice-President*	Newark, N. J.
EDWIN TWITMYER	*Second Vice-President*	Bellingham, Wash.
PHILO M. BUCK	*Secretary*	St. Louis, Mo.

Higher

WM. L. BRYAN	*President*	Bloomington, Ind.
C. ALPHONSO SMITH	*Vice-President*	Chapel Hill, N. C.
OSCAR J. CRAIG	*Secretary*	Missoula, Mont.

Normal

JOHN R. KIRK	*President*	Kirksville, Mo.
D. B. JOHNSON	*Vice-President*	Rock Hill, S. C.
Miss MARY ALICE WHITNEY	*Secretary*	Emporia, Kans.

Superintendence

W. W. STETSON	*President*	Augusta, Maine.
H. H. SEERLEY	*First Vice-President*	Cedar Falls, Iowa
R. J. TIGHE	*Second Vice-President*	Asheville, N. C.
J. H. HARRIS	*Secretary*	Minneapolis, Minn.

Manual

FRANK M. LEAVITT	*President*	Roxbury, Mass.
CHARLES R. BATES	*Vice-President*	Port Deposit, Md.
OSCAR L. McMURRY	*Secretary*	Chicago, Ill.

Art

EUGENE C. COLBY	*President*	Albany, N. Y.
Miss CLARA A. WILSON	*Vice-President*	Davenport, Iowa
Miss HELEN E. LUCAS	*Secretary*	Rochester, N. Y.

Music

HAMLIN E. COGSWELL	*President*	Indiana, Pa.
Mrs. FRANCES E. CLARK	*Vice-President*	Milwaukee, Wis.
P. C. HAYDEN	*Secretary*	Keokuk, Iowa

Business

H. M. ROWE	*President*	Baltimore, Md.
JAMES T. YOUNG	*First Vice-President*	Philadelphia, Pa.
HORACE G. HEALEY	*Secretary*	Brooklyn, N. Y.

Child Study

EDWIN G. DEXTER	*President*	Urbana, Ill.
HENRY G. GODDARD	*Vice-President*	Vineland, N. J.
CHARLES W. WADDLE	*Secretary*	Greeley, Colo.

Science

H. A. SENTER	*President*	Omaha, Neb.
IRVING O. PALMER	*Vice-President*	Newtonville, Mass.
E. R. WHITNEY	*Secretary*	Binghamton, N. Y.

Physical

E. HERMANN ARNOLD	*President*	New Haven, Conn.
Miss REBECCA STONEROAD	*Vice-President*	Washington, D. C.
Miss MAY G. LONG	*Secretary*	Mason City, Iowa

School Administration

THOS. J. KIRK	*President*	Sacramento, Cal.
GRAFTON D. CUSHING	*Vice-President*	Boston, Mass.
WILLIAM GEORGE BRUCE	*Secretary*	Milwaukee, Wis.
HARLAN P. FRENCH	*Chairman, Executive Committee*	Albany, N. Y.

Library

J. N. WILKINSON	*President*	Emporia, Kans.
EDWIN WHITE GAILLARD	*Vice-President*	New York, N. Y.
Miss GRACE SALISBURY	*Secretary*	Whitewater, Wis.

Special Education

Miss ANNA E. SCHAFFER	*President*	Madison, Wis.
S. M. GREEN	*Vice-President*	St. Louis, Mo.
E. R. JOHNSTONE	*Secretary*	Vineland, N. J.

Indian Education

HARWOOD HALL	*President*	Riverside, Cal.
H. F. LISTON	*Vice-President*	Tacoma, Wash.
Miss ESTELLE REEL	*Secretary*	Washington, D. C.

TREASURER'S REPORT

TO THE

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

JULY 1, 1905, TO JUNE 30, 1906,

MEETING AT ASBURY PARK, N. J., 1905

J. N. Wilkinson, Treasurer, in Account with the National Educational Association

BALANCE ON HAND JULY 1, 1905

Cash received from Treasurer J. W. Crabtree, as per last annual report			$3,493.72

RECEIPTS

From transportation lines:			
Account of Boston meeting:			
New York Central & Hudson River Railroad	$ 62.00		
Boston & Maine Railroad	37.00		
New York, New Haven & Hartford Railroad	26.00		
Merchants & Miners Transportation Co	22.00		
Eastern Steamship Co	122.00		
		$269.00	
Account of Asbury Park and Ocean Grove meeting:			
Clyde Steamship Co	$ 25.00		
New York, New Haven & Hartford Railroad	170.00		
New England Navigation Co	8.00		
Ocean Steamship Co	238.00		
Pennsylvania Railroad Co	7,823.00		
Delaware, Lackawanna & Western Railroad	844.00		
New York Central & Hudson River Railroad	7,527.00		
Erie Railroad	585.00		
Central Railroad of New Jersey	2,645.00		
Lehigh Valley Railroad	1,501.00		
		$21,366.00	
Total from transportation lines			$21,635.00
From Board of Trustees:			
Interest on Permanent Fund			6,552.44
From annual meeting at Asbury Park and Ocean Grove:			
Advance associate memberships, New York City	$12,724.00		
Advance associate memberships, New Jersey	1,904.00		
Advance associate memberships, Philadelphia	230.00		
		$14,858.00	
Registration bureau:			
Former active memberships	666.00		
New active memberships	1,256.00		
Associate memberships	1,878.00		
	$3,800.00		
Less: Refunds for duplicate payments	68.00		
		$3,732.00	
Total from annual meeting			$18,590.00
From memberships, Louisville meeting, Department of Superintendence			839.00
From Secretary's office during the year:			
Memberships	$6,634.00		
Enrollments	556.00		
Exchange	13.35		
Sale of back volumes	661.30		
Sale of special reports	313.07		
Miscellaneous	6.51		
			$8,184.20
From royalty, sale of reports of Committees of Ten and Fifteen			58.46
From interest on deposits in First National Bank of Chicago			270.70
Refund from C. A. Murdock & Co			22.53
Total receipts for the year			$59,646.05

DISBURSEMENTS

Board of Trustees:			
For investment		$10,250.00	
For expenses		390.72	
			$10,640.72
Executive Committee expenses:			
President		$385.52	
First Vice-President		45.00	
Treasurer		244.15	
Chairman Board of Trustees		109.36	
Member by election		18.85	
			$802.88
General Secretary's office:			
Salary of Secretary		$4,000.00	
Postage		1,523.25	
Telegrams		97.34	
Freight and express		47.88	
Clerical services		1,738.23	
Exchange		11.60	
Stationery and office supplies		129.65	
Traveling		398.45	
Rent		600.00	
Miscellaneous (refunds, etc.)		35.00	
			$8,581.40
Printing:			
Volumes of *Proceedings* (11,500 volumes)		$6,977.83	
Yearbooks (5,500 copies)		890.78	
Reprints from volumes		35.05	
Special reports		4,788.42	
Executive Committee bulletins		765.96	
Miscellaneous		691.70	
			$14,149.74
Express and freight:			
Distribution of volumes and reports		$3,596.34	
Miscellaneous		152.72	
			$3,749.06
Special appropriations:			
Committee on Agriculture in Rural Schools		$204.11	
Committee on Phonetic Alphabet		90.31	
			$294.42
Annual Convention:			
Department expenses		$583.07	
State directors and managers		829.34	
Clerical services:			
Registration	$739.48		
Stenographers, typewriting, and assistants	533.45		
		1,272.93	
Badges		944.60	
Printing:			
Programs	658.67		
Miscellaneous	245.45		
		904.12	
Express and freight		21.98	
Stationery		52.94	
Telegrams		23.56	
Miscellaneous:			
Constructing platform, auditorium, and expenses	$100.00		
Music for convention	375.00		
Press bureau	42.60		
Transportation and expenses (President Roosevelt's visit)	548.32		
Expenses of speakers	142.00		
Expenses conference of Department Presidents, Chicago	795.86		
Miscellaneous expenses	102.75		
		$2,106.53	
			$6,739.70
Unclassified expenses:			
Examination of securities		$ 7.00	
Typewriter repairs		35.00	
Auditing books of Secretary and Treasurer		30.00	
Office furniture		15.00	
Secretary's bond		25.00	
Services of John B. Pine as counsel		554.57	
Treasurer's bond		27.08	
Letter files		16.50	
Clerical services (advance memberships)		131.61	
			841.76
Total disbursements for the year			$45,799.05

SUMMARY

Receipts

Received from Treasurer Crabtree, balance for 1904–5	$ 3,493.72	
Receipts for year July 1, 1905, to June 30, 1906	56,152.33	
Total receipts for the year		$59,646.05

Disbursements

Amount transferred to Permanent Fund as per voucher No. 133	$10,250.00	
Total expenses for year	35,549.05	
		$45,799.05
Balance in treasury, June 30, 1906		$13,847.00

J. N. WILKINSON, *Treasurer.*

EMPORIA, KANS., June 30, 1906.

The undersigned, trustees of the National Educational Association, have this day examined and approved the accounts of Mr. J. N. Wilkinson, Treasurer, with all statements of receipts and vouchers for disbursements.

(Signed) { NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER, *Chairman,*
NATHAN C. SCHAEFFER,
J. M. GREENWOOD.

CHICAGO, October 3, 1906.

Executive Committee, National Educational Association of the United States:

GENTLEMEN: We have audited the books and accounts of the National Educational Association of the United States, as kept by the Secretary, Irwin Shepard, and the Treasurer, J. N. Wilkinson, for the year 1905–6, and compared them with the relative vouchers, cheques, and other instructions, and find the books to be correct.

We annex hereto a copy of the treasurer's report for the year under review, which we have checked in detail, and we certify it to be correct and in accordance with the books.

Yours respectfully,

THE INTERNATIONAL AUDIT COMPANY,
By JOHN MCLAREN, *President.*

ROBERT NELSON,
Certified Public Accountant, Manager.

TWENTIETH ANNUAL REPORT OF THE BOARD OF TRUSTEES OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

To the Board of Directors of the National Educational Association:

It is the sad duty of the Board of Trustees to make official report of the death on August 23, 1906, of their chairman and colleague, Albert G. Lane, of Chicago, Illinois. Mr. Lane's ten years of service as chairman of the Board closed and crowned a long period of usefulness to the National Educational Association. To him more than to anyone else is due the credit of the present admirable condition of the permanent fund of the Association. His unbending integrity, his unselfishness, and his generous spirit of service remain an example and an inspiration, not only to his colleagues but to the entire membership of the Association, of which he was so distinguished an ornament.

An itemized report upon the condition of the permanent funds, which has been prepared by Mr. Louis Boisot, trust officer of the First Trust and Savings Bank of Chicago, Illinois, is presented as the report of the Trustees upon the financial operations of the period under review, and of the present condition of the investments.

In view of the fact that no meeting of the Association was held in July, 1906, as well as in view of Mr. Lane's death, the Trustees have thought it desirable to depart from precedent and to bring the figures of the present report down to December 1, 1906, instead

of, as has heretofore been usual, down to June 30, in order that the Board of Directors may have before them the latest possible information as to the state of the permanent fund.

The last annual report of the Trustees showed that the permanent fund on July 1, 1905, amounted to $147,000, of which amount $139,200 was represented by cash or securities in the hands of the First Trust and Savings Bank of Chicago, Illinois, and $7,800 was represented by certain Kansas county, municipal and school bonds in the hands of Trustee Lane for settlement, in accordance with the following resolution adopted by the Trustees on July 6, 1903:

Resolved, That the chairman be requested to place in the hands of a competent attorney for collection or settlement, either by agreement or legal process, all of the Kansas securities now in default either for principal or interest.

In accordance with the terms of this resolution, Chairman Lane had conducted long and patient negotiations with the proper school, municipal, and county authorities in Kansas with a view to securing the best possible terms of settlement. These bonds represented investments made many years ago, and it had been the express desire and intention of the Trustees for some years past to change these investments as rapidly as possible.

During the year 1905–6, Chairman Lane was able to secure final settlement on account of each of these securities, and the terms of the settlement are set forth in detail in the accompanying statement. As a result, the Trustees no longer hold any of the Kansas county, municipal, or school bonds, which have heretofore figured in the annual reports.

On December 1, 1906, the total amount of the permanent fund is $155,100, of which $6,100 is cash on hand for investment. The securities, representing an investment of $149,000, have been examined by Mr. H. H. Seerley, of Cedar Falls, Iowa, and his certificate is appended to this report.

(Signed) NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER, *Chairman*
JAMES M. GREENWOOD
NATHAN C. SCHAEFFER

REPORT OF THE FUNDS OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION FROM JULY 1, 1905, TO NOVEMBER 30, 1906

PERMANENT FUND

COLLECTIONS

Cash on hand July 1, 1905	$ 3,500	
Mortgages collected as follows:		
5526 Jefferson Avenue (Wallace)	1,000	
312 LaSalle Street (Leonard)	5,000	
1919 Wabash Avenue (Thomas)	5,000	
1201 Irving Park Boulevard (Wadhams)	3,000	
626–8 West Adams Street (Barker)	9,000	
Bonds collected as follows:		
City of South Hutchinson	1,000	
Hodgeman County	1,000	
Ness County	500	
Eudora City	700	
Lemont School District	1,000	
Bonds compromised as follows:		
Lane County bonds (face value $3,000)	2,750	
Garfield County, School District No. 14 (face value $800)	100	
Grant County (face value $2,000)	1,000	
Seward County (face value $1,000)	700	
Cash deposited by Treasurer	10,250	
		$45,500

INVESTMENTS

Pittsburg, Lake Erie & West Virginia bonds (face value $20,000)	$19,900	
Hord mortgage certificate	500	
West Chicago Park bonds (face value $19,000)	19,000	
Balance on hand	6,100	
		$45,500

CONDITION OF FUND JULY 1, 1905

Securities in the hands of the First Trust and Savings Bank:		
Mortgages on real estate	$61,500	
Kansas school and municipal bonds	2,200	
Illinois school and municipal bonds	57,000	
Terminal Railroad Association bonds	15,000	
Cash on hand for investment	3,500	
		$139 200
Securities in the hands of Albert G. Lane, Chairman:		
Kansas county, municipal, and school bonds, as per report of June 30, 1905		7.800
		$147 000

CONDITION OF FUND DECEMBER 1, 1906

Mortgages on real estate	$33,500	
Illinois municipal and school bonds	75,000	
Railroad bonds	35,000	
Certificate of master's sale	5,500	
Cash on hand for investment	6,100	
		$155.100

STATEMENT OF RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS OF THE INCOME FUND FROM JULY 1, 1905, TO JULY 1, 1906

RECEIPTS

Interest on real estate mortgages	$2,960.66	
Interest on Kansas bonds	105.70	
Interest on Illinois bonds	2,320.00	
Interest on railroad bonds	1,000.00	
Interest on bank balances	166.08	
		$6,552.44

DISBURSEMENTS

Treasurer of Association		$6,552.44

INTEREST RECEIPTS IN DETAIL

Terminal Railroad Association bonds	$ 600.00	
Hodgeman County bonds	49.00	
Village of Morgan Park bonds	157.50	
Eudora City bonds	27.30	
Chicago Drainage bonds	2,000.00	
Lemont, Illinois, bonds	162.50	
Ness County bonds	29.40	
Pittsburg, Lake Erie & West Virginia bonds	400.00	
First mortgage, 1201 Irving Park Boulevard	150.00	
First mortgage, 5239 Cornell Avenue	495.00	
First mortgage, 5603 Madison Avenue	250.00	
First mortgage, 626 West Adams Street	405.00	
First mortgage, 312 LaSalle Street	290.25	
First mortgage, 5136 Hibbard Avenue	250.00	
First mortgage, 2268 Kenmore Avenue	125.00	
First mortgage, 5526 Jefferson Avenue	840.75	
First mortgage, 1919 Wabash Avenue	154.66	
First Trust and Savings Bank	166.08	
		$6,552.44

STATEMENT OF RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS OF THE INCOME FUND FROM JULY 1, 1906, TO NOVEMBER 30, 1906

RECEIPTS

Interest on real estate mortgages	$1,277.70	
Interest on Kansas bonds	4.50	
Interest on Illinois bonds	1,533.75	
Interest on railroad bonds	700.00	
Interest on bank balances	62.23	
		$3,578.18

DISBURSEMENTS

Premium on West Chicago Park bonds bought	$ 120.00	
Accrued interest on West Chicago Park bonds bought	253.33	
Express charges on Kansas bond sold	.45	
Balance on hand	3,204.40	
		$3,578.18

INTEREST RECEIPTS IN DETAIL

Terminal Railroad Association bonds	$300.00	
Village of Morgan Park bonds	78.75	
Chicago Drainage bonds	1,000.00	
Lemont, Illinois, school bonds	75.00	
Ness County bonds	4.50	
Pittsburg, Lake Erie & West Virginia Railroad bonds	400.00	
West Chicago Park bonds	380.00	
First mortgage, 1201 Irving Park Boulevard	75.00	
First mortgage, 5239 Cornell Avenue	247.50	
First mortgage, 5603 Madison Avenue	125.00	
First mortgage, 626 West Adams Street	202.50	
First mortgage, 626 West Adams Street, ½% prem	22.50	
First mortgage, 5136 Hibbard Avenue	125.00	
First mortgage, 2268 Kenmore Avenue	62.50	
First mortgage, 5526 Jefferson Avenue	250.00	
First mortgage, 1919 Wabash Avenue	167.70	
First Trust and Savings Bank	62.23	
		$3,578.18

STATEMENT OF SECURITIES BELONGING TO THE PERMANENT FUND OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION, DECEMBER 1, 1906, IN CUSTODY OF FIRST TRUST AND SAVINGS BANK, CHICAGO

ILLINOIS MUNICIPAL AND SCHOOL BONDS

Bonds	Amount	Rate of Interest	Interest Payable	Maturity
Village of Morgan Park, Ill.	$ 2,500	4½%	May and Nov.	Nov. 1, 1911
Village of Morgan Park, Ill.	1,000	4½%	Jan. and July	July 1, 1913
Lemont, Ill., School, Nos. 20, 22, 24, 30, 32	2,500	5 %	June and Dec.	$500 yearly Dec. 1.
Chicago Drainage bonds, Nos. 24516 to 24525	10,000	4 %	Dec. and June	Dec. 1916
Chicago Drainage bonds, Nos. 24591 to 24625, and 24636 to 24640	40,000	4 %	Dec. and June	Dec. 1917
West Chicago Park bonds, Nos. 1101 to 1109	9,000	4 %	April and Oct.	April 1918
West Chicago Park bonds, Nos. 615, 629, 630, 631, and 1243 to 1248	10,000	4 %	April and Oct.	April, 1919
	$75,000			

RAILROAD BONDS

Bonds	Amount	Rate of Interest	Interest Payable	Maturity
Terminal R. R. Association of St. Louis, Nos. 16311 to 16325	$15,000	4%	Jan. and July	January, 1953
Pittsburg, Lake Erie & West Virginia bonds Nos. 13496 to 13500 and 21236 to 21250	20,000	4%	May and Nov.	November 1, 1941
	$35,000			

FIRST MORTGAGES ON CHICAGO REAL ESTATE

First Mortgages	Amount	Rate of Interest	Interest Payable	Maturity
5136 Hibbard Avenue (Ritchie)	$ 5,000	5 %	May and Nov. 1	November 1, 1908
5603 Madison Avenue (Lewis)	5,000	5 %	July and Jan.	July 1, 1909
5526–8 Jefferson Avenue (Wallace)	10 000	5 %	April and Oct.	October 1, 1907
2268 Kenmore Avenue (Dodge)	2,500	5 %	May and Nov.	Novemb'r 15, 1907
5239–41 Cornell Avenue (Dickinson)	11,000	4½%	Jan. and July	January, 1909
	$33,500			

CERTIFICATE OF MASTER'S SALE

First Mortgages	Amount	Rate of Interest		Maturity
4762 Lake Avenue (Hord)	5,500	5 %		April 1907

To the Officers and Members of the National Educational Association:

I have this day, December 8, 1906, inspected and checked up the securities of the National Educational Association, consisting of municipal and school bonds, face value $75,000.00; railroad bonds, face value, $35,000.00; first mortgages on Chicago real estate, face value, $33,500.00; certificate of master's sale, face value, $5,500.00; cash on hand for investment, $6,100.00; cash on hand subject to order, $3,204.40, which securities are in the possession of the First Trust and Savings Bank, of Chicago.

I certify that all of said securities I find to be correct according to the listing given me by the trust officer of said corporation.

Respectfully submitted,

HOMER H. SEERLEY.

MEMORANDUM

CONCERNING THE REINCORPORATION OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

At the annual meeting of active members held at Asbury Park, July 6, 1905 (see Minutes, pp. 23–40, Annual Volume for 1905), the Board of Trustees, in accordance with instructions given at the annual meeting held the year previous, presented a report recommending the incorporation of the Association by act of Congress. This report was accompanied by a Proposed Bill to incorporate the National Education Association. After full consideration and amendment of the report the following resolution was adopted:

Resolved, That this Association authorizes and requests the Board of Trustees to make application to Congress for a special act, in the following form, to incorporate an association to be known as the "National Education Association of the United States," to succeed and continue the National Educational Association.

The proposed bill as finally adopted by the active members may be found on pp. 34 to 36, Volume of *Proceedings* for 1905.

Proposed by-laws which had been drafted by the Board of Trustees, to supplement the proposed bill of incorporation, were also presented and proposed for adoption at the next annual meeting, provided the proposed bill for reincorporation should be passed by Congress. These proposed by-laws may be found on pp. 24–28 of this volume.

Supplementing this action, the Board of Directors at its meeting held July 6, 1905, passed the following resolution (see Minutes, p. 52, Annual volume of *Proceedings*, 1905):

WHEREAS, By a resolution of the Association, adopted at the annual meeting of active members, held on July 6, 1905, the Board of Trustees was authorized and requested to make application to Congress for a special act to incorporate an association to be known as the "NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES," to succeed and continue the "NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION," in a form approved by the Association; and

WHEREAS, It may prove impracticable for the trustees to secure the passage of such special act before the date of the expiration of the present charter of the Association, namely, February 24, 1906;

Resolved, Providing it shall prove impracticable for the trustees to procure the passage of such special act before the date mentioned, or, if for any reason it shall seem to the trustees necessary to protect the interests of the Association:

First, That the President and Secretary be, and they hereby are, authorized, upon the request of the trustees, to execute a certificate, under the general incorporation law of the District of Columbia, as amended March 3, 1905, extending the corporate existence of the Association, and making the same perpetual, or to continue until the passage of a special act incorporating the National Association of the United States.

Second, That the Board of Directors consent that the corporate existence of the Association be continued and made perpetual.

In accordance with this resolution, application was duly made for the extension of the certificate of incorporation under the laws of the District of Columbia, said extension to be for the period of two years, from and including the 24th day of February, 1906. This certificate of extension may be found attached to the certificate of incorporation following the constitution of the Association as printed on page 5 of this volume.

The proposed bill for incorporation was introduced in the House of Representatives at Washington and passed April 2, 1905, having been previously recommended for passage, with certain amendments, by a unanimous vote of the House Committee on Education. This bill was passed by the Senate on June 29, and was signed by the President June 30, 1906. A copy of the bill as enacted by Congress is appended herewith.

It will be seen by the provisions of the bill that this Act of Incorporation, to become operative, must be accepted by the active members of the National Educational Association at a regular annual meeting.

It is also provided in the bill that the active members shall adopt by-laws and elect officers to succeed those whose terms have expired, or are about to expire, at the same meeting at which they accept the congressional charter. It is therefore expected that this question will come before the active members at their next annual meeting.

[PUBLIC—No. 398]

AN ACT TO INCORPORATE THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled:

SECTION 1. That the following named persons, who are now the officers and directors and trustees of the National Educational Association, a corporation organized in the year eighteen hundred and eighty-six, under the Act of General Incorporation of the Revised Statutes of the District of Columbia, viz.: Nathan C. Schaeffer, Eliphalet Oram Lyte, John W. Lansinger, of Pennsylvania; Isaac W. Hill, of Alabama; Arthur J. Matthews, of Arizona; John H. Hinemon, George B. Cook, of Arkansas; Joseph O'Connor, Josiah L. Pickard, Arthur H. Chamberlain, of California; Aaron Gove, Ezekiel H. Cook, Lewis C. Greenlee, of Colorado; Charles H. Keyes, of Connecticut; George W. Twitmyer, of Delaware; J. Ormond Wilson, William T. Harris, Alexander T. Stuart, of the District of Columbia; Clem Hampton, of Florida; William M. Slaton, of Georgia; Frances Mann, of Idaho; J. Stanley Brown, Albert G. Lane, Charles I. Parker, John W. Cook, Joshua Pike, Albert R. Taylor, Joseph A. Mercer, of Illinois; Nebraska Cropsey, Thomas A. Mott, of Indiana; John D. Benedict, of Indian Territory; John F. Riggs, Ashley V. Storm, of Iowa; John W. Spindler, Jasper N. Wilkinson, A. V. Jewett, Luther D. Whittemore, of Kansas; William Henry Bartholomew, of Kentucky; Warren Easton, of Louisiana; John S. Locke, of Maine; M. Bates Stephens, of Maryland; Charles W. Eliot, Mary H. Hunt, Henry T. Bailey, of Massachusetts; Hugh A. Graham, Charles G. White, William H. Elson, of Michigan; William F. Phelps, Irwin Shepard, John A. Cranston, of Minnesota; Robert B. Fulton, of Mississippi; F. Louis Soldan, James M. Greenwood, William J. Hawkins, of Missouri; Oscar J. Craig, of Montana; George L. Towne, of Nebraska; Joseph E. Stubbs, of Nevada; James E. Klock, of New Hampshire; James M. Green, John Enright, of New Jersey; Charles M. Light, of New Mexico; James H. Canfield, Nicholas Murray Butler, William H. Maxwell, Charles R. Skinner, Albert P. Marble, James C. Byrnes, of New York; James Y. Joyner, Julius Isaac Foust, of North Carolina; Pitt Gordon Knowlton, of North Dakota; Oscar T. Corson, Jacob A. Shawan, Wells L. Griswold, of Ohio; Edgar S. Vaught, Andrew R. Hickam, of Oklahoma; Charles Carroll Stratton, Edwin D. Ressler, of Oregon; Thomas W. Bicknell, Walter Ballou Jacobs, of Rhode Island; David B. Johnson, Robert P. Pell, of South Carolina; Moritz Adelbert Lange, of South Dakota; Eugene F. Turner, of Tennessee; Lloyd E. Wolfe, of Texas; David H. Christensen, of Utah; Henry O. Wheeler, Isaac Thomas, of Vermont; Joseph L. Jarman, of Virginia; Edward T. Mathes, of Washington; T. Marcellus Marshall, Lucy Robinson, of West Virginia; Lorenzo D. Harvey, of Wisconsin; Thomas T. Tynan, of Wyoming; Cassia Patton, of Alaska; Frank H. Ball, of Porto Rico; Arthur F. Griffiths, of Hawaii; C. H. Maxson, of the Philippine Islands, and such other persons as now are or may hereafter be associated with them as officers or members of said Association, are hereby incorporated and declared to be a body corporate of the District of Columbia by the name of the "National Education Association of the United States," and by that name shall be known and have perpetual succession with the powers, limitations, and restrictions herein contained.

SEC. 2. That the purpose and object of the said corporation shall be to elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching, and to promote the cause of education, in the United States. This corporation shall include the National Council of Education and the following departments, and such others as may hereafter be created by organization or consolidation, to wit: the Departments, first, of Superintendence; second, of Normal Schools; third, of Elementary Education; fourth, of Higher Education; fifth, of Manual Training; sixth, of Art Education; seventh, of Kindergarten Education; eighth, of Music Education; ninth, of Secondary Education; tenth, of Business Education; eleventh, of Child Study; twelfth, of Physical Education; thirteenth, of Natural Science Instruction; fourteenth, of School Administration; fifteenth, the Library Department; sixteenth, of Special Education; seventeenth, of Indian Education; the powers and duties and the number and names of these departments and of the National Council of Education may be changed or abolished at the pleasure of the corporation, as provided in its By-Laws.

SEC. 3. That the said corporation shall further have power to have and to use a common seal, and to alter and change the same at its pleasure; to sue or to be sued in any court of the United States, or other court of competent jurisdiction; to make by-laws not inconsistent with the provisions of this act or of the constitution of the United States; to take or receive, whether by gift, grant, devise, bequest, or purchase, any real or personal estate, and to hold, grant, convey, hire, or lease the same for the purposes of its incorporation; and to accept and administer any trust of real or personal estate for any educational purpose within the objects of the corporation.

SEC. 4. That all real property of the corporation within the District of Columbia, which shall be used by the corporation for the educational or other purposes of the corporation as aforesaid, other than the purposes of producing income, and all personal property and funds of the corporation held, used, or invested for educational purposes aforesaid, or to produce income to be used for such purposes, shall be exempt from taxation; *provided*, however, that this exemption shall not apply to any property of the corporation which shall not be used for, or the income of which shall not be applied to, the educational purposes of the corporation; and, *provided further*, that the corporation shall annually file, with the Commissioner of Education of the United States, a report in writing, stating in detail the property, real and personal, held by the corporation, and the expenditure or other use or disposition of the same, or the income thereof, during the preceding year.

SEC. 5. That the membership of the said corporation shall consist of three classes of members—viz., active, associate, and corresponding—whose qualifications, terms of membership, rights, and obligations shall be prescribed by the By-Laws of the corporation.

SEC. 6. That the officers of the said corporation shall be a President, twelve Vice-Presidents, a Secretary, a Treasurer, a Board of Directors, an Executive Committee, and a Board of Trustees.

The Board of Directors shall consist of a President, the First Vice-President, the Secretary, the Treasurer, the chairman of the Board of Trustees, and one additional member from each state, territory, or district, to be elected by the active members for the term of one year, or until their successors are chosen, and of all life directors of the National Educational Association. The United States Commissioner of Education, and all former Presidents of the said Association now living, and all future Presidents of the Association hereby incorporated, at the close of their respective terms of office, shall be members of the Board of Directors for life. The Board of Directors shall have power to fill all vacancies in their own body; shall have in charge the general interests of the corporation, excepting those herein intrusted to the Board of Trustees; and shall possess such other powers as shall be conferred upon them by the By-Laws of the corporation.

The Executive Committee shall consist of five members, as follows: the President of

the Association, the First Vice-President, the Treasurer, the Chairman of the Board of Trustees, and a member of the Association, to be chosen annually by the Board of Directors, to serve one year. The said committee shall have authority to represent, and to act for, the Board of Directors in the intervals between the meetings of that body, to the extent of carrying out the legislation adopted by the Board of Directors under general directions as may be given by said board.

The Board of Trustees shall consist of four members, elected by the Board of Directors for the term of four years, and the President of the Association, who shall be a member *ex officio*, during his term of office. At the first meeting of the Board of Directors, held during the annual meeting of the Association at which they were elected, they shall elect one trustee for the term of four years. All vacancies occurring in said Board of Trustees, whether by resignation or otherwise, shall be filled by the Board of Directors for the unexpired term; and the absence of a trustee from two successive annual meetings of the board shall forfeit his membership.

SEC. 7. That the invested fund now known as the "Permanent Fund of the National Educational Association," when transferred to the corporation hereby created, shall be held by such corporation as a Permanent Fund and shall be in charge of the Board of Trustees, who shall provide for the safe-keeping and investment of such fund, and of all other funds which the corporation may receive by donation, bequest, or devise. No part of the principal of such Permanent Fund or its accretions shall be expended, except by a two-thirds vote of the active members of the Association present at any annual meeting, upon the recommendation of the Board of Trustees, after such recommendation has been approved by vote of the Board of Directors, and after printed notice of the proposed expenditure has been mailed to all active members of the Association. The income of the Permanent Fund shall be used only to meet the cost of maintaining the organization of the Association and of publishing its annual volume of *Proceedings*, unless the terms of the donation, bequest, or devise shall otherwise specify, or the Board of Directors shall otherwise order. It shall also be the duty of the Board of Trustees to issue orders on the Treasurer for the payment of all bills approved by the Board of Directors, or by the President and Secretary of the Association acting under the authority of the Board of Directors. When practicable, the Board of Trustees shall invest, as part of the Permanent Fund all surplus funds exceeding five hundred dollars that shall remain in the hands of the Treasurer after paying the expenses of the Association for the previous year, and providing for the fixed expenses and for all appropriations made by the Board of Directors for the ensuing year.

The Board of Trustees shall elect the Secretary of the Association, who shall also be secretary of the Executive Committee, and shall fix the compensation and the term of his office for a period not to exceed four years.

SEC. 8. That the principal office of the said corporation shall be in the city of Washington, District of Columbia, provided that the meetings of the corporation, its officers, committees, and departments, may be held, and that its business may be transacted, and an office or offices may be maintained, elsewhere, within the United States, as may be determined by the Board of Directors, or otherwise in accordance with the By-Laws.

SEC. 9. That the Charter, Constitution, and By-Laws of the National Educational Association shall continue in full force and effect until the charter granted by this act shall be accepted by such Association at the next annual meeting of the Association, and until new By-Laws shall be adopted; and that the present officers, directors, and trustees of said Association shall continue to hold office and perform their respective duties as such, until the expiration of the terms for which they were severally elected or appointed, and until their successors are elected. That at such annual meeting the active members of the National Educational Association, then present, may organize and proceed to accept

the charter granted by this Act and adopt By-Laws, to elect officers to succeed those whose terms have expired or are about to expire, and generally to organize the "National Education Association of the United States;" and that the Board of Trustees of the corporation hereby incorporated shall thereupon, if the charter granted by this act be accepted, receive, take over, and enter into possession, custody, and management of all property, real and personal, of the corporation heretofore known as the National Educational Association, incorporated as aforesaid, under the Revised Statutes of the District of Columbia, and all its rights, contracts, claims, and property of every kind and nature whatsoever; and the several officers, directors and trustees of such last-named Association, or any other person having charge of any of the securities, funds, books, or property thereof, real or personal, shall on demand deliver the same to the proper officers, directors, or trustees of the corporation hereby created. *Provided,* That a verified certificate executed by the presiding officer and secretary of such annual meeting, showing the acceptance of the charter granted by this act by the National Educational Association shall be legal evidence of the fact, when filed with the recorder of deeds of the District of Columbia: and, *provided further,* That in the event of the failure of the Association to accept the charter granted by this act at said annual meeting, then the charter of the National Educational Association and its corporate existence shall be, and are hereby extended until the thirty-first day of July, nineteen hundred and eight, and at any time before said date its charter may be extended in the manner and form provided by the general corporation law of the District of Columbia.

SEC. 10. That the rights of creditors of the said existing corporation, known as the National Educational Association, shall not in any manner be impaired by the passage of this act, or the transfer of the property heretofore mentioned, nor shall any liability or obligation, or the payment of any sum due or to become due, or any claim or demand, in any manner, or for any cause existing against the said existing corporation, be released or impaired; and the corporation hereby incorporated is declared to succeed to the obligations and liabilities, and to be held liable to pay and discharge all of the debts, liabilities, and contracts, of the said corporation so existing, to the same effect as if such new corporation had itself incurred the obligation or liability to pay such debt or damages, and no action or proceeding before any court or tribunal shall be deemed to have abated or been discontinued by reason of this act.

SEC. 11. That Congress may from time to time alter, repeal, or modify this act of incorporation, but no contract or individual right made or acquired shall thereby be divested or impaired.

At the meeting of the Active Members at Asbury Park, N. J., July 6, Albert G. Lane, of Chicago, Chairman of Board of Trustees, submitted a copy of the following Proposed By-Laws and gave notice as required by the Constitution for their consideration for adoption at the next annual meeting.

PROPOSED BY-LAWS

ARTICLE I—MEMBERSHIP

ACTIVE MEMBERS

SECTION 1. Teachers and all who are actively associated with the management of educational institutions, including libraries and educational publications, may become active members.

SEC. 2. Any eligible person may become an active member upon application indorsed by two active members, and the payment of an enrollment fee of two dollars and the annual dues for the current year.

SEC. 3. Active members only shall have the right to vote and to hold office in the Association, in the National Council of Education, or in the several departments.

SEC. 4. All active members shall pay annual dues of two dollars, and shall be entitled to the volume of *Proceedings* without "coupon" or other conditions.

SEC. 5. The annual membership fee shall be payable at the time of the annual convention, or by remittance to the Secretary before September 1 of each year.

SEC. 6. Any active member may discontinue membership by giving written notice to the Secretary before September 1 in any year, and may restore the same only on payment of the enrollment fee of two dollars and the annual dues for the current year. A written application for active membership shall constitute an agreement to continue such membership and pay annual dues, unless written notice of discontinuance is sent to the Secretary before September 1 of the fiscal year for which such discontinuance shall apply.

CORRESPONDING MEMBERS

SEC. 7. Eminent educators not residing in America may be elected by the Board of Directors to be corresponding members. The number of corresponding members shall at no time exceed fifty.

SEC. 8. Corresponding members shall be entitled to the volume of *Proceedings* without the payment of fees or other conditions.

ASSOCIATE MEMBERS

SEC. 9. Any person on paying an annual membership fee of two dollars may become an associate member.

SEC. 10. Associate members may receive the volume of *Proceedings* in accordance with the usual "coupon" conditions, as printed on the membership certificate.

LIFE MEMBERS

SEC. 11. All life members and life directors shall be denominated active members and shall enjoy all the powers and privileges of such members without the payment of annual dues.

ROLL OF MEMBERS

SEC. 12. The names of active, life, and corresponding members only shall be printed in the annual *Yearbook*, with their respective educational titles, offices, and addresses and the list shall be revised annually by the Secretary of the Association.

ARTICLE II—OFFICERS AND COMMITTEES

SECTION 1. The President, Vice-Presidents, directors, and Treasurer shall be chosen by the active members of the Association by ballot, unless otherwise ordered, on the third day of each annual session, a majority of the votes cast being necessary to a choice. They shall continue in office until the close of the annual session subsequent to their election and until their successors are chosen, except as hereinafter provided.

COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS

SEC. 2. At the first session of each annual meeting of the Association the President shall appoint a Committee on Resolutions.

COMMITTEE ON NOMINATIONS

SEC. 3. At the third session of each annual meeting of the Association there shall be appointed by the President a Committee on Nominations, consisting of one member from each state and territory represented. Such a committee shall be appointed by the President on the nomination of a majority of the active members from such state or territory present at the meeting called for the purpose of making such nomination; *provided*, however, that such appointment shall be made by the President without such nomination, when the active members in attendance from any state or territory shall fail to make a nomination.

SEC. 4. The meetings of the active members of the several states to nominate members of the nominating committee shall be held at 5:30 P. M. on the first day of the annual meeting of the Association, at such places as shall be announced in the general program.

ARTICLE III—DUTIES OF OFFICERS

THE PRESIDENT

SECTION 1. The President shall preside at all meetings of the Association and of the Board of Directors, and shall perform the duties usually devolving upon a presiding officer. In his absence the first Vice-President in order, who is present, shall preside; and in the absence of all the Vice-Presidents, a *pro tempore* chairman shall be appointed on nomination, the Secretary putting the question.

THE SECRETARY

SEC. 2. The Secretary shall keep a full and accurate report of the proceedings of the general meetings of the Association and of all meetings of the Board of Directors, and shall conduct such correspondence and transact such other business of the Association as the directors or Executive Committee may assign, and shall have his records present at all meetings of the Association and the Board of Directors.

THE TREASURER

SEC. 3. The Treasurer shall receive, and under the direction of the Board of Trustees hold in safekeeping, the current income of the Association; shall expend the same only upon order of said board; shall keep an exact account of his receipts and expenditures, with vouchers for the latter; which accounts, ending the first day of July in each year, he shall render to the Board of Trustees and, when approved by said board, he shall report to the Board of Directors. The Treasurer shall give such bond for the faithful discharge of his duties as may be required by the Board of Trustees; and he shall continue in office until the first meeting of the Board of Directors held prior to the annual meeting of the Association next succeeding that at which he is elected, and until his successor has been elected and has qualified.

AUDITOR OF ACCOUNTS

SEC. 4. It shall be the duty of the President, Secretary, and Treasurer of the Association to appoint annually some competent person to examine the securities of the Permanent Fund held by the Board of Trustees, and his certificate, showing the condition of the said fund, shall be attached to the annual report of the Board of Trustees.

CERTIFICATION OF BILLS

SEC. 5. The President and Secretary shall certify to the Board of Trustees all bills approved by the Board of Directors.

ARTICLE IV—THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS

SECTION 1. The Board of Directors shall hold its regular annual meeting at the place of the annual convention, and not less than two hours before the assembling of the Association.

SEC. 2. Special meetings may be held at such other times and places as the board or the President shall determine.

SEC. 3. Each new board shall organize at the session of its election.

ARTICLE V—THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION

OBJECTS AND DUTIES

SECTION 1. The National Council of Education shall have for its object the consideration and discussion of educational questions of public and professional interest; the proposal to the Board of Directors, from time to time, of suitable subjects for investigation and research, and the recommendation of the amount of appropriations that should be made for such purposes; the appointment and general supervision of such special committees of investigation and research as may be provided for and authorized by the Board of Directors of the Association; the consideration, discussion, and recommendation to the Board of Directors for disposition of all reports by such special committees of research as may have been appointed on its recommendation or by its authority; the annual preparation and presentation to the Association at its annual convention of a report on "Educational Progress during the Past Year;" and in other ways shall use its best efforts to further the objects of the Association and to promote the cause of education in general.

MEMBERSHIP OF THE COUNCIL

SEC. 2. The Council shall consist of sixty members, selected from the membership of the Association. Any member of the Association identified with educational work is eligible to membership in the Council.

SEC. 3. The Board of Directors shall annually elect five members, and the Council shall elect five members, each member to serve for six years, or until his successor is elected.

SEC. 4. The annual election of members of the Council shall be held in connection with the annual meetings of the Association. If the Board of Directors shall fail, for any

reason, to fill its quota of members annually, the vacancy or vacancies shall be filled by the Council.

SEC. 5. The absence of a member from two consecutive annual meetings of the Council shall be considered equivalent to resignation of membership, and the Council shall fill vacancies caused by absence from the Council as herein defined, as well as vacancies caused by death or resignation, for the unexpired term. All persons who have belonged to the Council shall, on the expiration of their membership, become honorary members, with the privilege of attending its regular sessions and participating in its discussions. No state shall be represented in the Council by more than eight members.

BY-LAWS OF THE COUNCIL

SEC. 6. The Council may establish by-laws for its government not inconsistent with the Act of Incorporation or of the By-Laws of the Association, provided such by-laws shall be submitted to and approved by the Board of Directors of the Association before they shall become operative.

ARTICLE VI—DEPARTMENTS

SECTION 1. A department shall consist of those members of the Association who are especially interested in the consideration of a particular group of educational problems. Each department shall be administered by a president, vice-president, secretary, and such other officers as it shall deem necessary to conduct its affairs.

SEC. 2. Each department shall hold its annual meeting at the time of the annual convention of the Association, except the Department of Superintendence, which may hold its annual meeting in February of each year, or at such other time as may be determined by the officers of said department.

SEC. 3. The objects of the annual department meetings shall be the discussion of questions pertaining to their respective fields of educational work. The programs of these meetings shall be organized and conducted by the respective presidents, in conference with, and under the general direction of, the President of the Association. Each department shall be limited to two sessions, with formal programs, at the time of the annual convention, except that a third session for business or informal round-table conference may be held at the discretion of the department officers.

SEC. 4. Upon the written request of twenty active members of the Association for permission to establish a new department, the Board of Directors may grant such permission. Such new department shall in all respects be entitled to the same rights and privileges as the departments named in the Act of Incorporation.

ARTICLE VII—MEETINGS

SECTION 1. The annual meeting of the Association shall be held at such time and place as shall be determined by the Board of Directors.

SEC. 2. Special meetings may be called by the President at the request of five directors.

SEC. 3. Any department of the Association may hold a special meeting at such time and place as by its own regulations it shall appoint.

SEC. 4. No paper, lecture, or address shall be read before the Association or any of its departments, in the absence of its author, nor shall any such paper, lecture or address be published in the volume of *Proceedings*, without the consent of the Association, upon the approval of the Executive Committee.

ARTICLE VIII—AMENDMENTS

SECTION 1. These by-laws may be altered or amended at any annual meeting by the unanimous vote of the members present; or by a two-thirds vote of the members present, provided that the substance of the alteration or amendment has been proposed in writing at a previous annual meeting.

At the same meeting Silas Y. Gillan, of Wisconsin, proposed and gave notice of the following amendment to the Constitution to be considered for adoption at the next annual meeting:

Resolved, That sec. 2, Art. IV of the Constitution be amended by adding the following words to the first paragraph:

The active members from any state, territory, or district, in attendance at the meeting

for electing a member of the Committee on Nominations, may elect the additional member of the Board of Directors for such state, territory, or district.

Resolved, That the By-Laws be amended by inserting the following paragraphs immediately after the first paragraph of By-Law No. 1:

"The Committee on Nominations shall meet on the second day of each annual session and nominate candidates for President, Treasurer, and a director for each state, territory, or district whose members shall not have reported the election of a director as provided in sec. 2, Art. IV, of the Constitution; and the Committee on Nominations shall report to the active members at their meeting the following day a list of the nominations.

"When the vote is taken by the Committee on Nominations for candidates for President and Treasurer, the committee shall report the persons having the highest number of votes, not exceeding two persons, as candidates for each office. But if, after two formal ballots, any person shall receive a two-thirds majority of the votes cast by the Committee on Nominations for any one of the aforesaid offices, then the person receiving such two-thirds majority shall be reported as the only candidate for such office."

DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE

LOUISVILLE MEETING, 1906

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

FIRST DAY

MORNING SESSION.—TUESDAY, FEBRUARY 27, 1906

The Department of Superintendence was called to order in Warren Memorial Church, Louisville, Ky., at 9:30 A. M., President John W. Carr, superintendent of schools, Dayton, Ohio, in the chair.

A chorus of fifth-grade girls from the John H. Heywood School of Louisville opened the meeting with song. Prayer was offered by Rev. Peyton H. Hoge, pastor of the church. Superintendent E. H. Mark, chairman of the Louisville Local Committee, announced that Hon. J. W. C. Beckham, governor of Kentucky, was prevented by a meeting of the legislature from being present. His representative, Hon. James H. Fuqua, state superintendent of public instruction, extended a welcome on behalf of the state. Hon. Paul Barth, mayor of Louisville, extended greetings on behalf of the city of Louisville. Bishop Charles E. Woodcock, of the Episcopal Diocese of Kentucky, welcomed the superintendents on behalf of the schools.

A response on behalf of the department was made by President John W. Carr.

Two papers on "Moral and Religious Education in the Public Schools" were read, the subtitles being as follows:

a) "Means Afforded by the Public Schools for Moral and Religious Training": Thomas A. Mott, superintendent of schools, Richmond, Ind.

b) "The Effect of Moral Education in the Public Schools upon the Civic Life of the Community": William O. Thompson, president of the Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

The discussion was led by William J. Shearer, superintendent of schools, Elizabeth, N. J. Others who participated in the discussion were M. M. Ramer, superintendent of public instruction of South Dakota; James M. Greenwood, superintendent of schools, Kansas City, Mo.; Henry Sabin, ex-superintendent of public instruction, Des Moines, Iowa; J. D. Simkins, superintendent of schools, Newark, Ohio; John W. Cook, president, Northern Illinois State Normal School, DeKalb, Ill.; Silas Y. Gillan, editor of the *Western Teacher*, Milwaukee, Wis.; James L. Hughes, inspector of schools, Toronto, Canada; Frank B. Cooper, superintendent of schools, Seattle, Wash.; F. Louis Soldan, superintendent of instruction, public schools, St. Louis, Mo.

Superintendent E. H. Mark, chairman of the Louisville Local Committee, announced a reception to the department by the various woman's club organizations at the Woman's Club.

The department then adjourned until 2 P. M.

AFTERNOON SESSION

The afternoon session opened at 2:30, with President Carr in the chair.

Mrs Sarah E. Hyre, member of the Board of Education, Cleveland, Ohio, addressed the department on the subject, "Woman's Part in Public-School Education."

Reuben Post Halleck, principal of Boys' High School, Louisville, Ky., read a paper on "What Kind of Education is Best Suited to Boys?"

"What Kind of Education is Best Suited to Girls?" was the subject of a paper given by Miss Anna T. Hamilton, principal of Semple Collegiate School, Louisville, Ky.

The papers were discussed by F. Louis Soldan, superintendent of instruction, public schools, St. Louis, Mo., and Charles D. Lowry, district superintendent of schools, Chicago, Ill.

W. T. Harris, United States Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C., was introduced by the chair, and read a paper on "What Kind of Language Study Aids in the Mastery of Natural Science?"

The president announced the following committees:

COMMITTEE ON NOMINATIONS

C. M. Jordan, Minneapolis, Minn. W. F. Gordy, Springfield, Mass.
W. A. Millis, Crawfordsville, Ind. George R. Glenn, Atlanta, Ga.
Oscar T. Corson, Columbus, Ohio.

COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS

E .G. Cooley, Chicago, Ill. J. H. Hinemon, Little Rock, Ark.
J. W. Swartz, Parkersburg, W. Va. C. F. Carroll, Rochester, N. Y.
Thomas J. Kirk, Sacramento, Cal. J. L. McBrien, Lincoln, Nebr.
Charles S. Foos, Reading, Pa.

On motion, the meeting adjourned.

EVENING SESSION

The program for the evening consisted of an address by Hon. Oscar T. Corson, ex-state school commissioner of Ohio and Editor of the *Ohio Educational Monthly*, Columbus Ohio, on "The Superintendent's Authority and the Teacher's Freedom;" and an address "The Teaching of Arithmetic in the American Schools," by Professor Simon Newcomb, Washington, D. C.

SECOND DAY

MORNING SESSION.—WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 28

The department convened at 9:30 A. M., with President Carr in the chair.

The topic "Means of Improving the Efficiency of the Grammar School" was discussed as follows:

a) "Suggestions for the Improvement of the Study Period": Frank M. McMurry, professor of theory and practice of teaching, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

b) "Eliminations and Modifications in the Course of Study": Martin G. Brumbaugh, professor of pedagogy, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.

c) "How Can the Supervising Influence of Grammar-School Principals be Improved?": Lewis H. Jones, president of State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Mich.

Then followed the discussion of Professor Newcomb's address by Robert J. Aley, professor of mathematics, Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind.

The topic of the morning was discussed by Charles M. Jordan, superintendent of schools, Minneapolis, Minn., and Calvin N. Kendall, superintendent of schools, Indianapolis, Ind.

BUSINESS SESSION

The Committee on Nominations submitted the following nominations:

For *President*—W. W. Stetson, Maine.
For *First Vice-President*—H. H. Seerley, Iowa.
For *Second Vice-President*—R. J. Tighe, North Carolina.
For *Secretary*—J. H. Harris, Michigan.

The report was unanimously adopted.

The following report on behalf of the Committee on Simplified Spelling was made thru its chairman, Edwin B. Cox, of Xenia, Ohio:

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON SIMPLIFICATION OF SPELLING

To the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association:

GENTLEMEN: When our report was rendered one year ago, the question of the appointment, by the Board of Directors of the National Educational Association, of a commission to head the simplified-spelling movement and of giving such a commission funds to work with, was under consideration by the special committee of five to whom it had been referred for advice by the Committee on Investigations and Appropriations of the National Council.

The Committee of Advice reported to the National Council at Asbury Park that it was unanimous in the opinion that the simplification of our spelling is an object worthy of hearty support by the National Educational Association. But on the points of creating a commission, and of providing it with money, the committee was divided and submitted two reports. The minority, consisting of Superintendent William H. Maxwell and Professor Calvin Thomas, advised against the course advocated by a majority of your committee in conformity with your petition. The majority, consisting of President H. H. Seerley, Superintendent C. M. Jordan, and Professor George Hempl, reported in favor of the course recommended by this department.

A square deal would have taken this report under consideration before the session closed. But this was prevented by circumstances which bore the mark of design, and the report still awaits due attention. It is not the only instance in which this matter, altho indorsed by so decided a majority of this department and of the active members of the National Educational Association, has been embarrassed and hindered by the management of some who assume the rôle of an over-ruling providence in the affairs of the National Educational Association.

Should your committee persist in its effort to give effect to the will of the majority in this matter, our experience during the past three years shows that the final outcome would be doubtful. This circumstance, in connection with developments in this cause which are taking place in another field, satisfies us that it is best to abandon the object for which this committee was created and to discharge the committee.

But so important is the rationalizing of our spelling, and so closely is it related to the work and success of our teachers and schools, that it seems to your committee that the department would do injustice to itself and to the cause of education if it should fail to keep in close touch with this movement as it progresses, and at every turn to give it the utmost assistance in its power.

Therefore, we recommend:

1. That the specific purpose for which your committee was appointed be abandoned and the committee discharged.

2. That a committee of five, to continue five years and with power to fill its own vacancies, be appointed by the chair, to report at our annual meetings such matters relating to this movement as it deems worthy of consideration by the department.

Respectfully submitted,

EDWIN B. COX, *Chairman*, Xenia, Ohio;
C. N. KENDALL, Indianapolis, Ind.;
A. W. RANKIN, Minneapolis, Minn.;
H. M. SLAUSON, Ann Arbor, Mich.;
Committee.

The following motion was then adopted:

Resolved, That the specific purpose for which the committee was appointed be abandoned and the committee be discharged.

The department voted that the following resolution be referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

Resolved, That a committee of five, to continue five years and with power to fill its own vacancies, be appointed by the chair to report at our annual meetings such matters relating to this movement as it deems worthy of consideration by the department.

The selection of a place for the next meeting of the department was declared the next order of business. Chicago, Ill.; St. Paul, Minn.; Hot Springs, Ark.; and Washington, D. C., were proposed. A vote was taken, and Chicago was decided upon as the place for the next meeting.

Carroll G. Pearse, superintendent of schools, Milwaukee, Wis., made the following motion:

Resolved, That the meeting of this department for 1907 be held in the city of St. Paul, Minn., or wherever this department shall at this time determine, and that each fourth year thereafter the meeting be held in such place as the department shall determine; that in 1908, and each second year thereafter, this Department meet in the city of Chicago, Ill.; that in 1909, and each fourth year thereafter, this department meet in the city of Washington, D. C.

The department voted that the motion be laid on the table.

The meeting then adjourned.

AFTERNOON SESSION

ROUND TABLE SESSIONS

A. ROUND TABLE OF CITY SUPERINTENDENTS OF LARGER CITIES

The round-table conference was held in Warren Memorial Church; leader, Miss Ida C. Bender, supervisor of primary grades, Buffalo, N. Y.; secretary, Franklin S. Hoyt, assistant superintendent of schools, Indianapolis, Ind.

Topic—"Interrelation of Functions in a City School System."

The following papers were read:

a) "Relation of the Superintendent to the City School System": F. Louis Soldan, superintendent of instruction, public schools, St. Louis, Mo.

b) "Relation of the Supervisor to the City School System": Miss Ada Van Stone Harris, supervisor of kindergartens and primary schools, Rochester, N. Y.

c) "Relations of the City Normal and Training School to the City School System": Mrs. Ella Flagg Young, principal of the Chicago Normal School, Chicago, Ill.

B. ROUND TABLE OF CITY SUPERINTENDENTS OF SMALLER CITIES

The round table was held in the Auditorium of the Walnut Street Church; leader, John H. Phillips, superintendent of schools, Birmingham, Ala.; secretary, M. E. Pearson, superintendent of schools, Kansas City, Kans.

"The Local Training School as an Agency in the Preparation of Teachers" was discussed by James M. Greenwood, superintendent of schools of Kansas City, Mo.; W. F. Gordy, superintendent of schools of Springfield, Mass.; and others.

A paper was read by William McKendree Vance, superintendent of schools, Miamisburg, Ohio, on "The Best Means and Methods of Improving Teachers Already in Service."

The discussion was led by Edwin L. Holton, superintendent of schools of Holton, Kans.

W. M. Davidson, superintendent of schools, Omaha, Nebr., spoke on "The Advantages and Limitations of Pupil Government in the High School."

C. ROUND TABLE OF STATE AND COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS

The round table was called to order in the lecture-room of the Walnut Street Church at 2:30 P. M. by Superintendent C. P. Cary, of Wisconsin. H. A. Dean, superintendent of schools of Kane County, Geneva, Ill., was appointed secretary.

State Superintendent Fassett A. Cotton, of Indiana, read a paper on "The Minimum-Salary Law and How it Operates." This paper was discussed by State Superintendents Nathan C. Schaeffer, of Pennsylvania; Thomas C. Miller, of West Virginia; W. L. Stockwell, of North Dakota; W. T. Carrington, of Missouri; and James B. Aswell, of Louisiana.

State Superintendent J. W. Olsen, of Minnesota, read a paper on "Rural School Architecture." Mr. Olsen had plans for a one-room and a two-room schoolhouse in a pamphlet prepared for the occasion. John R. Kirk, president of the State Normal School, Kirksville, Mo., discussed the subject, showing plans of a model rural school building to be erected on the normal-school grounds.

On motion, a committee, consisting of John R. Kirk, J. W. Olsen, and C. P. Cary, was instructed to devise means for furnishing the plans and specifications of rural school buildings to members of the round table who might wish to use them.

D. ROUND TABLE CONFERENCE ON SIMPLIFIED SPELLING

The conference met in the First Christian Church; leader, William H. Elson, superintendent of schools, Grand Rapids, Mich.; secretary, H. M. Slauson, superintendent of schools, Ann Arbor, Mich.

The leading paper was read by Chancellor E. Benjamin Andrews, of the University of Nebraska, who was followed by Professor George Hempl, of the University of Michigan; J. Geddes, Jr., professor of Romance languages, Boston University, and others.

At the close of the discussion, the following resolution was offered by President David Felmley, of Normal, Ill., and unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That we urge the Department of Superintendence to ask the National Educational Association to appoint a commission to prepare a spelling primer containing a number of the most easy and obviously desirable improved spellings recommended by the London Philological Society and the American Philological Association; that the National Educational Association approve the use of these words and the introduction of this primer as an alternative. We further recommend this preface to the proposed primer: "The improved spellings in this little book are not yet customary, but it is desirable that they become customary. They have the approval of the very best authorities in the English-speaking world. Teachers who choose to teach them may do so with the feeling that they are performing an important social service. Pupils who choose to use them may do so without thereby incurring the odium of illiteracy."

EVENING SESSION

The program for the evening was as follows:

An address, "The Incorrigible Child," by Miss Julia Richman, district superintendent of schools, New York City.

An address, "The School Court," by Ben N. Lindsey, judge of the Juvenile Court, Denver, Colo.

THIRD DAY

MORNING SESSION.—THURSDAY, MARCH 1

The meeting was called to order by President Carr at 9:30 o'clock.

The chair introduced John C. Eberhardt, ex-president of the American Association of Opticians, and member of the Board of Education, Dayton, Ohio. who read a paper on "The Examination of the Eyes of School Children."

James H. Van Sickle addressed the meeting on "What Should Be the Basis for the Promotion of Teachers and the Increase of Teachers' Salaries?"

The third paper on the program, "The Next Step in the Salary Campaign," was given by David Felmley, president of Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Ill.

The papers of the morning were discussed by Miss Adelaide S. Baylor, superintendent of schools, Wabash, Ind.

The next topic, "Phonetic Key Notation," was presented by George Hempl, professor of English philology and general linguistics, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.

The department adjourned to meet at 2:30 P. M.

AFTERNOON SESSION

The meeting convened at 2:30 P. M.; President Carr in the chair.

The topic "Industrial Training in the Public Schools" was discussed in the following order:

a) "What Form of Industrial Training is Most Practical and Best Suited to the Country Child?": O. J. Kern, superintendent of schools of Winnebago County, Rockford, Ill.

b) "What Form of Industrial Training is Most Practical and Best Suited to the City Child?": Charles H. Keyes, superintendent of schools, South District, Hartford, Conn.

c) "Art as Related to Manual Training": James Edwin Addicott, principal of Newman Manual Training School, New Orleans, La.

The Committee on Resolutions then offered thru its chairman, Superintendent E. G. Cooley, of Chicago, Ill., the following report, which, upon motion, was unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That the thanks of the department are hereby tendered to Superintendent E. H. Mark, the Local Committee, and the subcommittees thereof, for their untiring efforts to secure adequate arrangements for the success of this meeting; to the Affiliated Women's Clubs, the Girls' High School, and others for their efforts to make our stay in Louisville pleasant; to the Press of Louisville, for the prominence given to the reports of our meetings; to the citizens, and to the teachers and pupils of the Louisville schools, for the generous reception given to our members; to the railroads, which have treated the membership generously in the matter of rates; to the president and other members of the department, for the excellent program prepared for our meeting.

Resolved, That this department approves of the bill now before Congress extending the franking privilege to the state educational departments, covering the mailing of reports and other official documents, and urges the passage of the same.

Resolved, That we believe that the interests of educational progress and of this department require specialization, with its resultant definite attention to particular problems and conditions. We therefore recommend that the programs of this department be devoted to a discussion of the duties and responsibilities of school administration, management, supervision, and organization.

Resolved, That this department is in hearty accord with that part of the recent report of Hon. James Wilson, secretary of agriculture of the United States, in which he encourages the teaching of elementary agriculture, and we respectfully request Congress to grant the appropriation of $13,620 which he has asked for, to enable him to investigate and report upon the present condition and progress of agricultural instruction in institutions in this and foreign countries.

Resolved, That, since it is essential to the successful teaching of industrial subjects in the public schools that teachers shall first be trained for this work, we urge the state normal schools to give special attention to instruction in elementary agriculture, manual training, and domestic science.

Resolved, That, in order to enable the normal schools to meet the extraordinary expense of properly equipping themselves for instruction in elementary agriculture and manual training, we urge upon Congress the adoption of the Burkett-Pollard Bill, now before that body, making appropriation to the several states for this purpose.

Resolved, That this department takes this occasion to express its sympathy with the efforts now being made in various parts of our country to combat the pernicious influence upon our youth of the fraternities and sororities now found in some of our secondary schools. The recent decision of the superior court of Washington assuring the boards of education of that state of their right to fix reasonable regulations, and to attach reasonable penalties to enforce the regulations, necessary to control these fraternities and sororities, is a cause of heartfelt congratulation to all friends of the common schools. These undemocratic organizations threaten to change the entire character of the public high school, and must be controlled or abolished.

Resolved, That the efforts made by many committees of our country to secure more adequate salaries for the teachers in the public schools give great hope for their increased efficiency in the future. We wish also to express the belief that the efforts now made by many of our cities to discriminate in schedules of salaries between the more and the less efficient teacher, and to recognize efficiency as well as time in fixing the position of the teacher on the schedule, is a distinct recognition that the child, as well as the teacher, is entitled to consideration in fixing the position of a teacher upon the salary schedule.

E. G. Cooley, of Illinois, *Chairman*.
Charles S. Foos, of Pennsylvania.
Thos. J. Kirk, of California.
J. W. Swartz, of West Virginia.
John H. Hinemon, of Arkansas.
C. F. Carroll, of New York.
J. L. McBrien, of Nebraska.

President Carr then took occasion to thank the men and women who were on the program for their promptness and efficiency in discharging their duty.

He also extended thanks to the officers of the association for their courtesy and co-operation in making the meeting a success.

On motion, the department adjourned.

ELLA C. SULLIVAN, *Secretary.*

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

THE MEANS AFFORDED BY THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS FOR MORAL AND RELIGIOUS TRAINING

THOMAS A. MOTT, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, RICHMOND, IND.

The appreciation of the meaning and scope of education is the greatest problem before mankind. The supreme center in all education is the child in its relation to its environments. What is the child, its development, the end in view, the means to be employed, its relation to nature, to society, to divinity, are all questions which demand our attention in considering the subject of the method and scope in education.

No scheme of education has any claim upon our consideration unless it is founded upon some true view of the proper conduct and outcome of life. The problems of religious and moral education are a part of the problem of education as a whole. True education is a unitary process. It is a life-process. In a large sense, we are wrong when we think of religious education, moral education, intellectual education, and physical education as distinct processes.

"Civilization, man's spiritual environment, is made up of man's art, his science, his literature, his religious beliefs, and his institutional life." Into one of these divisions we may put each of the results of human aspiration and human achievement. Real education for any normal child must include a knowledge of each of these elements of the social activity of the race, as well as an insight into them all, and a sympathy with them all.

We cannot think of the *end* of education being citizenship, parenthood, economics, industrialism, trade, or language. We must look upon man in the full roundness of character, in all beauty of body, of intellect, of heart, of will, beneficent and strong as a worker, as the ideal product of the highest educational process. The *end* must ever be *character*, based upon true habits of moral conduct, and a strong religious faith.

The place and importance of religion as an element in human life hardly need discussion. The fact is that there has not been a single tribe or people known to history which has been shown to be destitute of religious thought of some form. Religion is a part of man's psychical being. In the nature and laws of the human mind, in the intellect, emotions, sympathies, and passions, lie the well-springs of all religion, modern or ancient, Christian or heathen. To these we must refer, and by these we must explain, whatever

errors, falsehoods, bigotry, or cruelty have sustained man's creeds; to these we must credit whatever truth, beauty, piety, and love have glorified and hallowed his long search for the perfect and the eternal.

There seems to be a general response from the human heart, as well as from history, to that clear statement of Hegel's when he says:

> Religion is for our consciousness that region in which all enigmas are solved, all the contradictions of deep-reaching thought have their meanings unveiled, and where the voice of the heart's pain is silenced—the region of eternal truth, of eternal rest, of eternal peace.

We believe that the field for moral and civic instruction is quite distinct from religious training. The moral phases of life are closely related to religious life, but the two are quite separate. Dr. Butler calls attention to the fact that religion has not infrequently in the history of the world been immoral in its influences and tendencies, and insists that to confuse religion with ethics is to obscure both. Religion must be apprehended as something distinct from ethics and morality, if apprehended at all. If the history of civilization bears unerring testimony to any one proposition, it is that morality for its highest efficiency requires some kind of religious basis. And the truest and highest forms of religious life demand a perfect code of moral life.

A system of morality based upon mere expediency, solely deductions from human experience, or upon utilitarian grounds, can never produce the highest moral life. Some kind of religious belief, sanction, aspiration, lies at the foundation and root of every system of morality that has borne noble fruit in the world. In the conflict of life, when in the midst of success or failure, temptation, despair, or sorrow; when the battle of life is strong between the forces of good and evil, the human heart finds little aid in questions of expediency, utility, or custom, but intuitively reaches upward in hope of aid and inspiration from an infinite and all-loving, all-powerful God and Father.

It is significant that religious and moral instruction should be so often joined together in our thought of educational processes. In the very nature of the development of personal character, they are necessarily involved. But for the sake of clear thinking, and for the purpose of this paper, I shall consider them separately, first dealing with the opportunities afforded in the common school for efficient moral training.

The cry of the times is for more effective moral instruction in the schools. The demand is becoming more and more insistent that the output of the schools shall have a higher moral basis. Some are declaring that the public schools are immoral, and that *character-training* is not the high aim of their work.

Show me a school in which the standard of discipline is low; in which the incentives to work and duty are based upon fear, pride, or selfishness; where the demand upon pupils is not for exact results; where the teacher's character is unchristian or immoral, and I will show a school that is immoral in its tendencies. But the well-ordered school, under the direction of the

teacher with strong character, is, next to the true home, the best place known to man for the development of character.

The *Syllabus on Ethics* issued in New York City begins with the sentences:

> The personality of the teacher is at the root of all moral education in the school. The teacher's ideals, sincerity, poise, self-control, courtesy, voice, manner of dress, and attitude toward life, are potent forces for character-building.

The *government and discipline* of the school afford the best of opportunities for character-training. In fact, the fundamental function of school government is the training of the pupils in habits of self-control and self-direction. Moral training consists primarily in the practicing of the moral virtues and the development of rich moral habits. Every power of the soul is developed by appropriate moral activity.

Low standards of discipline and conduct, and low incentives to moral action, if continued thru the formative years of life, usually result in weak character. The foundations of immoral character are usually laid during childhood, resulting from lack of proper control, or control thru a low order of incentives. The first step in a life of intemperance is not usually the first drink, but is to be found back in childhood, when indulgence resulted in the failure to form the habit of self-control and self-mastery.

In the best-governed school or home the lower incentives to action, such as fear and motives based upon selfishness, are seldom, if ever, appealed to. It is all-important in every well-ordered school, where the development of character is the first aim, that the child shall be prompted to right action by true and unselfish incentives. Dr. E. E. White named nine royal motives to action: desire of good standing, desire of approbation, desire for knowledge, desire for efficiency, desire for self-control, desire for future good, sense of honor, sense of right, sense of duty. In the school where these incentives are uppermost, and right standards of conduct are insisted upon, there should come into the life of the child many fixed habits which will form the foundation of true moral character. Dr. White also names ten habits or virtues which should be secured in every good school, and the practice of which forms the basis of moral training. These are: regularity, punctuality, neatness, accuracy, silence, industry, obedience to authority, truthfulness, kindness, justice to associates.

The life of the school as a little community forms the basis for early training in civic morality. The school is the first institution outside of the home with which the child comes into intimate relation. The conditions which first caused the rise of morality in the race are here reproduced, in a measure, as he becomes a factor in the school community. Here to his own will are imposed the wills of others, and he must respect the rights of his associates as equal to his own.

The first moral effect of the school life, as representing the child's first contact with institutional life outside the home, is best attained when the teacher, in directing and governing the school, subdues the personal element

in himself, and bases all rules of conduct on the duty of each child to respect the rights of others and the good of the school. Rightly understood, the organization and government of a school are a constant and highly important factor in moral education of children.

The regular work of the schoolroom may be to the child an element of moral strength, or it may have its immoral tendency according to the way in which it is done. The habit of doing each day the duties assigned in the school in a successful manner brings to the pupil a long training in the habits of industry, and builds into his character the feeling of personal power and self-reliance thru the discipline of accomplishment that comes from continued success; while, on the other hand, the habit of failure, or of leaving work partly done, is weakening in its tendency, and often immoral.

The spirit of the school in which the child lives has at all times a strong bearing on the inner life of the child. By "spirit of the school" we mean the general tone or atmosphere, the silent influence springing from the activities of the room and life of the teacher and pupil. The school may, thru these silent phases, be uplifting, cheering, and pure, tending to encourage children to higher aims and purposes, more refined sentiments and ideas, and love for the beautiful and true; or it may, on the other hand, seem to the pupils to be a drive or a grind—encouraging in them only that which is commonplace and distasteful.

The playground and the gymnasium should be made strong and moral influences in every system of schools. This can easily be done if the proper games are provided for the children, and their play is supervised in such a manner as to develop a spirit of fairness and generosity, and habits of co-operation and mutual trust between pupils. Many of our best systems of schools are spending large sums of money on this line of work, the one aim of which is the moral uplift of the children.

With the coming of manual-training courses into the curriculum of the common schools, we have greatly added to the efficiency of the schools along the lines of moral education. It is now admitted that the public school should provide the most salutary physical environment for the pupil, and promote his normal physical development thru appropriate training in the workshop, as well as upon the playground. In the workshop of the manual-training school we are finding one of the great factors of character-building. It appears Dr. Hailmann says:

> that the efforts of the mind to control the hand in well-directed manual work are repaid a hundred fold, not only in clearer insight into details of form and composition, of properties and relationships, of materials used and of objects turned out; but also in nobler aspirations, higher hopes, greater firmness of purpose, calmer self-reliance, and a nearer approach to an all-sided freedom.

The kindergarten's place in the curriculum of the school is agreed to by all. No department of the school emphasizes the moral side of the child's life more than this. The Froebel kindergarten furnishes the most perfect,

all-round training for the little child known to the school world. Besides its great work in developing the physical and intellectual phases of life, its force and importance in the field of morals are always admitted. The child comes under the influence of a true school, whose moral code is the highest, at an early age, before evil habits have become fixed. Here the pupil is inspired by a spirit of order; patience is cultivated, and habits of persistence are acquired; he learns to be diligent in business, and mindful of the rights of others; he is all the while gaining power to apprehend and appreciate the true, the beautiful, and the good.

The new education, with character-building as its first aim, seeks the cultivation of the appreciation of the beautiful in music, poetry, sculpture, painting, and architecture—in all art, as well as in nature. This love of the beautiful, or for the beautiful, as an abiding element in life, is, perhaps, second only to religion as a protection against the grosser forms of indulgence and sin. By means of beautiful school buildings and grounds, neat and artistically arranged schoolrooms, the study of works of art and the beauties of nature, the children become familiar with that which is elevating and ennobling in character, truth, and beauty. In Richmond the pupils and citizens have placed in the schools during the past ten years seven or eight thousand dollars' worth of pictures and sculpture. The board of education has expended over forty thousand dollars beautifying and remodeling old buildings, that they may be artistic, clean, healthy, and convenient. All this, first and foremost, for the sake of the moral life and the character of the children.

From the standpoint of the moral training of the child, as well as that of his general development, we lose a great opportunity by placing pupils of the seventh and eighth grades in buildings with the younger children. While the child is in the two upper grades of the usual grammar-school course, he usually enters the adolescent period. His training and life during this period present new and vital problems. Now, more than at any other time of life, he is susceptible to real culture. It is the waking time of life in both mind and body. This age, ranging from eleven to fifteen, is the time when the powers of self-control and self-direction make rapid growth. It is the time that opportunity should be given the child to take the initiative in many matters, and his powers of self-direction be given a chance for exercise. Particular psychological problems now begin to present themselves, which, if understood and solved, yield rich results in the character of the child. The presence of lower grades in the same building and under the same management necessitates the management of these older grades in conformity with the needs of the whole building. A similar disadvantage results when the seventh and eighth grades are made a part of the high school, for the reason that these grades have not the power of selfhood, individuality, or self-direction possessed by high-school pupils. If we believe that in a well-rounded character the seat of authority is transferred from without to within, that

a moral man obeys himself, and that each child, as he grows in moral power, should be steadily helped toward self-direction and self-mastery, we shall see the importance of the separation of pupils eleven to fifteen years of age from those younger and those older.

Ten years ago the board of education in Richmond built a central building for the use of the seventh and eighth grades. A strong corps of teachers was placed in charge, and the work was managed on the departmental plan. At present we have, as teachers in this building, five men and five women, all well-equipped for their work. The building is furnished with a gymnasium and manual-training rooms. For the past eight years the pupils have been given the opportunity to begin their high-school Latin or German in the middle of the seventh grade, and their algebra in the eighth. A school council, chosen by election has taken a large part in the management of the school, and in many other ways are the pupils asked to share in the management of various functions of the school. All outdoor plays and gymnasium work are under the supervision of a director. The teachers are free to solve the problems presented by the needs of the pupils of these grades, to the best of their knowledge. The results of the work in this central grammar school have been more than satisfactory. The pupils are happy in their work. In power of self-control and self-direction they are developed in a marked degree, and from the standpoint of strength of character, as well as general ability, they are much better equipped for the high school than they were under the room-teacher plan in the ward schools.

We may grant that any true definition of education will require the school to provide for the religious training of the child, but we are brought face to face with the fact that the American public school is a common school—common to all the people; that, owing to denominational teaching, no creed, and but few religious doctrines, are common among the people.

I believe it is a common belief in this country that religious training is essential to the development of true character. It is also true of most American children that the school is the most uplifting force that comes into their lives between the ages of six and eighteen. The best period of human life is childhood. It is the richest and largest. It has the most sympathies, the most capacity, the most pleasure, of any time between birth and old age. If the principles of Christian ethics are to take root in the life of our people, the work must, much of it, be done in our schools. The warp and woof of Christian character and faith are necessarily wrought out in the school period of life, if at all. All know that ideas cannot become the permanent possession of the world unless they enter thru the door of childhood.

Altho we think that the formal teaching of religion, or any form of sectarian teaching of religious doctrine, is impossible in the common schools of America, yet we know that the pervading spirit of the schools may be made religious. The schools are not to be considered godless nor irreligious. In many ways the highest and purest religious influences pervade

the spirit of many schools. When children are brought face to face with truth of any kind, if the subject be rightly appreciated by the teacher, there is a strong tendency to fill the heart of the boy or girl with admiration, with wonder, and with awe. This influence is, in a high sense, religious in its nature.

Reverence is vital to religion as well as to morality. Whatever quickens in children the feeling of dependence on a higher power, whatever leads them devoutly to wonder at the order, beauty, or mystery of the universe, whatever arouses in them the sentiment of worship, or fills them with admiration of true greatness, promotes reverence. Everywhere God touches man thru the earth—by means of the outward life of the star, of mountain, or storm. When Jesus told men to consider the lily, how it grows, he was telling them that they could find in unfolding life something to fill their lives with richer sacredness and power.

Briefly, we consider a few of the specific means by which the school may plant in the child's mind and heart the fundamental religious conceptions which shall arouse his aspiring religious nature and control to some extent his outward life.

In the study of nature and science the school finds a rich source for the development of fundamental religious thought. A great leader in the educational world has recently said:

> Show me a man who can teach astronomy, geology, biology, or history, without teaching religion, and I will show you a man who can paint the pictures of George Inness without being an artist, or one who can write the verses of Browning without being a poet.

And, in speaking of an old teacher of science, he said:

> That to hear him speak in inspired and trembling tones of the wonders of the human body, or of the sideral universe, without a thrill of wonder, love, and praise, was as impossible as for a musician to hear the playing of Ole Bull without some trembling of the heart.

In the study of history there is a rich field for the development of religious thought and feeling. To leave religious thought and influence out of the history of the world would leave most of its events without explanation.

In literature the true teachers have an agency that, rightly used, leads to the richest development of religious thought. The hope, the sacrifice, the heroisms and fidelities, that literature has enshrined in its most perfect art, form the subject-matter for religious inspiration to every earnest student.

In the teaching of all branches of study the school may give the pupil a consciousness of his own limitations as set over against the great world of thought and reality, and the abiding consciousness of an ever-living, ever-present God.

The school organization itself should impress the child with the sacredness of human life and the dignity of every day's duty. It should instill into the child's mind and heart the common virtues of human life, and a permanent respect for all the higher sanctities of life.

Another means of religious education in the school is music. Aside

from its great value in general culture, no other instrumentality is more useful in arousing and stimulating religious emotion and aspiration. Simple sacred music speaks to the heart a universal language, and there are few children who do not respond to its influence.

The Bible, that richest religious and ethical heritage that has come to man, should have some place in every school. Not until the spirit of unity among the churches has fully ripened can it be used in any large sense as a text-book in the American schools. Many portions will have to be excluded. But with judicious care the most beautiful portions of this book of books may have a large place in the schools of the people. It is the foundation of the world's best religious thought, and is the highest and noblest expression of the deepest ethical and religious conceptions of the race.

In the primary grades, besides the daily reading of selections from the Bible, there should be taught many of the best biographical stories of the Old Testament, and a few of the best psalms. In the grammar grades and in the high school many beautiful literary selections from the Bible may be studied in the literary classes.

Thruout the course the school should seek to develop in the minds and hearts of the children a belief in a divine being and in God as the Father and Creator of us all. It should inculcate in the mind of all a spritual conception of life, a Christian spirit, and a religious attitude of mind, and seek to arouse in all an abiding conviction of the universal brotherhood of men as children of a common father.

Yet, after all has been said, the most potent and far-reaching of all moral and religious forces at work in the school is the life of the teacher. If our schools are taught by men and women of sound ethical and spiritual lives, devoted in the most conscientious way to the work of developing in the children of the state the highest elements of worthy manhood and noble womanly character, we shall have met the most important conditions for moral and religious training in the schools. More than that, if the teachers are right, there will be no doubt as to the influence of the common schools on the future religious and moral life of our people.

THE EFFECT OF MORAL EDUCATION IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS UPON THE CIVIC LIFE OF THE COMMUNITY

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This theme upon which I am asked to express myself assumes that school life does affect the civic life of the community. The question is then as to the quality and quantity of that effect. I assume, by way of definition, that by the term "moral education" we understand education in morals thru the use of the truth as expressed in our commonly accepted ethics. The problem here suggested might be estimated practically by a compari-

son of the moral ideals of the school and of the home and community, together with our investigations into the continuity of the school's ideals in the later life of the pupil. The topic suggests inquiry whether the moral education of the school operates to prevent immorality in the later public and civic life of the pupil; whether also this education is responsible for any of the criminality appearing in the life of former public-school pupils, and, if so, how far it is responsible; and, further, whether there are any positive results of a favorable character coming from the ideals and the teachings of the school. In short, the question develops the problem of the extent of the responsibility of the school for civic life and morality.

In general, I think we may say that very few of the ideals upon moral questions originate in the schools. They usually start in the community and the home, and are taken up by the school, emphasized, put in didactic form in such a way as to become a part of the mental furnishing of the pupil. In a sense, then, the school represents the community. It goes farther and often makes clear and definite what is more or less indefinite and cloudy in the community. This process of clarifying thru didactic methods comes at a time when impressions are valuable and teaching endures. The best among all the ideals of the community are culled out and emphasized, so that in later years these earlier teachings and convictions remain as a permanent force in life. This is the truth to which von Humboldt gave expression when he said: "Whatever we wish to see introduced into the life of a nation must be first introduced into the schools." The relationship here suggested between the home, the school, and public morals makes the school a sort of clearing-house with reference to the current ideals in the American home. We recognize that the majority of our teachers come from the so-called middle class. The wealthy classes and the extremely poor classes furnish a very small percentage of the teaching body. The result is that thru the teachers there is carried into the school the ideals of the great body of our democracy. We are prone to regard as a decided advantage the normal schools, colleges, and universities in which these teachers are trained to represent our highest ideals in morals. The natural result is, therefore, that the teaching body of the country brings to the schoolroom, directly and indirectly, our best ideas upon civic morality. This can be affirmed without fear, notwithstanding the fact that the teachers in our schools represent a great variety of religious experience and ecclesiastical affiliations. Of necessity, therefore, our schools will differ from some homes very radically as to their ideas of morality. They may not reach the intensity, or even the level of some of our choicest homes, but beyond question will be in advance of the great majority of the American homes, and will stand forth oftentimes in contrast with the current morals of a community.

2. There are certain characteristic features of the school that bring emphasis upon what has been said. A few of these may be suggested.

Primarily, truth is the basis of all education. The schoolroom puts its emphasis here and brings allegiance to what is true. It cuts away the notion that error or falsehood or untruth in any form can have an abiding place in education. Love of the truth therefore becomes fundamental in every degree of scholarship, and increases as scholarship advances. Accordingly, honesty of method is insisted upon. Every process in the schoolroom, however unimportant, must be an honest process. Deception of any sort tends to the destruction of all real education. No teacher conscious of having deceived a pupil can ever rejoice in that deception. Sooner or later the pupil himself detects any departure from honesty in the schoolroom, and altho he may be unable to formulate the reason for it, he recognizes that it is alien and hostile. By easy gradation, therefore, the question of honor as between teacher and pupil, and eventually as between pupil and pupil, cannot be escaped. Before a definition of honor could be appreciated, the pupil recognizes the substance of it, so that we may affirm that the relation of honor is both fundamental and vital in every school. This principle applies equally to the requirements of scholarship. A teacher conscious of deficient scholarship will recognize the imperfection of his work, and in some degree that he is assuming what he does not have. That produces a fatal weakness in method to an honest mind. It puts an atmosphere of dishonesty in the schoolroom, for which but lame apology can be made. In education there are times when appeal must be made to authority. The teacher who is not able to speak with authority and accuracy cannot escape embarrassment by evasion.

Recognition of authority is essential in education. It is universal in the schoolroom. Any departure from this is a partial defeat of the process of education. The teacher is the personal representative of authority. Sooner or later this situation analyzes itself, and both teacher and pupil alike recognize that authority is inherent in the truth, and only so far as the teacher is the incarnation of truth and truthfulness is his authority final and complete. It is needless to yield to the temptation to assert that this reverence for the truth and this recognition of rightful authority are fundamental in both the moral and the civic progress of the race. Proceeding from this relation of authority, there comes to be a formal introduction of law, as a necessary part of the school organization. The conception of law, however, is not that of arbitrary authority; it is that of formulated truth which is supreme and equally binding upon all. This high but true conception of what the law of the school is, has revolutionized our ideas of school administration; it has opened the door thru which the teacher has become the inspiring presence rather than the dreaded driver. This conception of the relation of both teacher and pupil to law and rightful authority emphasizes truth, honesty, and honor, and prepares the way for a full recognition of the rights of others, and eventually to a kindly consideration. Nothing is more important in the everyday life of the school than that pupils

shall learn to recognize the rights of others and to give a just consideration to other people. This is what makes democracy possible in its best sense, and thoroly enjoyable in its realization. The beginning of these things in the public schools has laid the foundation upon which our colleges and universities have been building. The full fruit of these principles is seen in the fact that the modern high school and university are much more democratic than any school could have been two generations ago.

There are other qualities in the schoolroom worthy of mention that bring the same results. I refer to the habit of accuracy, the uncompromising attitude toward error, the insistence upon exactness, neatness, cleanliness, and a score of others familiar to every teacher in the land. These are the positive qualities that build up the pupil, construct his habits, and make the atmosphere in which he lives. The modern theory and practice of education proceed along these positive lines. We reach the negative virtues thru the inculcation of positive ones. A long protest has been heard against undue emphasis upon the negatives. We are not disposed to look with favor upon the teaching that constantly cries out "don't." The constant reiteration of prohibitions has been replaced by a larger emphasis upon the positive achievement. The schoolroom is not bringing emphasis upon vice by constantly calling attention to it thru warnings. We are disposed to magnify the importance of the truth and of virtue, and to bring the pupil to a love of what is true and what is right by an enthusiasm for the constructive processes of education. The psalmist said: "Thy word have I hid in mine heart that I might not sin against Thee." Modern education believes that a mind filled with the truth will escape the penalties of error. Positive instruction is therefore the keynote in modern education. This principle is what has given enthusiastic interest in the educational problems and in the investigation of the child. The abiding interest of scholarship is in this fundamental question at the very beginning of our educational processes.

I recognize, however, that the negative form of instruction has a corrective value and cannot be wholly neglected. This is due to the fact that the habit of error is practically universal. This habit must be corrected; but unfortunately we have not always seen the corrective power of truth itself. Too much emphasis, therefore, has sometimes been given to the negative, with apparent oversight of the importance of the positive. The well-known tendency in the average healthy boy to want to do things prohibited, or to enjoy the hidden treasures, is not only proof of an investigating mind, but better proof of a certain quality in boys that needs to be reckoned with in their education. There is danger in the excessive use of the negative. The bands of restraint may be broken suddenly and the boy plunged into the worst of excesses. The only freedom that is safe is the freedom thru the truth. Here modern education properly puts its emphasis. In doing so it has laid in the child's mind a most important principle that cannot fail to influence powerfully the subsequent life.

3. It is important now to notice that morals should not be confounded with mere external conformity. There is a tendency for the schoolroom—and for life in general, for that matter—to be satisfied with an external form as a substitute for the substance of morality. Now, morality is the result of choice. The ideal must be re-enacted by each individual; the law must be personally accepted; self-legislation must be provided; every individual in that sense must make his own law and determine his own character. The statute, "Thou shalt not steal," doubtless has the intellectual assent of the multitudes. That is a good form of sound words. It becomes vital in life only when each individual makes it the law for himself. Personal choice must therefore become a factor in every educational process that looks toward education in morals. The schoolroom cannot be satisfied with a mere exhibition of mottoes. It may not rest with the intellectual assent of the pupil to the truth. These methods and these principles must be re-enacted into the life of every pupil before education in morals makes any great progress. Just here is where we succeed or fail. The fact that a boy has been educated in a school where highest ideals were cherished, where the best precepts were taught, proves only that he was educated in a good environment. In order that he may be benefited by such an opportunity, he must be trained to make his own choice, to reach his own decisions, to enforce self-legislation, to determine his own conduct. We cannot force this upon him. We may urge it, we may argue it, but we come to the simple conclusion that we cannot force a man or boy to be moral. He becomes so only when he chooses to become so. This reveals the fundamental reason for giving a pupil and the advanced student more and more an opportunity to select his own course of study. No greater force in the development of the character of the modern university student has appeared than the responsibility put upon him of doing something. The old theory of authority in education, coupled with minute direction, left a minimum opportunity for choice on the part of the students, and in so far left the whole question of character out of consideration. At any rate, it was an education in which persons were trained into certain prescribed views, rather than an education in which persons were developed and prepared to choose freely and wisely whatever commended itself to a rational judgment. The modern view is that the child at the earliest possible moment should be given the opportunity for intelligent choosing. There should be wise direction, helpful counsel, but less of external force and more of personal choice. I am aware of the difficulty in this whole subject. The old folly was that by some means the mere passing of the years would bring the ability to choose; the newer wisdom is that the power to choose wisely is acquired by the constant exercise of the will. We are disposed, therefore, not only to educate the intellect, but to train the will and to cultivate the emotions, to bring into our educational processes an opportunity for a rational choice, and to bring to the younger pupils such opportunities as

they are capable of using. It may be urged that with younger pupils the course is entirely prescribed. It does not follow, however, that there is not a large opportunity for the exercise of choice and for the development of wisdom in making choices. This question resolves itself into the problem of individual initiative. I believe that every teacher should wisely urge upon every pupil the importance of this individual initiative. The training in the use of the initiative should be wisely directed. The wisdom of right initiative, with a proper regard for the rewards in such cases, should be constantly in view. By this method we not only gain strength, but prove the value of experience, and inculcate the most fundamental ideas in morality. It is in this field that manual training has won some of its most valuable victories, by affording an opportunity for initiative and choice. It has cultivated an appreciation of the true and the beautiful; it has developed self-reliance and put emphasis upon the qualities so important in our civic life.

Moreover, it is to be observed that in this self-legislation now emphasized we have the most fundamental principle in the determination of character. We also have a characteristic feature of modern education. The public school has thus from the very outset put appropriate emphasis upon the pupil in the matter of his choices. More than we have estimated, we are teaching self-reliance, self-direction, self-determination. The fact that the school holds up the highest ideals toward which the student's choice is directed makes it a great power in determination of character and in the fixing of moral ideals.

4. We now come naturally to the specific question as to the effect of this kind of education in the public schools upon the civic life of the community. Here I remark first of all that this principle of self-legislation is fundamental in morals and essential to the development of democracy. Self-government is the common phrase. There can be no such thing as self-government until people have been trained in decisions and choices. The public school means therefore the perpetuity of democracy. Modern education proposes a free individual capable of making decisions, of self-direction, and trained with a charitable frame of mind toward others. This kind of citizenship makes democracy possible and endurable; the lack of it would turn a democracy into an aristocracy or an autocracy. The civic life, therefore, of our community is determined largely by the character produced thru our education. It happens that our public schools are the largest and most effective organization exclusively devoted to the training of our citizenship. For this reason the school is manifestly the most potent influence in determining our civic life.

A second remark is that this influence of civic life is intensified thru the quality of our teaching. Attention has been directed to the element of choice insisted upon in our modern education, and attention is now directed to the quality of those choices. It may be agreed that all schools are not

equal in this particular, but it will also be agreed that every school is looking upward and not downward; that every school is looking toward better things, with a determination to use its power to direct pupils in their choices. No school ends its effort with the proclamation of an ideal; it seeks the approval of that ideal from the pupil and its realization in his daily life. The quality of these choices appears further when we remember the uncompromising attitude taken by the school. The school never seeks to revise an ideal because it is true but unattained. The right and the true, as against the wrong and the false, are sure of maintenance in the schoolroom. If in later years men and women come to compromise the truth, they also recognize that they do it in spite of the teaching of the school, and in response to motives never approved by the teacher.

A third remark may now be offered, to the effect that instruction in formal ethics is a small part of the work of the public schools. In the debates upon this question an undue emphasis has been put, in my judgment, upon the importance of formal instruction in morals and religion. There are times and places where such formal instruction is of the highest importance. I believe that the home and the church should recognize their opportunity in this regard. The public school, however, does its most effective work by its persistent and patient insisting, thru its ordinary exercises, upon the qualities so fundamental in civic morality. What it teaches has practically unanimous support. There can be no valid objection to the ethical atmosphere of a schoolroom in which a boy breathes a spirit of loyalty to the truth, of honorable dealing with all associates, of respect for rightful authority, of obedience to well-established law, and of proper regard for others than himself. The criticism of incompleteness that might be brought against such principles would be offset by such objection or enforcement of the particular views sanctioned only by particular classes of the people. It is well to recognize that the public school serves all the people, and serves the state most efficiently by bringing to all people the right ideals of citizenship along with the other processes of education. The most enduring effects upon our civic life will be found, not in any formal declaration of principles, or in the formal teaching upon questions of personal habits or civic morality, but in the inculcation of ideals; in the cultivation of choice, and in that normal and sane attitude of mind cherished in our best schools.

It is possible, therefore, to make a definite or complete reply to the question proposed in this topic. We cannot demonstrate it as we demonstrate a proposition in geometry; nevertheless, we are not uncertain as to the far-reaching effects of our public school upon our civic life. The most fundamental ideas in our public schools are equally important in our civic life. If these things be neglected, neither school nor civic life can be what they now are or should be. In the schoolroom more than elsewhere, as modern conditions now are, these ideals are encouraged. The school with practical uniformity and agreement brings to the millions these ideals accepted and

approved by our teachers. As things are, neither the home nor the community can present these things so persistently and so universally as the school. Manifestly, then, a great duty is laid upon the teachers and the schools of the country to be true to the interests of the pupil now, that he may be true to himself and false to none when mature years bring the opportunities of life and citizenship.

DISCUSSION

WILLIAM J. SHEARER, superintendent of schools, Elizabeth, N. J.—I cannot see in the papers any points on which any of us should differ. The most important duty of the school and the home is the fixing of right principles of duty and conduct. We all must agree, first, that acts involving moral questions are the most important acts; second, that they are the most frequent acts in school. We cannot continue to rely on the unconscious influence of the teacher for the teaching of morals. The results of this kind of teaching have not been satisfactory. The teacher must explain to the child what is right, before the child can decide to do right. Without knowledge, can there be any moral act? Is it not, then, our duty as superintendents and principals to see that the teacher gives to the child knowledge, in order that the child may choose? It was emphasized in one of the papers that the basis of the moral sentiment is a sense of obligation. Each imposes the moral law on himself. The moral law deals with motives, while the civil law deals with actions. Without raising the question whether it is right to do as Romans do when in Rome, we all agree that the standards differ in different sections. In one section it is considered right that the children should support and reverence their aged parents, and in another that they should kill them when they get old. We must find the origin of the moral sentiment in the family.

I noted that nothing was said in the papers as to the difference between the teaching of morals and what should be called moral education. The latter comes from every experience of life; the former, from the precepts of the school. If there is no sense in giving instruction in these subjects, why should there be churches or teachers?

I do not think that the papers emphasized as strongly as they should the importance of moral training, in whatever way it may be given. The definite aim in moral training may be stated as, first, the subjection of the lower feelings to the higher feelings; second, the improving of the moral judgment; third, leading the children to observe the moral law; fourth, the strengthening of the sense of moral obligation. This can be done, it seems to me, only by leading the child to will to do the right. It is conscience, it seems to me, that should be emphasized. The moral idea is primary, in every one of the languages and dialects. There is not one that does not have a word for *right*. The whole social life is rooted in conscience. The laws are not supposed to be for any but the lawless. The great majority are not influenced by fear of the law, but by the consciousness, of what is the right thing to do. Character depends more upon conscience than upon anything else. Thru the feelings we may reach the will. It is of vital importance that the course of study should suggest to the teacher work that can be done to train the conscience; to choose properly; and to strengthen the will to carry the decision of conscience into effect.

M. M. RAMER, state superintendent of public instruction, Pierre, S. Dak.—This topic is under discussion in my state in a very pronounced way. It has been said that the home and the church should create character. But the fact is that they are not doing it. A speaker at an N. E. A. meeting, not long since, said that the absence of religious teaching in the public school is the suggestion that religious training is not needed. I

believe that the public school must instill a certain religious culture, probably chiefly in the kindergarten and primary schools. At the last meeting of the State Teachers' Association in South Dakota we provided for a committee of fifteen from the educators fairly representative of the various shades of religious thought, and they are to report to us what common religious ground they can find, and then to report what they all agree should be done in the giving of religious instruction in the schools. They are also to submit a course of study in ethics on a basis of Scripture.

James M. Greenwood, superintendent of schools, Kansas City, Mo.—We should discuss this question from the standpoint of the child, and not from the standpoint of those who have studied the philosophy of this subject. It is not worth while to talk to children about high ideals if they are not well fed at home. You should keep a child clean; soap and water are good civilizers. The child should be a good sleeper. We should develop in the child, by a process with which teachers are familiar, the habit of right feeling. Then he should get into the habit of right thinking. With this comes right acting; then the right attitude toward those near to him, and eventually toward those a little farther away. By degrees he comes to a period when we can correct him so he can govern himself. Under such instruction we can probably get a better crop of men and women than we now have. If we will work along lines of common-sense, we shall start from the platform where children are now. I have asked school children frequently what they would do with the boy who gets sulky, and they say: "Lick him!" In a colored school some of the pupils suggested that the yardstick should be taken to a sulky boy. In another school the advice given was to shake him. The children think they know what should be done to a child to lead him to choose properly. Their notions are those of quick and prompt obedience.

Henry Sabin, Des Moines, Iowa.—I rejoice to hear Mr. Greenwood advocate the old-fashioned doctrine of compelling obedience, when compulsion is necessary. I said in the National Council once, when I had a little support, that the authority of the teacher must be enforced; I am glad to see now that the old-fashioned doctrine is approved. Can we rear a good race of men and women if we leave out all idea of responsibility, all idea of God? Our public schools never received such a blow as when some one promulgated an idea that the teaching must all be secular. I bless God, this morning, that that day has gone by. We are coming back to discover that the teaching of the doctrine of responsibility is the foundation of all moral training. This new doctrine that has been going into our schools for the last twenty-five years has not brought up a race of which we can be proud. We want to get back to the old foundations, and get back right speedily.

J. D. Simkins, superintendent of schools, Newark, Ohio.—I believe that we all agree that we should compel obedience when necessary, but we may make mistakes. When you compel a boy, and he obeys thru fear, you have not changed him. If you can get him to change himself, he is changed by the only one that can truly change him. You punish the boy, and he feels that he has not a friend on earth. The thing to do is really to believe that there is something good in every boy. We are not going back to the old way.

John W. Cook, president of State Normal School, DeKalb, Ill.—It is a matter o satisfaction to find that we are coming to some well-defined theory. I wish to express my great obligation to President Thompson for the way in which he has cleared the atmosphere by giving us a series of propositions, every one of which is clear as a bell.

S. Y. Gillan, Milwaukee, Wis.—I desire to enter a dissent to the argument of the first paper. It has the statement that no tribe or people yet has been found destitute of religious instinct. This either proves too little or too much. We know that there are many good citizens that believe there is no need of war, and yet war has been a universal practice. There are people who believe that the vermiform appendix is unnecessary, even tho its possession is general. I am impressed with the suggestion that we should

recommend the teaching of science. Now, are not many of the greatest scientists irreligious, or at least careful not to get their science and their religion mixed? The nearest approach made here to define religion is that it consists of what is agreed upon among the sects. Now, that is so far off or so attenuated as to be reduced to naught. Why does the gentleman from South Dakota leave out the Hebrew and the agnostic? Is it for the reason of the man who, when asked why he was in the asylum, answered: "It is because we are in the minority"? I am pleased with the second paper, in its discussion of this subject without reference to religion.

JAMES L. HUGHES, inspector of schools, Toronto, Can.—I wish to say that those two papers were the best papers I ever heard at a single session of an Association meeting. I rejoice that this Association has had the pleasure of hearing such papers. I feel disposed, however, to add a word. We are not believing in all the old things. We want obedience; but I am not going to ask any boy in the world to give obedience to me alone. I am not going to ask him to obey me alone, for he stands as my partner; I am going to be partner with him in his duty of lifting every part of his being into power. This is not obedience to me, but to the law of his life. You cannot do that by merely keeping him under. When any soul becomes conscious of subordination to another soul, power is lost. Reverence for the life of the individual is what we want. I never met a boy of the slums who did not give me as much reverence as I gave him, and I give to his personality as much reverence as I give to any human being.

FRANK C. COOPER, superintendent of schools, Seattle, Wash.—I visited a night school last night where the new boys are learning something besides reading and spelling. When it was proposed to do away with this school on a certain occasion, young men who had gone thru it said it should not be done away with for lack of money for its expenses. That school is raising boys to a higher standard. Such higher standards mean growth in moral training.

WOMAN'S PART IN PUBLIC-SCHOOL EDUCATION

MRS. SARAH E. HYRE, MEMBER OF BOARD OF EDUCATION, CLEVELAND, OHIO

The thought of the day seems to be that a child shall be educated in a way that will enable him to live a worthy life; that less stress shall be placed upon the development of his intellectual powers, and more upon his qualities of character; that the school life shall be a continuation and enlargement upon the true home life, and not a training separate and apart.

In the light of these views, the question of "Woman's Part in Public-School Education" is of more than ordinary interest and deserves the thoughtful consideration of everyone who is interested in school affairs. The work that woman has done, and the success that she has obtained along humane, philanthropic, and educational lines, in the past twenty-five years, indicate that she has a sympathy and patience with children, and an understanding of them, that fit her to take an important part in public-school education.

I believe that woman has a part in public education, because she possesses certain natural qualities peculiar to her sex, that are essential elements in the rounded-up education of a boy or girl.

I shall not take your time to discuss the political or legal right of woman

to a part in public education, but desire to simply call your attention to the moral duty and inherent right of woman to live out her own individuality and up to the best talent within her. Because of this, woman finds her work where children's interests are.

It is not a trade or a business that woman has learned. It is the intuitive insight into child-life and child-nature that God Almighty has given her. Woman knows a hundred ways to reach a child. It may be thru his pride, his reason, his intellect, or his affection, or by means of her individual tact; but, whatever method is used, there is always back of it the patience and interest of woman in youth. And so wherever children are concerned, wherever their safeguards or development are involved, the woman viewpoint should have expression. It is not only in a general and abstract way that woman should enter into the public education of our youth, but in a material and practical way.

Woman has a part in public education as a student, as a teacher, as a patron, and as a member of boards of education. Love and understanding of children are natural instincts that exist in the most primitive and ignorant woman; but if we would have the larger benefits of that knowledge in our citizenship, we must educate the possessor to use it in an intelligent manner. The evolution of woman has been and is wonderful. Every year large numbers who are to be the mothers of the coming generation are filling our educational institutions. Half of our public-school population are girls, while women constitute nearly 30 per cent. of all college students.

Occasionally someone will denounce the higher education of women. Recently a woman physician said that the mental development of woman is destroying her ability to carry out her proper functions. In answer to this, let me quote Dr. J. M. Taylor, dean of Vassar College, who has made careful study of this subject:

> The bearing of the higher education of women on the health of women and their attitude toward the home is of perennial interest. It has been abundantly shown, over and over again, by the most careful investigation that the health of college women improves during the four years' college course. While that is not true in all cases, it is certainly not true in the cases of all men. Only three of 153 graduates of 1903 of Vassar did not improve in general health after entering college. The first ten years' history of Vassar shows that half the total number of graduates married, and that the proportion of children to each was from three to four. There is nothing in the college training of American women to contribute to abnormal results. A healthy mind, a natural body, and absolutely healthy and natural sentiments toward life are the general product. No work in America promises more for its future than the thorough education of its girls.

But woman's part in public-school education has its greatest manifestation, at the present time, in the large number of women teachers in the public schools. In 1880 the percentage of women teachers was 57. In 1903 it had increased to 74; and we naturally ask why this has come about. I venture one suggestion. At one time in the history of teachers the only equipment necessary was a certificate. If an applicant before a board of

examiners maintained an average of 70 per cent., he was a teacher, and nothing could prevent him if he could delude some weak board of education into giving him a school. The time is not so far distant when physical strength was of greater value to the schoolmaster than intellectual power. It was necessary for him to control and break the spirit of the biggest boy in his room, or else he had not been a success. Experience has taught us that this influence did not stimulate the pupil's respect for law and order, but destroyed it. But there came a change in the sentiment of the public; they began to wonder if there was not some other way to reach children. Here and there a slight little woman would succeed in a school where a strong man had been employed and failed. By moral suasion, by studying the boy, by giving her woman-nature full sway, she would capture the boy's heart, perhaps touch his pride, secure his co-operation, stimulate his gallantry—in a word, win him. Educators and the thinking public at last realized that woman's way was the best way of reaching children.

At this period moral suasion supplanted the birch whip. The sentiment of the public became so strong against physical punishment that laws prohibiting it were placed upon the statute-books of a number of states. The teacher, in preparing for his calling today, does not have to measure his professional value by his ability to administer corporal punishment. The teacher of the present, who makes a success of his work, loves it. He studies and trusts his pupils, and by that very faith wins their love and confidence. He has an understanding of and sympathy with child-life, and he has tact to manage it.

The teacher must also have the ability to discriminate. The doctor, as he goes about his practice, cannot send out a general prescription to apply to all cases; he must have the skill to discriminate. The commercial man who is a successful one must study his men; he must approach them in as many different ways as there are minds; he cannot commit a speech and repeat it to every business man he may approach; he must have the acuteness to discriminate. The nurse who goes into a sickroom fully determined to put into effect the theories she has learned, without considering whether the case is one of typhoid fever or a critical operation, will soon find out that she has mistaken her calling; she, too, must have the quality of discrimination. The teacher is no exception to the general rule. He must surpass the others in tact; he must have the ability to find out each child's individual make-up and temperament; he must discover the avenue thru which he may influence him; he must reach down and interest the child-mind; he can lift it up to his own mentality only as he leads it on, year after year. This requires a comprehension of childhood; and woman's nature fits her peculiarly to enter into a sympathetic relationship with children and to teach them properly.

But the business man complains of lack of confidence and individuality in our city-taught boys. Educators themselves are somewhat disturbed

over the apparent shortcomings. Some of them give as a reason that there are too many women teachers in the city schools, and that boys, as they enter the adolescent age, need, in greater degree, masculine influences. I believe this is true; but that does not prove anything, because the average boy at that age is in the high-school work and comes under the direct influence of both men and women. In substantiation of this it is a fact, interesting to note, that out of a canvass of the 60 grammar buildings in Cleveland, the average age of the graduating classes of 1905, or 3,222 grammar pupils, was found to be 14.03 years. There was only one building where the average age of the class was 15 years. In 23 buildings the average age was 13+, and in the other 36 buildings the class age average was 14+.

It is in the cities that there is complaint of a lack of individuality among pupils; but I believe this is not because there are so many women teachers, but on account of the close organization and the lack of freedom for each teacher to work out his own problems. Technical training is the foundation of a teacher's work, but it depends upon his individual interpretation and application of that training whether or not he shall succeed. I believe that it is the teacher, irrespective of sex, who goes on, year after year, surrounded by limitations and restrictions, that makes him little more than a machine to grind out so much work per day, that fails to create individuality in pupils or instill into boys any vigorous manhood.

But it is not only as a student and teacher that woman has a part in public education, but as a patron also. We cannot get far in advance of the people in any movement; and so, if we would secure the best equipment for our public schools and the greatest benefits for the youth who attend them, we must keep the patrons alive to their needs.

It is the duty and mission of the school to develop a child, but the greatest work lies in bringing him into harmony with the community interests in which he lives; and I believe this can be done by correlating the work of the home and the school. No teacher can do this, however, unless she has the cordial interest and support of the parent. It is to be regretted that so few fathers have an opportunity to familiarize themselves with the daily working conditions of the schoolroom. The average father is absent from home during the hours that the school is in session; he is usually so engrossed in the efforts of securing ways and means that the work of straightening out the "tangles" falls to the mother. This fact brings her into close touch with the teacher and the schools, and makes the mother a factor as a patron.

Realizing the benefits, to their children, to be derived from this contact of mother and teacher, "mothers' clubs" exist in almost every school district in many cities. These clubs study and discuss many questions pertaining to children, and co-operate with and support the teachers in carrying out their plans for better and broader results.

In our own city of Cleveland the women are thoroly alive to the interests of the schools. Besides mothers' clubs, there are other organizations of

women that contribute to their welfare. The Needle Work Guild, thru information obtained from the principals of some of the poor districts, each fall furnishes a change of underwear, stockings, and other necessaries to needy children, so that they may come to school in a presentable and cleanly manner. The Denison Patrons' League is an organization composed of the patrons of the school. Its officers are the leading citizens of the community. The league furnishes four free entertainments or lectures each year in the auditorium of the school building to the parents of the district, at which are discussed the relationship of the home and the school. The Free Day Nursery and Kindergarten Association supports four summer vacation schools, and by their interest and effort stimulate the carrying-out and enlargement of the work. The Daughters of the American Revolution appropriated a sum of money the past winter and gave, in conjunction with the school authorities, a series of patriotic lectures in the school auditoriums, where the population was largely foreign. The title of the series was "The Story of America." It was given in simple English, and supplemented with stereoptican slides and patriotic music. This work was a grand success from every standpoint. These are only a part of the numerous efforts of Cleveland women in the interest of good schools. Other cities are working along similar lines, and it will only be a matter of time when the work of woman as a patron will be considered an essential part of every successful school.

But it is equally important that woman should have representation in the administrative department of our public schools as in the educational. Far be it from me to say that all women are fitted for school-board members, or that a woman should be upon every board for the sake of having a woman. But I do believe that the right woman should be upon every board, whether in a large or small system, because broader results will be obtained by adding the woman view-point of school administration; because the right woman, when it comes to children, is unselfish and has no interests which supersede those of the child; because the interest of the teacher and patron can always have expression with a woman representative upon the administrative board.

Two of the distinctive features that mark the services of women upon school boards are their close attention to detail and their willingness to hear the patron's side of the question. The public schools are the closest to the people of all public institutions; and thru the members of its school board only can the people have representation. I therefore consider this public service and close attention to detail splendid qualifications for any member of a school board, and especial qualifications for women. The public has poor service from a member of a public board who, willing to sacrifice himself for the dear public before election, after election places himself upon a pedestal and draws the "awful circle" about himself so that no one can approach him. Women members are interested in the questions of hygiene and sanitation, and especially in those questions of education which carry with them moral influences which go to make better boys and

girls. The married women serving on school boards, as far as I have been able to learn, are women who have had years of contact with children. The one experience which makes a mother valuable is that she has gone thru that period of rearing her children, studying their natures, sympathizing with their weaknesses, and realizing their worth. By this time what she knows about children is not "theory," but experience; and if she is an educated, broad-minded woman, she can do much good in addition to being a fond mother and grandmother. The unmarried women who have been upon school boards are those who have dealt with children in a large way, and on account of that experience are quite as valuable.

In order that I might not discuss this part of my subject from a theoretical standpoint, I have written to prominent citizens in several cities where women are serving upon boards of education, and asked for opinions in reference to the value of their services. The answers received show not only that these women are acceptable members of their respective boards, but that they are rendering special, and almost invaluable, service to the schools because they are women. I give a few extracts:

In speaking of the woman who is a member of the board of education, the commissioner of schools at Rochester, N. Y., says:

> She has made a constant contribution of suggestions and intelligent discussion equal to that of any other member; she has done more visiting than all the other members together. She has interested herself in the music, decoration, and sanitation of the schools, and has brought to these subjects an experience, good taste, and special knowledge which are quite exceptional. She has been greatly interested in all that concerns the teacher, and by her remarkable gift as a public speaker she has been a force in the discussion of school questions at meetings of parents—a work of education of public sentiment which has made the progress of our schools possible through steadfast popular support. I doubt if her knowledge in the matter of selecting supplementary reading for children is surpassed by that of any other woman in the country.

Another writes as follows:

> Of the two women members at Warren, Ohio, one has been for a number of years at the head of the building committee, with excellent results, and the other has been chairman of the teachers' and text-book committee. The first work they did was to renovate the schoolrooms. At the end of the first year that these women were on the board the city board of health, in making its report to the state, spoke of the splendid sanitary condition of the school houses and gave the women of the board the credit.

The member at Grand Rapids, Mich. is serving her tenth year upon the board. In these years she agitated for manual training until it was established in the grammar grades. She has been chairman of summer-school work, and it is considered a success from every standpoint. She was a teacher, is a mother of children now in school, and is thoroly in sympathy with the work of keeping the patron interested in the school. She is independent in her thought and action, and I should say, from the splendid commendation of her I have received, that the public of Grand Rapids feel that she is one of the most valuable members of the board.

Toledo, Ohio, boasts for the first time of a woman upon its board, and the following are extracts concerning her work:

> She has brought about a better feeling between teacher and parent by giving one afternoon a week to hear the patron's side of the question. She is more earnest and conscientious than most of the members of the board, inasmuch as she has "no ax to grind." She is conscientious and independent in her action, as has been demonstrated in several instances, but always yields gracefully when defeated. She is doing fine work, and has the admiration of the board and community for her splendid poise and tact.

Cleveland has had a woman on the school board for ten years. The first one found the board renting rooms over saloons to relieve the overcrowded condition of the public schools. She protested; they insisted. She threatened to call to her aid the public press; and never since then has such a thing been proposed. These women advocated and advanced the departments of kindergarten, manual training, and domestic science, and were the ardent supporters of the present-day Deaf School. They also did much toward abolishing the use of basement rooms.

The member who served upon the board from 1901 to 1903 was a successful business woman, having large business interests of her own. These women, who were upon the Cleveland board from 1894 to 1904, were women of education and had had an experience with children, either as mothers or as teachers. They were conscientious and enthusiastic, and always for whatever seemed to be for the best interests of the children. So efficiently have these women served the public that I believe it to be the fixed policy of the people of my own city to keep at least one woman on the board of education.

This question of woman's part in public education is no longer unsettled. It has been demonstrated in many cities that she has a part in the administrative department as well as in the educational. It is only a matter of time when every community will realize its importance, and when every superintendent will urge that he be given this aid. When this time comes, one woman — the right woman — will be a member of every board of education, whether in a large or small city.

In a little drawer in my desk is a daguerreotype picture of a woman. It is an old picture, taken perhaps in the forties. The shawl that covers the shoulders of the subject is an old-style Paisley and the bonnet would be an heirloom today. The hair—jet-black—is parted in the middle and is carefully smoothed upon the forehead. It is a plain face, but to me beautiful—beautiful to me because it is the face of my mother. As I sit and look at that picture it recalls to me the influence that has come down the years and molded my life. But the devotion, the patience, the sacrifice, that shine forth from the face of that daguerreotype picture are as old as woman herself. It is this spirit of love and unselfishness that is needed everywhere today. It should permeate our commercial and business life, and should enter into the public education of every child, to the end that he may become a better citizen and a more lovable neighbor.

When this moral element shall become a permanent influence in our public schools, health will supersede discipline; the heart will lead the will; knowledge for knowledge' sake will give place to knowledge of life and its human relations; and industrial and political strife will be gradually eliminated by the brotherhood of man. For, after all, what is the purpose of education? Is this life a wager to see how much information can be accumulated and stored in the human brain; or, rather, is it a grand privilege to study and understand our relations to God, to nature, and to our fellowman? To set a lower or a narrower standard for the public schools of our country is to deprive our youth of the best elements of good citizenship and to lessen their opportunities for a higher life.

WHAT KIND OF EDUCATION IS BEST SUITED TO BOYS?

REUBEN POST HALLECK, PRINCIPAL OF BOYS' HIGH SCHOOL, LOUISVILLE, KY.

I hope to see an end to debates on the question whether one sex is superior to the other. One might as well debate whether the existence of the lungs or of the heart is the more necessary to life. We do, however, feel that our mothers differ from our fathers, not as two individuals of the same sex, but that there are striking intellectual and emotional differences. We feel glad instead of sorry that our mothers differ from our fathers; but if anyone dared raise the question of the inferiority of our mothers, the first impulse of American manhood would be to answer that question with a blow, and the more our mothers differ from our fathers, the harder would probably be that blow.

Some have said that there can be no more "male" or "female" education than "male" or "female" literature. Ask any intelligent librarian, who selects reading for adolescents, if he does not recognize differences of sex in making up his reading-lists, and if he might not call books on big-game hunting and adventure "male" literature. Some objectors frankly grant that there is a difference, but they say: "Educate both in precisely the same way, and you will find that they will assimilate only what their different natures and instincts prompt, just as two vegetables growing side by side will absorb only the elements which each needs." Would any agriculturist claim that it would be wise to give different vegetables exactly the same fertilizer? Could he not rightly claim that one might need more potash, the other more ammonia? Suppose ammonia was used on potatoes, and they absorbed no more of it than their nature permitted, would there be as many and as large potatoes as if the necessary potash had been provided? Might not also a certain amount of the ammonia be wasted?

If the two sexes differ emotionally, intellectually, and physically, it can hardly be unwise or unscientific for education to recognize whatever differences exist. Boys will never receive the best education, so long as they

are taught chiefly by the opposite sex. The majority of the members of the Moseley English Educational Commission, who inspected American schools, said there was occasion to view with alarm the growing preponderance of women teachers. Professor Henry E. Armstrong, F.R.S., says in their report:

> To put the matter in very simple terms, it seemed to me on the occasion of my former visit—and the impression was confirmed during my recent visit—that the boy in America is not brought up to punch another boy's head, or to stand having his own punched, in a healthy and proper manner; that there is a strange and indefinable feminine air coming over the men; a tendency toward a common—if I may so call it, a sexless—mode of thought.

Some of the members of this commission said there was a marked contradiction in the liberality of Americans in erecting and equipping magnificent school buildings, and their parsimony in refusing to pay good men teachers enough to instruct their children. Some say that it is better to employ first-rate women than third-rate men. The only possible answer to that reply is that it is better to employ first-rate men as well as first-rate women and to pay a first-rate price for all who train American manhood. Our people are slower in educational reform than in getting improved machinery, but when we once do realize the importance of the highest type of men teachers, the money will be forthcoming. One boy, as a result of better teaching, may, thru his inventiveness and superior grasp of a business, give employment to thousands of people and make the money spent for high-grade masculine teachers the best possible investment for the commonwealth. Of course, it goes without saying that we should have just as many women teachers, and of an equally high grade. At present there is not much but the missionary spirit that will impel our best young men to become and remain secondary teachers. There are now many such missionaries among our high-school instructors, but many years' experience leads me to express the opinion that only third-rate men, if influenced by strictly utilitarian inducements, can afford to remain teachers in the overwhelming majority of our high schools.

In the name of the boy, I protest against the tendency to discourage honest rivalry in the school. I doubt whether too much rivalry is necessary or desirable for girls. This question, however, is one for women and evolution to answer. With men, life is a contest; and fortunately most boys love a contest. Those who do not must drop to the rear in the struggle for existence. That tremendous struggle, which results in the survival of the fittest, and the consequent improvement of plant and animal and thought-product, must continue if life is to progress. It is not the true masculine spirit which says: "Never have honors in a school. Never pit two individuals or sides against each other. Never inquire whether John can do better work than William, but only whether John's present record shows any improvement over his past." If a school for boys is to be conducted on this basis, it will

be run out of harmony with the laws of life. If a member of your family had to undergo a grave surgical operation, would you employ Dr. Brown because his record of fatalities was decreasing, or would you ask for the services of Dr. Robinson who had only half as great a death record? I know the manager of a manufacturing plant who in two years lost 12 per cent. on the capital stock. Altho his second year was slightly better than his first, the directors said to him when he argued this improvement:

> You forget that we are in competition with other factories in this country and abroad. You forget that these losses will force us to close the factory, throw our workmen out of employment, and cause their children to cry for bread. We shall look for a better manager.

The advocate of a less masculine type of education says: "Contests develop an unsocial spirit and cause hard feelings. For this reason, if for no other, we must avoid them." So Governor Folk was wrong in developing unsocial feelings among the St. Louis grafters! So William Travers Jerome must be asked not to twist the tail of the Tammany tiger! So even our own David fighting the Goliath of trust and railroad discriminations must be ordered to take the stone out of his sling! So contests are unsocial and must be avoided! Shades of our Puritan and Virginian ancestors! Who wants to be social with the devil? So long as evil exists in its myriad forms, we must develop fighters. The trouble with America today is not that there are too many fighters, but that there are too few Folks and Jeromes and Roosevelts. A keen German critic says:

> Their amiable good nature is, in a certain sense, the great virtue of the Americans; in another sense, their great failing. It is actually his good nature which permits him everywhere to overlook carelessness and crookedness, and so opposes with latent resistance all efforts at reform.

Modern psychology has taught educators to build on the instincts of the young. A strong instinct of boyhood, as well as a prime requirement of manhood, is this joy in honest rivalry. A boy's nature responds quickly to all contests which determine the best fellow, whether in running, jumping, shooting, speaking, computing, or in any branch of physical or intellectual achievement where a boy cares to excel. One of the most valuable parts of the curriculum in our high school is the reading-aloud each morning for fifteen or twenty minutes to the assembled school. In order that the tastes of the teachers may not be too strongly superimposed upon the boys, we sometimes allow them to choose what they will hear. They almost unanimously prefer a bull-fight to a love-story, a Kipling poem of blood to a Tennysonian idyll, a wild tale of war and trial to one full of sentiment and analysis. Some people not only think that such a choice proves the total depravity of boys, but even sigh that the boys are not all girls, and then go to work to make them girls as fast as possible. Now I, for my part, think that if the boys had decided differently, there would have been need of a doctor. It is useless to bewail Huxley's dictum that what has been decided among prehistoric

protozoa cannot be annulled by act of Parliament, or to grow impatient because we must start from a boy's present self and from the dominant interests of boyhood to climb to the heights of courageous and altruistic manhood. It is only by appealing to the naturally strong instincts of the boy that he can be truly led to nobler instincts by the only sure tether of the heart-strings. I shall never forget the morning that one of our instructors—a manly, athletic fellow, admired by all the school—read aloud Davis' "Bar Sinister." The dog-fights won the hearts of the boys. Their interest was alive, their emotions were mobile, so that when the moment came for the strong, clean prize dog either to desert his old mother, dirty and only a cur of the streets, or to save her by a fight to the death, the boys, one and all, were moved to pity, love, tenderness, and even heroic impulse, by the brave fight of that dog hero.

A study of heredity and evolution reminds us of the savage methods adopted by nature to achieve her ends. To improve a species, all weak members must go. To make sure that one individual may survive, a million are born and perhaps sacrificed. There is no compromise, no consideration for the unfit in the biological world. The Spartan abandoned his weak child on the mountain side. For the last nineteen hundred years the individual has been slowly rising, until today his rights are sacred. Sometimes the most fit in our homes are physically the weakest, those who stand most in need of our protection. In the education of boys, therefore, along with masculine aggressiveness and initiative should be developed a spirit of tenderness and a desire to protect the weak. The successful protector must be strong and resolute, and not easily intimidated; hence courage, strength, and the power to fight must be present in the protector. It is today the strongest nations that are kindest. If a stop is to be put to the mutilation and enslavement of those wretched natives of western Africa by Portugal and Belgium, the interference must come from a nation at once strong and aggressive and tender-hearted.

One of the great influences which for thousands of years have helped to develop sympathy and tenderness in the Aryan race is being rapidly lost to this generation. I think that over 60 per cent. of the members of this Association who are now over forty and who have achieved the most, have had some training on a farm, and have consequently come into close contact with domestic animals. These poor creatures must be numbered among the greatest teachers that have helped to raise humanity to a fully civilized state. If one of our early Aryan progenitors treated his domestic animals brutally or even carelessly, he could not succeed beside his more compassionate neighbor, who watched them as if they were his children, and who carried the helpless lamb home in his arms. These domestic animals have helped to give woman her peculiar qualities, because it was she who first attached them to her home, trained them, and cared for their helpless young. In return for this service, the domestic animals have given to woman a patience and a tenderness half divine.

We must not today lose the services of these animals as teachers in any case where they can be retained. The trolley is making suburban and country life easier, and it will give us back some of our lost teachers. It would be a partial education for every boy to own at least one domestic animal, and to care for it entirely, at first under proper supervision. I remember when as a young boy I learned one of the greatest lessons of my life. I found one of my own little chickens beaten down by a hard rainstorm and feebly gasping for breath. I took that chick in my hands, ran with him to the house, wrapped him in flannel, and laid him by the hearth-fire. In about half an hour, which seemed an age to me, I heard the little fellow say, "Peep, peep." I gave him some warm food, and as the helpless fellow nestled against my hand, I realized that I had saved him, and I felt the absolute luxury of protecting the weak. I doubt if any man who suddenly made a million dollars ever felt the thrill of a keener pleasure than I then knew. Today I thank every domestic animal that taught me in my boyhood days—every chick, kitten, dog, calf, or colt, that needed my care and protection, that shared my companionship, and that gave me glimpses of that ineffable beatitude which has come to me only when I have protected the weak and helped to raise the fallen.

To guard against a purely pedagogical treatment of the education of boys, I recently wrote a large number of letters to business men in various parts of the United States, asking what education should be given to the rank and file of boys, preparatory to successful business of any kind. The replies laid the most emphasis on the ability to write, speak, and spell the English language correctly. One large corporation said:

> We notice that slovenly penmen are usually lacking in system, accuracy, and careful methods generally. . . . . Public speaking and debating ought to be a prominent part of the course in every high school for boys.

Arithmetic was next stressed. A Louisville corporation informed me that a graduate of my school was refused an excellent place because he did not make well-formed, legible figures. Geography, manual training, and history were declared important subjects. Some manufacturers said that every boy who expected to be promoted should also know something of physics and chemistry, Another insisted on adding geometry, which he said should come before algebra. The majority emphasized the importance of the high-school course. "It enables boys to grasp more quickly the problems which confront them." The following expression of opinion would represent not unfairly the attitude of the leading men of affairs thruout the United States:

> The more education a boy gets, the more apt is he to discover short-cuts and avenues of saving that an ordinary mind simply will not address itself to.

The most interesting feature of these replies was the emphatic expression of opinion by certain great business corporations that culture studies are of vast importance for boys. This changing opinion deserves attention at

the beginning of the twentieth century. I wrote the Baldwin Locomotive Works, a corporation which has about 20,000 employees, to learn its position in regard to culture studies, and I received the following reply under date of January 17, 1906:

> Our ideas in general are that, no matter what may be his subsequent career, it is important for a boy to qualify himself with the broadest and most thorough education possible within the time at his command. The more thorough his mental discipline, the more complete his knowledge of mathematics, the classics, natural philosophy, and other general branches, the better is the foundation on which to build the special knowledge requisite for the specific field which he may decide to enter.

It is in accordance with this view that we do not recommend manual training as an education for a boy intending to choose mechanical pursuits for his life-work. We feel that the time which manual training takes from study of the broad foundation branches above mentioned cannot, except at greater labor and cost, be regained later in life. When he enters the mechanical pursuit, his whole mind is concentrated upon it, and he can then achieve in a few weeks or a few months progress that which is more practical and more valuable than the smattering of mechanical knowledge obtained in a training school.

> Following the same principle, we should perhaps take a directly contrary view, were the boy to adopt a career outside of mechanics, because then the mechanical training would tend to broaden his faculties and increase his powers of observation, constituting a form of education not likely to be obtained during his later career.

For one of the greatest of the so-called soulless corporations of the world to insist on the value of culture studies for its ordinary apprentices marks, let us hope, the beginning of a new epoch. Let us remember that we shall have to search longer than Diogenes to find a middle-aged man who will bless the parent, teacher, or school official who, by argument or otherwise, deprived him of the chance of taking culture studies and of receiving enjoyment therefrom. Certainly those who have experienced the quality of enjoyment that can come only from culture would be the last to exchange it for a few more dollars and cents. If by a study of astronomy the boy can get more pleasure from looking at the heavens, then let him study astronomy. Even the average workman does not limit his purchases to what is strictly practical. He demands wall-paper and pictures for his home.

All that we can give boys advantageously is such general training in the foundation subjects, such power of initiative, such general culture and moral development, that they can face and solve the most varied problems. A boy almost always finds that his arithmetic never quite fits the special business that he enters. Wholesale dealers wrote letters to me complaining that boys do not at first quickly know "the equivalent in units of 3/144 of a gross, 5/12 of a dozen, 3/20 of a thousand," and that they are puzzled "in figuring discounts based on percentages." Business men have no right to expect that boys will come to them adepts in such special lines of figuring, but they may justly demand that the boys shall have had sufficient mental

training to learn how to do quickly what is required. A young tanner, who took chemistry in college, told me that he wished he had studied a different kind of chemistry for his business. Most of us have made the discovery that college did not fit us exactly for anything. I think school and college did a large part of their duty if they enabled us to fit ourselves. We are at last slowly learning the truth that special mastery in any business must come largely thru one's own moral and intellectual power to acquire the needed knowledge in connection with experience. Josh Billings was correct in saying: "Success don't consist in never makin' blunders, but in never makin' the same one twict."

We could so train a boy that he would be as accurate as an almanac along given lines, but he would soon be a last year's almanac. Our national census shows that large numbers are forced to change their occupation. Business men say that you cannot run a business today as it was conducted five years ago. I think that men of affairs will gradually agree with the opinion that education should not early in life cut too deep and unalterable a channel for the stream of thought and action, but should enrich and increase the volume of the stream, leaving the exigency of business life to direct the course.

Foreigners say that of Americans of the generation now passing, those brought up on the farm, have led the world in three respects—in the power of initiative, in the habit of relying on themselves, and in will-power. I believe that a decline in the initiative and self-reliance of our boys has already set in, and that it is the duty of every superintendent and principal to ask: "How can my school be so conducted as to increase the spirit of initiative and self-reliance?" I believe that every one of our schools can be improved in this respect.

My experience with the boys of my own school leads me to believe that under present conditions the open-air playground is one of the very best agents to develop initiative, self-reliance, and the social side which makes these qualities valuable. My boys thru their own exertions secured an entire square of land four blocks from their school in the heart of the city. They fenced this in, laid out a running-track, tennis courts, baseball diamond, and football gridiron, and also built a clubhouse. Almost everything connected with this park seems to develop self-reliance and social qualities as well as initiative. Since the decline of agriculture and of Elizabethan variety in England, the English have relied largely on their playgrounds to keep the peculiarly Anglo-Saxon qualities from atrophying. Wellington said that he won Waterloo on the playgrounds at Eton. A member of the Moseley Commission expresses surprise that the Americans "are not yet alive to the excellent opportunities for work which the playing fields afford," and he adds that no amount of physical training under cover can "ever be a satisfactory substitute for free spontaneous play."

I have heard educators wrangle by the hour over the question whether

knowledge of one subject confers any power to deal with subjects outside of its immediate domain. There is one kind of training, however, which fits every business of life equally well. Moral power can be used to attack any of the duties of life, no matter how dissimilar. The United States senator, the life-insurance president, and the plumber alike need moral training; but this is precisely the training which lags farthest behind. Intellectual culture has substituted more refined and intricate ways of wrong-doing for the clumsy, repellent methods of a thousand years ago. Robbers once held the feet of their victim to the fire to make him give up his property. Now we have the intellectual adroitness necessary to plan stock reorganizations, to juggle expense accounts, and to bribe commonwealths. Great corporations have said, in reply to my questions, that they are now more than ever before demanding that everyone who is placed in line for promotion shall have character and moral backbone. If they temporarily waive this requirement, they say that experience has taught them that they are providing future trouble for themselves.

Boys will show the most rapid moral improvement only under the inspiring influence of the best teachers, who keep them marching forward to the music of noble ideals, until that way of marching has become a habit, and a change would cause, not only inconvenience, but positive suffering. To his dying day, George Washington said: "The mystery of my life is how Benedict Arnold, American born and bred, could have become a traitor." Let us educators stress the moral side of our work, until we can say: "Our boys may go wrong, but we have trained them so that the first start in that direction will be as unnatural as the love of death."

WHAT KIND OF EDUCATION IS BEST SUITED FOR GIRLS?

MISS ANNA J. HAMILTON, PRINCIPAL OF SEMPLE COLLEGIATE SCHOOL, LOUISVILLE, KY.

The answer to the question, "What kind of education is best suited for girls?" cannot be the same in detail for two successive generations; yet the work of each generation is a movement toward the fulfillment of a higher civilization.

Each age carries its own demands, and in order to live successfully the life of the day in which one finds one's self, it is necessary to rise to these demands. Conditions of life for women have changed so rapidly that it has been a difficult task to keep pace with these conditions in the preparation for life. So long as woman was held as a slave, valued for her labor or for pleasure, all the education she needed was such as rendered her a strong and healthy animal, capable of manual labor, or such as fitted her to become a graceful and fascinating plaything.

When she took her rightful place as wife and mother, her valuation was

much the same as in the earlier period, according to her physical fitness for these duties, different races having slightly varying ideas of fitness. Whatever these ideas, however, it behooved the relatives of the girl to see to it that she answered the requirements. This was her education, for it was her preparation for life.

With advancing civilization, woman rose to an honored place in the family life. She became the genius of the home, the guide and teacher of her children, the true helpmeet of her husband. Still her life was comparatively simple. She was supposed to know by instinct how to meet these obligations. Given a certain amount of natural intelligence, mixed with womanly sweetness and devotion, and it was expected that time and experience would enable her to discharge successively all duties devolving upon her. Except as a mother trained and prepared her daughter, there was nothing that could be called education. All that the schools gave was a much-diluted compound of the matter given to her brothers, plus a little music, a little painting, and a little needlework—these last acquired by special study with special teachers.

In the present day life is so complex, the demands upon women have become so varied, that we certainly cannot, with any show of justice or reason, suppose that natural instinct is sufficient to prepare her for her place in life. We expect that she shall retain the same power and sway in her own particular field, with the added charm of a deeper intellectual and spiritual development. We expect that she shall be the same loving and devoted and self-sacrificing wife and mother, and fulfill these obligations more intelligently than did our grandmothers. In addition, her own intellectual development brings to her a realization that she is not merely a woman, but an economic factor in the onward movement and development of the race.

To the ordinary duties, then, of wife and mother and housekeeper, she must add those into which the exigencies of the times are pushing her—namely, the duties of the wage-earner in the industrial and commercial world, and the coming duties of citizenship, a few of which she has already undertaken. Here, then, is the call for an adjustment to a different and broader life, tho still within the realm of the feminine and womanly.

Should we, as educators, fall in with this tendency, which turns the girl away from home and toward the outer world; or should we combat or counteract this influence by making possible and desirable for her the more distinctly feminine rôle; or should we, instead, recognize the age itself and its need for the girl of today, and lend every effort to assist her in adapting herself to it?

According to economic values, our answer lies in this last thought—that girl is best educated who is best able to meet along all lines the demands of the age and country in which she lives.

America grew from a certain value, just as did the girl. It has passed

thru its struggle for freedom, into a nation-building era, thru this into a period of literary culture, and then into the stronger, wide-awake, industrial-commercial era of the present time, which is not only bringing it enormous wealth, but is making it recognized as a great factor with its neighbor-nations. But, like the girl, it has yet another step to take. Some of this vast wealth must be used for culture. It must have a general culture before it can be called great, and this greatness can be reached only thru the individual members of its commonwealths. So that, with all it has accomplished in the buoyant temperament and aspiration of its youth, it must turn its ambitions beyond the political and industrial record of which it may well be proud, and bend every energy to the culture period it must attain before it can claim the highest admiration of the nations of the world.

This is the age, then, in which we must place our young womanhood—a womanhood that draws its spirit from the same conditions as its country; one that feels that it has the ability to train for the higher intellectual life, for the industries and arts which will develop its powers and equip it more thoroly for the duties of modern life. It is a womanhood that wishes to hold itself independent, so that it may preserve itself as sacred for the purpose for which it was created, the right to hold itself as did Portia—"queen o'er herself." Further, it is not a womanhood that offers competition to man, but one that would assist man; one that asks of man his better manhood, and a gentler courtesy that shall be instinct with the feeling that woman is a peer, a comrade, a friend, a fellow-worker, a fellow-citizen; and with the recognition that each is the complement of the other, working together to fulfill the destiny of life. Such, then, is the spirit of the modern girl, and such is the spirit of the time; and such must be the understanding of those who have charge of the girl in the school of the present and the future.

This brings us to the question: How is the school of today prepared to carry its obligation to the time and the training of the girl in such manner as will fit her for the age?

The school has had its own life to live, and has had also its stages of growth. From the log school of our earlier pioneer days to our graded school of the present, our high schools, colleges and universities, our normal schools, show something of the progress of its onward stride. In the establishment of international chairs in the United States, France, Germany, and Italy the school may be said to be entering upon its period of culture, tho it has not yet fully adjusted itself to the rapid march of society. The reason has been that it has been handicapped by this very society, by lack of revenue, by its governing boards, and sometimes even by its superintendents, its principals, and its teachers; and it has often been its own worst enemy in thrusting its internal troubles from one department of its own system to another, hoping thus to economize in point of time. In addition, it has been made the burden-bearer of the home, and to some extent it must carry part of the problems of the church, because of its better opportunity

for contact with the child in point of time and influence. In spite of this, it has waxed stronger and stronger with the years, and has filled a notable part in the life of the nation. It has until recent years carried the one-type school—the academic—one that confined its education entirely to the head. Then came the time calling for an education of the hand as well, and recognition was given to the extent of establishing commercial and manual schools.

Now public opinion is trying to awaken school authorities to the fact that their powers and their school funds are not being used to the best advantage economically, and that our schools are not adjusting their work closely enough to the trend of the time, and that there is a further need of school division along the technical lines, and of a reshaping to meet the culture problems which society is bringing to the door of the school for solution.

In a closer study of the school, we find evidences on every hand that educators are coming to a realization that there must be a differentiation at some point in the training given to boys and to girls. The question, however, as to the point at which the differentiation should begin, and to what extent it should be carried, will depend upon the results of the investigations, observations, and experiments that are already being inaugurated by our educational scientists. In the meantime, however, the girl will continue to meet the one standard in existence, and will take whatever she may need to satisfy her present desires.

Woman has demonstrated her ability to take the standard of education provided for the masculine mind, to complete with credit to herself the most exacting university course. But, having done this, has she developed in herself what was highest and best? Is there not another self which cries out for stimulus and direction? Let the girl take as much of the intellectual life as she will and as she is fitted for, but she yet needs some quarter of a century's training along lines that are essentially her own.

The characteristic faults and weaknesses of girls are the results of woman's history, and that education which does not plan for the character-building of our girls leaves out the keystone to the structure. If girls are disposed more than boys to win their ends by artifices, it is because in the past that was the only means at their command; if they are deceitful, it is because deceit in the past was their only weapon of defense; if they are vain, it is because man's homage put the highest premium upon physical beauty; if they are too emotional, it is because in the past the woman who wept oceans of tears over her small woes and fell into a swoon on the slightest pretext was the type of heroine most admired. These faults have been eliminated, to a great extent, by the slow process of evolution, but we can hasten the end by encouraging ideas of straightforwardness, honesty, self-forgetfulness, and courage, and, further, by building up ideals of strength and beauty as found in the examples of feminine characters of the world who have stood for the height of glorious womanhood.

An interesting study which Earl Barnes has made with regard to the ideals of a large number of girls and boys shows a great dearth of womanly ideals. Out of a group of Boston girls, when asked whom they would like to resemble when women, 68 per cent. chose male ideals for emulation. Hardly a woman in public life was mentioned, except Clara Barton and Helen Gould. The reason for this is plainly to be seen. Our histories are full of the exploits of men characters which arouse admiration and a desire for emulation, and are lacking in the record of the lives of noble and courageous women. We should endeavor in every way possible to supply this lack. Prowess shown in war and conquest has appealed to our writers of history so much more than the less ostentatious part which noble and self-sacrificing women have played, that the lime-light has been thrown almost entirely upon the dramatic figure of the male hero.

Through literature we can do much to build up the right ideals, and in the study of the great heroines of fiction we may beget in future years the heroines of real life. Classified courses in morals and ethics for our elementary and secondary schools would do much to raise the quality of the feminine mind.

That this mind may be able to do its best and most vigorous work, it must have a body trained likewise. The pressure of our rushing nervous life makes it more necessary than ever before that the girl should have every possible aid toward building up a strong body. Women naturally husband and conserve their strength more than men, yet they do not systematize as do men. We can raise the average health of the race only by raising the health of the individual, and particularly that of the prospective mothers. The schools can do much to encourage and provide conditions for healthful activities in the way of play and manual exercise, as well as providing definite instruction in physical culture. This is being done in many of our schools, but it should be more generally and systematically done, as our indoor life today makes our strength dependent upon artificial means. Ample gymnasiums and competent instructors should find a place in every school.

The opportunity for out-of-door life ceases for thousands of girls at twelve or fourteen years. Let them have as much air and happy outdoor activity as possible in the grades. Much of this can be done in school gardens, in park and field excursions, and public playgrounds. The energy thus accumulated will do much to develop resistive power when their lines of life fall in shop or factory; and it will do much also to develop a clean, wholesome, sane emotional nature, which is even more important.

The instruction, now being given in many places, in hygiene, diet, and food values is a step in the right direction, and must in a generation have an appreciable effect upon the tone of health of the masses.

By training along domestic lines in all the phases of cooking, sewing, and housekeeping, might we not somewhat check the tendency toward shop and factory by giving the girl a sense of power and capability in the home

arts? We love to do the things we feel ourselves capable of doing. Might not the girl follow the line of least resistance and take up more easily the distinctly feminine rôle? At least, she will be the better prepared when she is ready to undertake it.

Woman's reaction against limitation, and her eagerness to see and be a part of life, are natural. Again, it is a part of her history, and is the result of her repression period. Since the girl must have a part in the larger social life, she must have a training for citizenship. There never has been a time in the history of civilization that woman has not wielded a powerful influence in matters of state. In the past, however, this influence was largely one of intrigue and a dominance obtained over man, not so much by right and reason as by the magic of personal charm, whereby she has many times in history been the power behind the throne and caused a radical change of administration. Again, witness the influence of the unquenchable fires of passion as displayed in the part women have played in revolutions. Observe the untamable spirit of revolt in the women of Russia at present, and how woman's natural gift of silent, secret persistence in the direction prompted by her heart has made her an element absolutely unimpressed by the iron hand of despotism. Recall how in England, and in many places in America, women have already become powerful allies in matters of state. Women are by nature partisans, because they are led largely by their emotions; and it is this very disposition to espouse a cause and to adhere to it, with or without reason, which is her strength and her weakness; her strength, in that it gives ardor and enthusiasm; her weakness, in that she is frequently led by unreasoning impulse in directions which a more judicial view of the question would forbid. All this shows the necessity of careful training for citizenship, that the girl may not use lightly and carelessly this influence which all must acknowledge.

An easy and interesting approach to the subject, and an adjunct to the usually rather dry and uninteresting subject of civil government, can be given in weekly or monthly discussion of current events—not merely local questions, but international ones also being considered, since the tendency of our time is toward internationalism. Enlist her interest in all civic questions; lead her to espouse the cause of right and justice, and to become the champion of the weak and helpless; to assert her prerogative of home-maker, care-taker, and peace-maker; to realize that, while her chief responsibility is toward the small circle immediately about her, she owes something to her fellows; and thus develop in her a larger sympathy which will tend to develop in her the impersonal side.

As woman has set the standard for beauty, she may also be said to be most deeply appreciative of it. So we would have our girls trained in æsthetic studies. Art and beauty are the outgrowth of surplus energy—energy that has not been required to subdue material things, and hence can expend tself in pure enjoyment. In our country the leisure class—that is, the class

which will have the most surplus energy to expend in this direction—is not a social class, but a sex class. It is the great body of women of the well-to-do, tho not embarrassingly wealthy, class who are the leaders in art, music, and general culture.

Art and music have been introduced into the school to increase the capacity for enjoyment, and for higher thinking and living, and to give poise and grace and content to the lives of our girls. In addition to the enjoyment and culture derived from the study, it teaches the girl how to appreciate the beautiful in foreign art, and to value whatever beginnings there may be in her own country; and finally, in its general study and appreciation, thru-out the country it fosters a taste which may lead later to distinctive art or music creation, and which will develop the culture lacking at present in the United States.

As woman enjoys life largely thru the emotional and personal side; and as the social circle is her largest field of influence, we should give the girl something of this atmosphere also. We can do this by creating a miniature social world in school club or school society. Here she can measure herself with her comrades, and find her strength and weakness. It teaches her law and order and subordination of self, since caprice and self-assertion can have no place when the good is not for the few, but for the greatest number. The club program offers an opportunity to use the studies of the school in a new and larger relation, and from a closer and more individual viewpoint. The responsibility necessary for the proper management of the exercises of the hour will do much to train her for the later responsibility which are sure to be her portion.

In following the girl thru the evolution of self in her relation to society and school, we have found that she is just as womanly, just as feminine, as the older type, yet in advance of that type in that her education and training have fitted her for the larger service of humanity. Nothing is more beautiful than a refined, educated, cultured, sensible, practical woman, full of a great mother-heart for home and its problems, and for humanity and its problems. It is in our power as educators to develop from the raw material in our schools a product that will have in embryo this mother-element, which in the following of its natural instinct will create a higher type of home and society.

DISCUSSION

F. Louis Soldan, superintendent of instruction, public schools, St. Louis, Mo.—There are certainly sex characteristics in education. The girl baby learns speech earlier than does the boy. The girls and the boys show different lines of evolution. Do you infer, for this reason, that separate education must be given to the two sexes—separate in English, physics, and so on? To admit that would be to take a wrong view of education, a view which we discarded long ago. Does it follow that, because the two are different, we must establish different types of education for the

two sexes? Education is what you seek in response to your teaching; it is that reaction on the part of the child which comes from contact with truth. Let me say that a girl will react to the same teaching as will a boy, but the girl will react in a girl's way and the boy in a boy's way. The light which passes thru those windows is of clear color, yet to you and me it appears red or yellow; so the light of good teaching will break in the soul of a boy into a product that seems different from that in the soul of a girl; but in both cases it prepares for life. My friend says school is life. Then since life brings the sexes together, I think that the greatest good is secured in the schoolroom when both sexes are sitting under the same teaching. If I wanted to know all about man and what he is needing in education, I would invite a good woman to talk; and if I wanted to know something about the girls' education, I would not hear from a woman alone. I would ask some good father who has grown daughters to tell me what he thinks the education of a girl should be.

Charles D. Lowry, district superintendent of schools, Chicago, Ill.—The topic is a large one, since it includes the whole subject of "education" of children. It is an appropriate topic for us to discuss, since our standing problem is so to adjust the teaching of different subjects as to form a well-balanced course of instruction. The division of the subject and the choice of speakers indicate that prominence should be given in the discussion to the difference between the instruction that should be given to boys and that which should be given to girls. Both phases of the subject have been discussed in the two papers. It is interesting to notice, however, that, while it is shown clearly that girls and boys do need different instruction, yet these differences are not so great as to necessitate the maintenance of separate elementary or high schools. Only when technical education is begun is the separation of the sexes imperative. All of our education, if it is to fit the boys and girls for life, must be of the kind that gives opportunity for the development of the individuality and training in the art of working together. The education which children give one another is one of the chief advantages of the public school.

The pupil comes to school with only a vague and superficial knowledge of the things about him. It is the business of the school to show to him the deeper meanings of the processes of nature, industry, and society. For instance, it is the function of history-teaching to make the child feel the movement from the past to the present; to show, for example, how transportation has developed from the canoe and the covered wagon to the steamship and the railroad train.

The child is in the schoolhouse only a part of his life, and we should be very careful to give him such habits of study as will assist him to carry on his education thru life—habits which will prepare him to attack new situations and solve new problems. "Culture" studies should not be separated too widely from "practical" studies. That was the mistake of the manufacturer quoted in Mr. Halleck's paper, when he said he would prefer, if the boy is going into a shop, that he should not have had manual training. Such a boy is in special need of manual training, in order that he may have the ability to grasp the full meaning of the processes with which he is to deal, and to make his day's work a means of culture.

The point Mr. Halleck makes in reference to the care of domestic animals is interesting. Pupils in school are apt to think that mistakes are of little importance. If the pupil can have impressed upon his mind the close relation between cause and effect, the instinct for accuracy and carefulness will be established. My son had a lesson of that sort when he found that poor care of his chickens reduced the output of eggs. The same lesson is well taught by manual training.

As a final result, the pupil should come to such a knowledge of his tastes and capacities that he can go into technical work and know his place without making numerous failures.

WHAT KIND OF LANGUAGE STUDY AIDS IN THE MASTERY OF NATURAL SCIENCE?

W. T. HARRIS, UNITED STATES COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION

My thoughts have lately been directed toward the relation in which the advanced specialized higher studies stand to the body of preparatory branches. Some weeks ago I had the honor of addressing the members of the National Association of Faculties of the Agricultural and Mechanical Colleges (usually called the "land grant" colleges), endowed by Congress in 1862 and twice subsequently. The latest grant provides that the $25,000 annually paid to each one of these colleges shall none of it be expended for foreign languages. It had happened before in the state institutions which arose on the foundation of the endowment of 1862 for the establishment of colleges for the benefit of agriculture and mechanic arts, that older institutions, modeled on the basis of the college or university for general culture, had obtained the advantages of said endowment, and, not being limited in their application of the fund, had used it for the most part in strengthening what I have called the vestibule to education—the general preparation for higher studies. Inasmuch as the students seeking general culture were far more numerous than those who had marked out for themselves careers in special industrial studies, it had come to pass that nearly all of the benefits of the agricultural and mechanical endowment had been applied to the branches which underlie common culture—namely, foreign languages, and especially the so-called dead languages, Latin and Greek. The new endowment of August, 1890, therefore provided in a careful manner that its proceeds should not go toward strengthening the vestibule of education, but should be applied entirely to the superstructure of the special education intended for agriculture and mechanic arts. It could be said at this point that application of the earlier endowment, that of 1862, in such lines as had already been fixed in the older college education was necessary partly because there had as yet not been formulated, or at least not yet published, any systematic and well-graded course of instruction in agriculture or the mechanic arts. There being comparatively little experience in this field, and only feeble attempts to reduce it to a course of study, the directors of higher institutions found themselves in the presence of a formidable difficulty in carrying out the obvious intentions of the first endowment, that of 1862. In the meantime nearly thirty years had elapsed of experiments in collecting and systematizing a body of doctrine relating to agriculture as it is found in the United States and elsewhere. The time had arrived, therefore, when a new endowment could be guarded in its application, and directed toward the specialties of agriculture and the mechanic arts, and its application to instruction in ancient and modern languages entirely prevented. Nothing of this new endowment should go to the traditional foundation studies of higher education, with the exception of mathematics. The history of the application of the first endow-

ment, that of 1862, had shown conclusively that no superstructure would arise on its foundation, and that the endowment for agriculture and the mechanic arts would only go so far as to furnish a vestibule to all kinds of higher education, and especially to education for the learned professions. This incident led me to some new reflections (new only to me, perhaps) on the relation of preparatory studies to the advanced studies in science.

In what way are all those early studies in the high schools and in the freshman classes of colleges and universities related to progress in the mastery of science, and to the original investigations which advance science itself and make possible its applications to industry?

The interesting and suggestive course of study in the agricultural department which is published in the catalogs of our state universities supplies me a text. I notice the words agronomy, zoötechny, agrotechny, rural economy, rural engineering, apiculture, viticulture, botany, zoölogy, pomology, olericulture, floriculture, horticulture, meteorology, mathematics, geology, physiography, biology, bacteriology, entomology, veterinary science, agrostology, embryology, cryptogamic botany, vegetable cytology. This course of study, bristling with Greek and Latin technical terms—there are in this list of words seventeen Greek derivatives and ten Latin—goes to prove that Latin and Greek are not dead languages, as they were supposed to be a few years ago, but are languages that are quite alive in science and the arts. Even in agriculture the sciences have borrowed words both from the Latin and from the Greek, in order to arrive at a perfect accuracy of expression. Colloquial words of Anglo-Saxon roots are well enough to express ordinary experience, but not at all adapted to the expression of the results of precise and systematic investigation. There are two vocabularies in a language—the colloquial vocabulary and the vocabulary for science, literature, and philosophy. Everybody uses the colloquial vocabulary for the expression of the daily needs of common life, but only those who are specially taught in the branches of a higher education can use intelligently the second vocabulary. Ordinary colloquial discourse is well enough in its way, but is only a beginning of language. Its objects are simple and undefined, and on the whole shallow as to thought. The word "knowledge," for instance, expresses in one word all sorts of information and reflection. It is a great, undifferentiated heap of results of acts of knowing; while "science" expresses a systematic organization of facts in such a way that each fact throws light on all the others. Knowledge is for the most part a heap of isolated, undigested particulars of perception and reflection—mere shallow facts mixed with more or less profound observations of all kinds. Science, in the first place, classifies the facts and brings together those which throw light on each other into one branch of science. Then it connects these systematically so as to show their order of genesis from the first to the last, and how the causal action of one fact affects other facts, and how it itself is derived from the causal action of states and conditions preceding it. The difference

between a dumping heap, where all sorts of things that are of no use are piled in confusion, and a regular and symmetrical piece of architecture is something like the difference between knowledge and science.

By causality one sees the multiplicity of facts in their unity. The technique itself indicates the place of the fact or event in the causal chain that produces it.

This reminder of the difference between science and mere knowledge has to be kept in mind, and is preliminary to the answer of the question: What kind of language study aids in the mastery of natural science? One cannot help thinking, as he looks over the names of the divisions in the scientific course of agriculture, or in mathematics, or physics and chemistry, or geology and geography, that the pupil's time must be taken up in the higher special courses of study, in memorizing technical words of many syllables, unless the pupil has in his earlier preparation made the elements of those words significant. If the student has learned Greek in his preparatory years, the word "agronomy" divides out for him at first sight into the roots of the word *agros*, a "field," and *nomos*, signifying a usage or principle of management; "agriculture" suggests the Latin word *ager*, "a field," and *cultus* from *colere*, "to sow or plant." We shall see that a knowledge of the meaning of the parts of a word is a powerful aid to the understanding of the meaning of the whole word, and to the retaining of the same in the memory. Thousands and thousands of technical terms occur in botany, all founded on Latin words. A superficial study of Latin will increase the power of comprehending the scientific technique of botany. As long as one does not know the language from which the technical terms are derived, he is forced to make a greater effort to remember them. Compare the difference to the ordinary college-educated man between a term derived from the Sanskrit and a term derived from the Latin. "Magnanimous" can easily be understood by the Latin student who recalls the word *magnus*, "great," and *animus*, "the soul or mind;" the word used in the Bhagavad Gita, *mahatma*, frequently used by students of the so-called esoteric Buddhism, is difficult to remember unless one has the same elementary knowledge of Sanskrit in which case he recognizes the first part *maha* as meaning "great" and equivalent to *magnus*, and *atma*, "the soul."

Take, also, the geographical name of the country at the mouth of the Indus river in India; the territory is called Punjab—a jargon word at first to the Englishman. The person superficially acquainted with Sanskrit recognizes the first part of the word, *Punj*, as meaning "five," and *ab* as meaning "river." The Punjab is the delta land between the five rivers or branches of the Indus at its mouth. An elementary knowledge of Latin and Greek gives one the power of retaining and of comprehending technical terms with a fine sense as to the shades of meaning. It is a matter of everyday experience to see students not acquainted with Latin make a mistake in spelling or in identifying the parts of a long, technical word, and, what

is worse, a mistake in getting hold of the shade of meaning indicated. Shakespeare's plays are full of puns and of blunders founded on the mistakes of the illiterate people who do not understand the Latin part of the English language.

This brings us to the insight that Latin and Greek are very far from being "dead languages." No longer used colloquially for simple conversational speech, the classic languages, Latin and Greek, are all the more used for preserving the results of scientific observation, and for literary expression of fine shades of feeling and distinctions of thought; and it is very necessary to get the elementary sensuous significations of the Latin and Greek roots, which one does in his three years' high-school study of Latin, in order to acquire a fine sense of the use of these words in scientific technique. It also makes the technical vocabulary as easy to remember as the colloquial vocabulary. The word "carnivorous," for instance, has the root *carn* and the root *vor*, *carnis* meaning "flesh," and the root *vor*, "to eat or devour;" The whole word meaning "flesh-eating." The lack of a feeling of the original meaning of these words produces the ludicrous use of language caricatured by Shillaber in his *Sayings of Mrs. Partington.* Mrs. Partington is a type of the person who has no adequate sense of the original meaning of the classical derivatives which she uses. Uneducated colored people often furnish examples of speech of this kind. One of them, for instance, goes to a drug store and asks for a "nanny-goat" for a particular poison, meaning antidote." And Mrs. Partington said that "total depravity was a very good doctrine if you could only live up to it." The Greek meaning of the word "antidote" is just as easy to remember as the name of the domestic animal to a person with a smattering of Greek, and the Latin meanings to total and depravity are equally easy to the one who has given some study to Latin.

The fact that what is called a complete English dictionary contains three Latin or Greek derivatives to one word from a Saxon or any other Gothic source shows us that to the educated man the livest part of his language, so far as science and literature and the higher order of thoughts are concerned, is the Latin and Greek contingent. Any person who had to learn botany or chemistry would find it worth his while to begin by a three-year study of Latin and Greek, just for the benefit of these languages in his scientific education. So, too, for history or for poetry, and, by far more essential, for medicine, the law, and divinity.

I admit that there is abuse of time and energy in studying Latin according to the favorite methods pursued in preparatory schools and colleges. I had a poet friend—a chum of mine at Phillips Academy, Andover, in the time of Samuel H. Taylor, the Greek scholar. Meeting him at a reunion of our class, after many years (a thirty-fifth anniversary), I asked him: "What did you learn at Andover, and what did our class learn?" He replied: "We learned the exceptions. To be sure, we learned the paradigms, but that did not take much of our time." It was the committing to memory

of lists of unfamiliar words which were said to be exceptions to the regular declensions and conjugations. The memorizing of these exceptions, however, is not a serious matter as compared with the time spent in classical schools in learning the quantities of vowels in Latin words. In the English universities, Oxford and Cambridge, and at the English preparatory schools, they learn not only the laws for quantity, but they learn the numerous exceptions and the innumerable cases of vowels which are long or short only "by usage." They learn these with such painstaking as would be required to make Latin poets, and they test the quality of their scholarship by actually composing written verses in Latin. This is all the more astonishing because no person knows precisely how the quantity of Latin vowels affected their pronunciation. There may be some shrewd guesses on this point, but there is little real knowledge on it and no complete theory.

One is led to suppose that the English gentleman desires to celebrate his contempt for what is useful, not only in the line of bread-and-butter studies, but even in the line of producing science and literature. He studies the quantities of Latin vowels to show his contempt for utilities either in the conquest of nature or in the combination of men into social wholes for business or politics. I admit that in some cases, especially in those of Tennyson and Milton, the study of Latin quantities may possibly have quickened the ear to the melodies in the English tongue, and that we owe in the case of Tennyson and Milton much to their work in the preparatory school in the way of learning Latin quantities. But if "Shakespeare had little Latin and less Greek," he certainly excelled both Tennyson and Milton in his discovery of the capacity of his native tongue for a greater compass of music than the classic tongues ever possessed. However this may be, I for one am glad that American preparatory schools, especially the public high schools, waste very little time in the learning of Latin quantities. For those who claim conservatism in this matter, and insist with great stress on the study of quantity as the real key to the benefits of Latin and Greek, there is very little defense since the studies of comparative phonology and other branches of classical philology reached their height in the last generation.

It remains true, and will remain true, that for us Latin and Greek must be studied because they are still living in the English language, and are not dead languages; because they are living languages, not of the colloquial vocabulary of common sensuous experience, but of the scientific vocabulary; not only of the strict sciences, like mathematics and logic and physics, but of the experimental and historical sciences, one and all; and because the characteristic vocabularies and styles of the great literary writers of English are to be identified thru the possession which they show of the fine shades of meaning, as well as the possession of newly attained powers to express moods of the soul. Their refinements of taste, their lofty aspirations and

subtle thoughts, are all made possible of expression by skill in using the Latin and Greek derivatives which reënforce the Anglo-Saxon vocabulary by a wealth of words three times as numerous as that derived from the old English.

To prove that my sweeping statements with regard to the use of the Latin vocabulary of the English language are not exaggerated, I will quote a further list of the sciences, and sometimes go into their technique. There are, for instance, physiology and anatomy, anthropology, ethnology, archæology, philosophy (with such branches as cosmology, psychology, ontology, metaphysics, epistemology), geology, paleontology, zoölogy, entomology, ichthyology, biology, bacteriology; astronomy, constellations: Ursa Major and Minor, Canis Major and Minor, Boötes, Auriga, Cassiopeia, Cygnus, Orion, etc.; the zodiac: Aries, Taurus, Gemini, Cancer, Leo, etc. The great stars are, many of them, named with Arabic names: Aldebaran, Rigel, Merak, Dubhe, Deneb, Vega, and are not significant to mere Latin scholars, as are the names of the constellations to which they belong. But, on the whole, astronomy has a Latin technique. Meteorology uses Greek and Latin terminology. Medicine sets forth its doctrines in Latin and Greek, using Greek for processes and general departments: allopathy, homeopathy, diagnosis, nosology, therapeutics, neurology, ophthalmology, and the like; and Latin for dentistry, osteology, craniology, vertebral, cervical, cardial, arterial, labial, lingual; and so on to hundreds of technically precise terms.

Botany also has a greater preference for Greek words in its technique for the larger classes or departments and the general processes. Its four general divisions as a science—structural, morphological, physiological, and systematic botany—use three Greek derivatives and one Latin. It divides plants into orders, suborders, tribes, genera, subgenera, sections, species, subspecies, varieties; paleontological, exogenous, and endogenous.

Its special subkingdoms are named from the Greek words *thallos*, "a shoot;" *bryon*, "a moss;" *pteris*, "a fern." Most of us have read some time ago a charming piece of Herbartian writing which illustrated the meaning of the technical word "apperception." The book was called *A Pot of Green Feathers*, and it told of an object-lesson in a London school in which the children studied a flower-pot full of ferns brought in for the purpose from a neighboring hothouse. It seems that the children had not seen ferns before, or at least had not learned the special name for them, and when questioned on it one of the children volunteered her statement as to the new plant by saying that it was a pot of green feathers. Now, it is interesting that the child came upon the same idea that the Greek mind had in naming a fern, for it called a fern *pteris*, or "feather." I continue my list of botanical terms, which calls the fourth subkingdom of plants *phaneros*, or "showy." They are called showy because they celebrate their maturity

and reproduction by showy blossoms and fruit. We have four subkingdoms of plants: thallophyta, having blades or shoots; bryophyta (moss); pteridophyta (ferns, feather-plants); phanerogamia.

Hundreds of names of functions and processes, thousands and thousands of names of classes, are found in botany. These names cannot be retained in the memory without long study and great effort, but the botanist who does not know Latin and Greek finds the polysyllabic names a jargon of meaningless syllables and sees that he will save time by taking up the classic languages and continuing his study of them for three years and longer. When the parts of the long word begin each to have a meaning, and a meaning which relates to the function or process of the plant, and makes the whole word significant, the memory is relieved of a dead weight, and it hands over the larger part of its burden to the judgment and understanding.

Mathematics sticks closer to the Greek than the other sciences, because it is the oldest science. The student who wishes to aid his memory by the sensuous meaning of the parts of the words that form the strict and severe technique of mathematics must take his Greek course for two years or so, mastering his paradigms, and reading simple descriptive Greek prose until the colloquial words become familiar to eye and ear. Then he will have no difficulty in memorizing the various -metries and -gons and -hedrons or the other categories of geometry. Latin will afford similar help to him in the analytical branches of mathematics.

The memory, as I have said, has little to do where the causal connection is indicated in the meaning of the names and where sensuous experience is brought to mind. The constructive process, pictured by us in imagination, lifts the memory on its wings, so to speak, up to intellect and reason.

All these necessary requirements are provided now by the high schools, which are becoming so numerous as to be found in every small city and large village. The number for the present year is 7,500 high schools. In the public high schools in 1890 less than 35 per cent. were studying Latin, the total number being 70,411; but the 35 per cent. had risen to 51 per cent. in 1904, and the total number studying Latin had increased from 70,000 to 323,000. So the private schools, in 1890, enrolling 145,000 in all, had 31 per cent. of their pupils studying Latin. But the percentage studying Latin in 1904 in the private secondary schools had increased to 45 per cent., and the total number of secondary students in private institutions had increased from 145,000 to 169,000, so that in these two classes of institutions the number studying Latin amounts to 369,329 pupils. It may be assumed that nine-tenths of all of the students enrolled study Latin at some time in the course, and thus prepare themselves for the study of science and literature. The high-school graduates who do not subsequently take up science or literature in college work will be able to read a higher order of literature in books and magazines, and understand a great deal of science.

THE SUPERINTENDENT'S AUTHORITY AND THE TEACHER'S FREEDOM

OSCAR T. CORSON, FORMER COMMISSIONER OF SCHOOLS FOR OHIO, COLUMBUS, OHIO

[STENOGRAPHER'S REPORT]

Mr. Chairman, Members of the Department, Ladies and Gentlemen:

Some time ago in the state of Indiana, where the president of this department lived before he moved to the state of presidents and sons-in-law of presidents, the children were taking advantage of a recess period to engage in a game of playing school. As is always the case on such occasions, they were representing, as their conception of a school, the worst conditions they had ever met with. The boys and girls were all rebellious, indolent, and lazy. The teacher belonged to that peculiar class who are afraid their rights will not be recognized, and, like other heathen, she used a great many vain repetitions, evidently hoping to be heard for her much speaking. With that class of pupils and that type of teacher, you can easily imagine the school. Several older people were spectators of the scene, and, as they cast their eyes over the school, they noticed one boy who seemed to be taking no account of the proceedings in particular, except to walk up and down the aisle occasionally, once in a while resting his hand upon the head of some boy, again going up to the teacher's desk and looking thru copy-books, examining the crayon used, and so on. Finally some one suggested: "This boy seems to have nothing to do." Immediately came the answer: "He is not expected to do anything; he is the superintendent."

That perhaps may represent the idea some people have of a school superintendent, and yet it is no flattery to the school superintendents assembled here or elsewhere, to say that such a superintendent is exceedingly rare. I think more and more, as the years go by, the superintendent is expected in the community—and meets the expectation, as a rule—to stand for something very definite. He represents the authority of the school.

My own personal conviction is that this authority should originate with a board of education and be kept as close as possible to the people. I firmly believe that the superintendent's authority should give him the initiative in the employment of every teacher, and in directing the general educational policy of the community that he serves. Whatever our ideas may be on that, I think we will admit that there is a place in the educational system for authority, and that that authority should in no way, and will in no way, interfere with freedom properly understood and properly used.

We find these two factors in everything. If we look about the universe, and go back to our first lessons in geography, we recall that there is one force that holds things stable, and another force that keeps things in motion. In nature these forces are always so delicately adjusted that no one can find any criticism of the results that follow the actions of both.

We find these same two factors in the political world. Nobody but an unreasonable partisan fails today to see good in the political creed of both Alexander

Hamilton and Thomas Jefferson. A few times in the history of this nation we have reached high tide under the administration of a great soul, who was competent to appreciate and recognize fully the good in both schools of politics.

Under the immortal Lincoln a terrible strife of four years in this nation was so guided and controlled that, when the end finally came, the world recognized, as never before, the majesty and authority of our government; and yet at the same time a new emphasis was placed upon its being a government of the people, by the people, and for the people.

No one doubts for a moment that our chief magistrate, Theodore Roosevelt, will exercise every particle of authority vested in him, in his holy warfare against organized robbery, existing either as corporate greed or political graft; and yet at the same time everybody is absolutely certain that the freedom of the humblest individual in this nation is, after all, the dearest idol of our great president's heart.

It makes no difference where you go—into theology (I feel free to discuss that, because I know you all know as little of that as I do), if you please, and we hear there of the conflict between God's sovereignty and man's free will; when you come to the realm of the school, there is certainly a place for authority represented by the superintendent who gets his authority from the people thru the board of education, and also a definite place for the freedom of every sane teacher. But while this is true, I think it is very important that this relation be thoroly understood.

Occasionally we hear nowadays—not from the old guard, as it were, but from the supposed advance agents of the new education—that there is no longer any need of authority in educational affairs. This last summer I sat for an hour on a platform in this country and listened to a man who was introduced as an authority on elementary education, and that entire hour was taken up by him in telling the teachers that in the school he was connected with, every teacher and every pupil had absolute freedom. Why, there is no such thing as absolute freedom in this world! There is not a man in this audience tonight, however well-behaved he may be when away from home, who is not subject to law; and I have always noticed that the man who obeys the law is the one who complains the least about it; on the other hand, the man who is talking most of freedom is frequently the anarchist who ought to be in jail. I am inclined to think today that the teacher who is worthy of freedom in the true sense is the one who rarely mentions it, while the one who is eternally talking about her individual rights is the one who is not prepared to exercise rights of any kind.

I am perfectly free to admit that authority may be carried to extremes in the schoolroom; possibly in the past that has been the tendency. I know I have heard a great deal of criticism of public schools in this country, much of which seemed to me unfounded, which indicated that the organization of the school was looked after at the expense of the individual child. That may be true, but isn't it possible, my friends, that under the plea of recognizing the individuality of some teacher who has no individuality, who has simply mistaken a bundle

of peculiarities for that article—isn't it possible that the child may suffer from too much of that kind of freedom?

When we come to the organization of the school, I take it that no sane individual doubts for a moment that we need classification. I suppose the educational crime for the past twenty years in this country has perhaps been the crowding of too many boys and girls into classes taught by one teacher. This department a few years ago applauded a statement that no teacher ought to have over five pupils under her control. I don't know how many of you were there, but I think nearly everyone present applauded that statement; and I commenced thinking it over. I don't know how many teachers there are in Louisville, but I do know that, if this system of education provided a teacher for every five children the city would be bankrupt in a very short time. Such a statement as that argues for the financially impossible, and also for the educationally undesirable.

You will pardon me if I am personal tonight, and say I think I have done my share of teaching poor schools; but the poorest school was one that I taught in the country, having twenty-five boys and girls enrolled. I took the measles from some unknown source, was out two weeks, went back, and found that I had distributed them to nineteen of the twenty-five. I then taught school three weeks with the six children. I am absolutely certain that was the poorest school I ever taught. I could not help being amused when I heard the utterance attacking organizations of schools and saying that there should be a teacher for every five children. I could not help remembering that the man who made it had given his unqualified approval to that report, which said that the small school is necessarily a poor school; and, because a small school is necessarily a poor school, we have been talking of centralization of rural schools all over this country in order that we may get enough of boys and girls together under one teacher to give them something of the inspiration that comes from class spirit. We must never lose sight of that while we are thinking of this educational problem. Too many boys and girls under one teacher is an organization that is faulty; but we need not to go to the opposite extreme to correct it. We are in danger educationally from too much specialization in the public schools? Please do not think I am attacking the specialist. The specialist in his scholarship is an absolute necessity in this country, but his tendency to be narrow, and see only one little fraction of the educational problem, is a danger to any school system. I do not refer to the specialist in the college or in the high school, but to teachers whose idea of freedom is that they shall think only of the educational problem in the one little grade or group they teach, and never have any concern for the school as a whole.

You know the criticism of education all along the line. It begins with the college. Did you ever sit in a college association and listen to the criticism of the public schools? What is the burden of it? The poorly prepared freshman that comes from the high school. Well, now, I have no suggestion to make to the college professors other than this, that it would be good for

them to take a vacation once a year—and I wish it came oftener than that—and spend a good part of it in visiting some good primary school, and there sit at the feet of some woman who knows how to teach, and learn something of the sympathy that actuates the heart of a great teacher. Again, I have often thought that, if some of our college friends would look at some of the seniors they graduate, they would complain less about the freshmen that come up from the high school. I believe that the trouble is that the average college man is thinking only of college education, and forgets the rest of the educational problem.

Now, we public-school teachers are just as big sinners as they are. Go into the high school when it opens in September, and what is the burden of the complaint? Oh, the poorly prepared boys and girls that come from the grammar school! And yet there is not a high-school teacher that does not know that the year before he has urged the promotion of boys and girls that were not any better prepared for promotion than those that come from the grammar school. If we are honest with ourselves, we will all admit that we have to push along these boys and girls in the different grades. If we did not, they would all get in one place, and form a sort of educational drift-wood that would dam up the whole educational stream, and there would be absolutely no hope of any progress. I don't care how much you superintendents talk about your systems of promotion; I know what you do. You have a boy in school that can't make his grade or group. If he is reasonably faithful, and you think he will hold out to the end, you simply keep him two years in a place, and then push him on for somebody else to work with him two years longer. Now, be honest with yourselves and tell the truth about this problem. That is what you do. It is done in all the schools all over this country. We have to do it.

Have you ever heard the grammar-school teacher talk? The school opens in the fall; the boy comes home from a happy vacation; frequently he has forgotten a great deal of what has been taught previously; and he finds himself in the presence of some unsympathetic teacher who prides herself on her individuality, who begins to complain of the poorly prepared boys and girls that come up from the intermediate grades. If any of you are here that have ever done that, just think of the sins you committed last spring when you recommended a half-dozen boys to the high school who you knew were not ready for promotion. The fact is, we have to meet these problems and deal honestly with them, and do the best we can.

And then the intermediate teacher complains of the primary. A boy has been promoted who can't read. Well, suppose he can't. You can teach him to read in half the time you are complaining about it. I always feel so sorry for the primary teacher. She has nobody to complain about, unless it be the parents or Deity; and neither one will pay any attention to the complaint.

I like to see a college professor, of course, who knows more about

college work than anything else; but I want to see a college professor who has heart enough to think of some of the problems that the public schools have to deal with. I like to see a high-school teacher, teaching Latin, and knowing more of Latin than he knows of anything else; but I want him to remember there is some difficulty in teaching fractions down along the line. I want to see a primary teacher who is heart and soul a primary teacher, but also broad enough in her sympathy and interest to see the child not only in the primary room, but as he goes up thru the intermediate and grammar grades, high school, and college. Every teacher should be interested in the work of every other teacher; and to my mind what the graded schools of this country need today more than any other one thing is teachers who shall be free to do all they possibly can for the boys and girls in their special grades and departments, but who will never forget that other teachers besides themselves have difficulties to meet, and all be interested in this great problem.

I think we need some authority relative to a course of study. I honestly believe that. I do not mean that the superintendent shall be an autocrat in the making of a course of study, and say: "This shall ye teach and nothing more." I mean that teachers ought to be consulted, and when a school faculty made up of teachers of all grades, and supervisors, and the superintendent himself, unite upon what they believe is a good course of training for the boys and girls, then I believe there ought to be some authority that shall say that that course of study shall be taught, and that discipline, whatever it may be, shall be exercised. There is a place for such authority; but, of course, we should not go to the extreme. I know it is possible to adhere so closely to a text-book that we may destroy the intellectual life of any child. It may be possible for a boy to go thru a school and actually think there is nothing in the universe worth knowing outside of the leaves of the text-book.

The following incident will make plain my meaning: A few years ago our good friend, William Hawley Smith, gave one of his stirring lectures in the state of Michigan. In his audience was a young principal of a village school, who was much impressed with the appeal of the lecturer for a broader recognition of the varied capacities of children. About a year afterward this young man introduced himself to Mr. Smith, as they were traveling on a train, and related the following experience:

> After hearing your lecture I returned to my school work determined to reform some of my methods of teaching. I lived in a Michigan village, located in a farming community whose chief product is corn, hundreds of thousands of bushels of which were stored in elevators not far from the schoolhouse. This corn naturally brought rats in great numbers, and I thought that, if there were any object in the world that the children knew something about, that object was a rat. One morning I closed the recitation in the text-book sooner than usual, and proceeded to begin my reform. I asked the boys and girls how many of them had ever seen a rat. Of course, all could answer this question, I then asked them a second question, which I assured them all could not answer, as the reply would require a close observation, which I feared they were not all in the habit of making.

This second question called for definite information relative to the length of hair on a rat's tail. The answers furnished various lengths, from a small fraction of an inch to several inches. The "psychological moment" had arrived. I was about to give my first lesson in the reform movement which was being initiated. I called attention to the difference in the answers, and asked how the question could be correctly settled. One boy signified, by his uplifted hand, a willingness to respond. I called upon him to do so. He replied: "Look it up in the dictionary!"

I presume that you will agree that the directing authority of that school had insisted up to that time on having teachers adhere a little too closely to text-books and works of reference, and that as a result those boys and girls had gained that false idea that we want to keep away from—that books are the only source of information. And yet, why is it that, when we try to correct a wrong, we are so apt to go to the other extreme? Because some other teacher has made a mere machine of herself and her school by such rigid adherence to a course of study and text-books is no reason why we shall go to the other extreme and say that the text-book has no place in education. If I had to choose between two evils I should take the teacher who could teach a text-book well, rather than one who imagined that a text-book had no place in education, and that she could teach everything on what she called the lecture plan. But there is time in this country, my friends, for a teacher, and a place for a teacher who can teach a boy that exceedingly important lesson that will help him to gain that power which will enable him when he gets out of school, to go off, if you please, by himself and take a book and get the meat out of it. I believe in reasonable freedom of the teacher in carrying out the course of study, but I do not believe a teacher should be so free that she can use her own sweet will absolutely to ignore all directions of the central authority in education, which says there are certain things that must be taught and taught thoroly.

Now, this authority in education should be combined with sympathy. Here, sometimes is the trouble. We do not object to authority, if it is sympathetic authority; and for that reason I have always had a firm conviction in my own heart that no one is fitted to superintend a school—perhaps there are exceptions, and the exceptions may be here—who has not come up thru the ranks and who does not know by experience something of the difficulty of the individual teacher. I care not how much scholarship a man may have; he may have been educated by all the universities in this country and the other; and yet put that man in authority over teachers, who knows nothing of the difficulties of the individual teacher, and he never can have that sympathy which will make him a leader rather than a mere director of educational affairs.

And then may I say, on the other hand, that the freedom of the teacher should be thoroly mingled with loyalty to the superintendent? Just as we nee a superintendent who is in sympathy with his teachers in the execution of his authority, so we need teachers all over this country who are absolutely loyal to the superintendent as the directing authority of a school system. There

is only one person in the world for whom I have a deeper sympathy than I have for the teacher. I think I know something of what it is to have to struggle along and teach. Some one has said: "Teaching school is hard work; teaching forty boys and girls—not forty acting like one, but each one acting like forty." I think the man who uttered that had taught school. I say there is only one person I sympathize with more than I do with the teacher. That person is the superintendent. I may be talking to teachers here tonight. I judge there are some present, and I wonder if they have any idea of the battles that the superintendent has to fight that they never know anything of. I have absolutely no respect for a superintendent who will in any way speak an ill word of a teacher unless that teacher is in a position to answer the criticism and defend herself; and I have, if possible, still less respect for the teacher who will, in the absence of the superintendent, speak a disrespectful word of his authority and his place in the educational system.

It is only when we have this authority, properly constituted, mingled with the sympathy of which I have tried to speak, and this freedom of the teacher to work out her own salvation, and yet with the will of the superintendent working thru her that we can hope, as the result of the combination, to have authority in education and freedom in education to train a class of boys and girls who will go out into practical life as citizens of a free country, ready at the proper time to recognize the majesty of the law, to be obedient to the call of the government when it comes, and yet at the same time ever jealous of that freedom which that government bequeathes to all.

THE TEACHING OF ARITHMETIC

PROFESSOR SIMON NEWCOMB, WASHINGTON, D. C.

The first question to arise in the minds of this honored assemblage on the present occasion may well be how it happens that one not supposed to have been professionally engaged in the instruction of youth should ask a hearing from a body of teachers of such wide experience as that here present. The answer is that during almost my entire adult life I have had occasion to employ and train young men in numerical computations pertaining to astronomy. When candidates presented themselves for employment in this presumably abstruse work, it was naturally supposed that great stress would be laid on the mathematical course they had taken in school or college. After a few years of experience the general reply which I had to make to all questions of qualifications was that proficiency in arithmetic came first in importance, and the first rule, simple addition, was the most important of all. Subtraction was scarcely below it, and multiplication and division were desirable. Next in order came general ideas of quantity, which one could scarcely be expected to acquire without some training in the higher mathematics and yet which evaded exact definition. This standard of qualification was

emphasized because the general rule was found to be that the candidate had learned his arithmetic by methods inherited generation after generation from the colonial schoolmaster, without infiltration from those professionally engaged in applying arithmetic to practical purposes. In the case of more advanced mathematical subjects the main object in view had been mental discipline; and the idea of implanting mathematical conceptions that the student should be able to see and apply in daily work had never entered into the plan. It was therefore often necessary to begin by showing a beginner in my work how to add and subtract.

Another noticeable circumstance was that the deficiency in arithmetic was more marked in American youth than in foreigners, especially Germans. I found that, however little education a German applicant might have had, he was at least as good an arithmetician as the best American. In view of the excellence of our common-school system, the question could not but suggest itself whether there might not be some trait of the American mind unfavorable to the development of arithmetical capacity. But experience has led me to the conclusion that it is more in our methods of teaching than in the want of capacity that the difference is to be sought. When my children went to school, I found that their little brains were being painfully exercised in commercial arithmetic, custom-house business, and other exercises no more conducive to mental efficiency than an hour or two spent in trying to lift a house would have been to the health of their muscular system.

It is one thing to see a defect, and quite another thing to devise a remedy. I have from time to time tried to gain what light I could on the points in which the common-school education in Germany differed from our own. A very little inquiry in this direction, added to what I knew from experience, showed that the German system was broader and more practical in its aims than our own; but I saw no reason to suppose it the ideal one of which I was in search. I therefore tried to reach conclusions of my own as to methods of mathematical teaching, in at least the elementary branches, especially arithmetic. One point was clear; our teaching was too abstract and too much dissociated from objects of sense. In 1892 I published in the *Educational Review* a paper on the teaching of mathematics, in which I emphasized this view, and suggested methods by which elementary arithmetical ideas could be gained and enforced thru the senses. It was discouraging never to learn that this paper seemed to excite attention. But when I returned to the subject during the past twelve months, I was much pleased to find that the very ideas which I had then set forth, not only as to general principles, but in detail, are now features of the latest arithmetics that have been written. Whether my paper was or was not a factor in this change I cannot say. Perhaps the case will be a little more encouraging if it was not. The main point is that if, as the facts seem to indicate, ideas which I then set forth are now found worthy of acceptance by practical teachers, the same may be true of the results of further studies in the same direction, to which I now invite your attention.

In any branch of human endeavor the first requirement is a clear conception of the purpose in view. Our first question must therefore be that of the object aimed at in the teaching of arithmetic.

It is now universally admitted that the main purpose of education is the building-up of the mind and training of the faculties, rather than the acquisition of knowledge or the mastery of details set forth in text-books. "Discipline" and "culture" are terms often used to express this purpose. In the case of mathematics, discipline is commonly considered to be the main object. But it seems to me that a precise definition of what we mean by discipline is wanting. In its most acceptable form, I should define it as the development of the power of co-ordinating the action of the various faculties, and directing it toward a definite end. Granting this, it is, above the kindergarten stage, rather a corollary than an object to be kept primarily in view. I shall therefore pass it over and try to state the purpose in a more definite form.

Without going into details, a very little thought will, I think, make it clear that the main end of mathematical teaching—we might say of teaching generally—is to store the mind with clear conceptions of things and their relations. In the case of elementary arithmetic the things we first deal with are numbers. It follows that a clear conception of numbers and their relations is the end toward which our teaching should be directed. I think every teacher who has carefully studied the mind of the apparently dull pupil will agree that the real difficulty is to give him an insight into the nature of the problem he is to solve. He may be able to repeat the words; but you find that these words do not make a sufficiently definite impression on his mind. Clear and accurate conceptions of the relations of number are therefore to be generated.

To show what we mean by clear conceptions of number, we must stray into the field of psychology. We may conceive of the brain of man as a microcosm, containing within its narrow limits all that the individual knows of any and every subject. There are two universes, the microcosm within us and the macrocosm without us. The success of the individual, not only in all the applications of science, but in every branch of endeavor, depends on the accuracy and completeness with which processes at play in the subject with which he is dealing are represented by corresponding processes in his own microcosm.

Admitting that everything known of external nature has its image in the mind of the man who knows it, I cannot but regard it as a defect in psychological nomenclature that there is no one general term used to express this mental image of an external object and nothing else. To take a familiar example, we all have an idea of the house in which we live. We can think of the building, of the arrangement of its rooms, when it is out of sight, as if we had a picture of it in our mind's eye. This picture is not a flat plan, but rather a model embodying the arrangement of all the rooms in the house. What is true of the house is true of all human knowledge and of its applications.

The engineer can in his mind erect bridges in which the actions of stress and strain shall correspond to those in the actual bridge; in the mind of the chemist, compounds react as in the laboratory; and so thru every branch of knowledge.

One moment may here be devoted to avoiding a possible stumbling-block. The question may be asked whether it is quite correct to speak of the mental images which I have described as if they were permanent existences in the mind, and whether it is not more correct to speak of them as something which the mind forms for itself when necessary, but which cease to exist when we do not think of them. I reply that my argument will be the same whether we take one of these views or the other. If I speak in accordance with the first view, it is because I find it more convenient to think and speak of such an idea as that of the house in which we live, or of a figure in geometry, as if it were a permanent existence in the mind, brought into use whenever we need it, rather than as something to be constructed *de novo* every time we have occasion to recall it. But if one prefers this latter view, he is quite free to adopt it. The main point is that, when we think clearly about any object, we have an image of it in the mind's eye.

From this point of view my main contention is that the first and great object in training the growing child in arithmetic is to store his mind with clear and accurate conceptions of numbers, magnitudes, and their mutual relations which he shall be able to apply with readiness in any actual case that may arise. That I have elaborated this point so fully is due to the fact that it should never be allowed to drop out of sight in our teaching. The latter must be arranged from the beginning with this one end in view. Granting this, the next question in order is that of method. Here psychology can supply us with a guiding rule. However abstract may be the ideas which we wish to plant, they must originate in sensible objects. But they must not stop there because, after all, generalization—conscious or unconscious—is to be aimed at from the beginning. Let me illustrate my meaning by taking the number 10 as an example. I think psychologists will agree that there is no such thing in the human mind as a conception of the number 10 otherwise than as a quality characterizing 10 distinct objects. A written or a verbal symbol may be used for the number, but this is not a conception of it. The point is that the word or symbol being pronounced or shown, the pupil should at once conceive of 10 objects as distinct from either 9 or 11; and should be able to handle that conception in all the ways in which it can be handled.

Here there is an obvious advantage in selecting such objects as have the least number of qualities to distract the attention from the fundamental idea of number. Hence I prefer that the counting should be made upon small dots, circles, or other objects with few qualities, rather than upon more interesting objects which are met with in everyday life. In this suggestion I may seem to run counter to views which are entertained by very high authorities in education. There is, I admit, a very strong argument in favor of the view that the principles of arithmetic are best mastered when the child is taught

to consider them as growing out of the problems that actually confront him in his daily walks. I fully agree that the practice thus suggested is one that should be carried out, but we must not depend wholly upon it. Perhaps I am a little old-fashioned, but I would not abandon the idea of applying the pupil's nose to the grindstone. I have no objection to the grindstone being interesting, and certainly do not wish to make it painful; but I want some drill in thinking of numbers and their relations as dissociated from the actual objects concerned. Just as rapidly as this power is attained in each and every branch, I am willing to see the interesting substituted for the instructive.

We now pass from this general view of the object, and method of obtaining it, to the discussion of details. As my views on some points are radical to the point of being revolutionary, I wish to borrow a suggestion from universal experience. We all know that the acquisition of a new language is one of the most difficult tasks which a youth has to undertake during the period of his school life. Our best colleges make a knowledge of French and German one of the requisites necessary to graduation. To one or both of these languages painful attention is devoted thruout a period of one or more years. In former times—to a great extent even today—several years of study are devoted to Latin, instruction in which is, in regular course, continued in the college or university. And yet it is exceptional to find a college graduate who can fluently read at sight a Latin author whose work he takes up for the first time; who can conduct an easy conversation in French, or can write in idiomatic German an account of his day's doings.

In contrast to this result is the fact that every child not a mental degenerate, during the first few years of life, learns to use a language with an ease and fluency which a course of school instruction never supplies. What is more curious yet, there is no striking difference among children in their faculty of acquiring their own tongue. At school we have dull pupils whom it seems a waste of energy to try to educate, and bright boys, who learn more in a month than dull boys do in a year, and learn it better. But no one ever heard of a child especially bright or dull in learning to speak. Differences there undoubtedly are, but they do not compare with those shown under our system of school instruction.

I consider this well-known fact to be instructive in showing that we have at least one branch of education which we find to be toilsome or difficult when the traditional method is followed, and yet so simple and easy by other methods that no special ability is required in the teacher, and no mental strain suffered by the learner. The question I submit to your consideration is: If this is true of one branch of education, may it not be true of other branches, and especially arithemetic? I shall briefly mention the lessons which it seems to me we may gather from this fact.

The idea of arranging subjects in order, and completing one before passing to another, is plausible; but experience shows that it has its limitations. The great principle which the experience alluded to especially enforces is

the educational value of frequent reiteration of very short and easy lessons. This is one of the main features of the system I am trying to develop.

Now, as my object is a purely practical one, it is necessary to have some idea, however brief, of the method by which the purpose in view can be most readily attained. The system I advocate may be called *visible arithmetic*. Taking up subjects much in the order of the traditional arithmetic, the first would be numeration. Visible numeration consists in counting and arranging objects in tens and in powers of ten. At the earliest age when simple arithmetic can be commenced, I should teach the child to count and arrange things in 10's; then to arrange real or imaginary 10's into 100's, and so on. In accordance with the general principle which I have laid down, I would begin with rows of 10 dots each, and teach the counting thru 10 such rows, making 100 in all. We could then imagine the results of laying successive 100's in flat layers on top of each other, thus getting the idea of multiples of 100 up to 1,000.

It would be psychologically interesting to see whether in this way we could plant in the mind what the psychologists call a number form in a more rational shape than it commonly takes. I suppose we all have vaguely in mind from infancy a certain arrangement in series of small numbers up, say, to 100. It would be interesting to know whether a more rational arrangement would be gained by this process; but this is not important for mathematical purposes.

Next would come the process of adding and subtracting grains of corn, or dots, or little o's made on the slate. Methods of doing this are so familiar that I need not dwell upon them. The practice of multiplication and division in this way does not seem to need much exposition. We can repeat a row of any number of dots as often as we please, and count the product. We can divide any number into groups of any smaller number, and find the quotient and remainder. All these exercises on the four rules of arithmetic need not take much time. My impression is that you will find, after a very little showing, that the child is able to perform the fundamental rules upon collections of grains of corn or dots, without devoting much or long-continued effort to the process.

The next step would be to extend the operations to continuous quantity as represented by lines and areas on paper or on the blackboard. The addition of lines consists in placing them, or lines equal to them, end to end, thus obtaining a line equal to their sum. Subtraction consists in cutting off from the longer line a length equal to the shorter one. Multiplication by a factor consists in adding together equal lines to a number represented by the factor. Division takes a twofold form. We may either divide a line into a given number of equal parts, thus obtaining a certain length as the quotient; or we may find how many times one line is contained in another, thus obtaining a pure number or ratio as the quotient.

Please understand that this system of visible arithmetic is not a substitute for ordinary arithmetic, but an auxiliary to it. Whether it is advisable to

master it before beginning regular work with figures, or to carry on the two simultaneously, only experience can tell.

However this may be, in teaching written arithmetic I would have the pupil make his own addition, subtraction, and multiplication tables by the aid of countable things. Taking groups of six things—dots or grains of corn —the pupil finds the successive products of six by different factors, and writes them down in order for himself. He thus knows exactly what the multiplication table means. On the subject of using it I shall presently have more to say. The treatment of fractions in a visible way by dividing lines up into parts is simply an extension of multiplication and division, and is too obvious to need development. I therefore pass on to a further extension of the method.

The next subject in order would be ratio and proportion. On my plan the pupil reaches the first conception of this subject thru the eye by drawing a pair of lines of unequal length, and then other pairs, shorter or longer, in the same ratio to each other. In this way the pupil will see the equality of ratios, independent of the special lengths of the lines. He can then be gradually exercised in forming for himself an idea of what a ratio means, or how equality of ratios is to be determined by multiplication or division. I would not have measurement with a rule applied, but only eye-estimates. This, I may remark, is the general system by which I think we should begin in all cases. The reason for it is that in making eye-estimates we depend more completely upon the eye-conception than when we measure; but, as soon as the conception is gained, we may proceed to measurement. Having got the idea of a proportion of lines, we next pass to areas, including the idea of the duplicate proportion and the geometric mean. All this can be done without using figures or numbers. When the conception is well implanted, then proceed to numbers.

In connection with proportion would come geometrical representation of all the quantities which enter into arithmetical problems. Take as an example questions in day's work in plowing a field. We draw a short vertica line to represent a man or his power. On this line as a base we draw a horizontal rectangle to represent the amount of land which the one man can plow in a day of ten hours. If we have several men, we add into one the lines representing them, and combine all the rectangles into one. Then we extend these rectangles to represent the days. To introduce the idea of compound proportion, we suppose the results of a day of eight hours by making a rectangle shorter in proportion. I consider any problem in compound proportion solved when, and only when, the pupil is able to represent it graphically on this system. I am sure this process would be more interesting than the use of figures.

The precise purpose of this course in visible arithmetic is so far from familiar that further enforcement of it may be necessary to its complete apprehension. It must be especially understood that exercises in formal reasoning do not enter into the plan. A power of visualization and of giving

a concrete embodiment to the abstract ideas is the fundamental point aimed at. If I should express the desire to have a pupil trained from the beginning in the mode of thought of the professional mathematician, I might meet the reply that this was expecting too much of the childish mind. Allow me, therefore, to put the requirement into a slightly different form. I wish the pupil trained from the beginning in the use of those helps to thought which the advanced mathematician finds necessary to his conception of the relations of quantities. If a mathematician has no clear conception of an abstract quantity, how can we expect a child to have it? The mathematician expresses quantities by geometrical forms and the movements of imaginary visible points. Let us, then, train the child to represent the simple quantities with which he deals by simple auxiliaries of the same kind, adapted to the state of his mind and to his special problems. What I wish him to use is not merely a tool, but a necessary help to thought. The visible arithmetic which I advocate bears the same relation to ordinary arithmetic that the geometric construction of complex variables does to the algebra of the mathematician.

Altho I have spoken of these graphic constructions as merely an auxiliary, I would, after denominate numbers are disposed of, be satisfied with the graphic representation of all solutions required. After this point I would require very little mathematical solution of problems, being satisfied when the pupil is able to construct a graphic representation of the solution. When he can draw proportional lines, explain discount by cutting off and adding fractions of a line to the line itself, and in general show that he can form a clear conception of the practical problems of arithmetic, I should consider that he knew enough about it, so far as the mere numbers are concerned. Everything beyond this should be treated by algebraic methods.

Thus far I have treated of only one main object of arithmetical teaching. But there is another purpose of a different kind, and that is facility in the use of numbers. The pupils must not only know the meaning of multiplication and division, and understand when each is required, but he must be able to cipher rapidly and correctly. My views of the best method of attaining this end are perhaps even more radical than those I have already set forth. I think it can best be gained by short and frequent daily practice in the routine operations of the four fundamental rules, quite apart from the solution of problems. I would have something analogous to a daily five-minute run in the open air. The reiteration of simple problems, after the pupil sees clearly how to conceive them, is a waste of time. But this is not so with exercises designed to secure facility. Leaving details to the teacher, I would outline some such plan as the following:

Let an entire class devote a few minutes every morning either to reading or repeating aloud in chorus the addition, subtraction, or multiplication tables, until it is ascertained that the large majority of the class has them well by heart. I should not make it a point to have them repeat the tables from

memory alone, because I think the result is equally well attained by simply reading aloud. Another exercise would be that of adding columns of figures, following the method of the bank clerk or of the astronomical computer. It would facilitate this to have the exercise printed on sheets beforehand. Twelve lines of figures would be a good number. The earlier exercises may begin with three in a line; when these are easily done, add a column of thousands, then the tens of thousands, and so on. Do the same thing with exercises in multiplication and division.

These may seem rather dull exercises, but we can easily add an element of interest by choosing some condiment of which a very little will suffice to flavor an otherwise long and tedious course. The mere act of repeating in chorus will give interest to the exercises. In addition an element of interest will be given by noting from day to day the gradually diminishing time in which each pupil can complete his exercise and prove its correctness.

Thus far I have spoken only of methods of teaching. But I believe that, if the system which I advocate is intelligently pursued, it will be found practicable to curtail greatly the time spent in simple arithmetic, and thus rearrange the curriculum with the view of disposing of the subject of arithmetic, and passing on to algebraic and geometric methods, at a much earlier age than at present. In this connection attention may be invited to the report of the Committee of Ten, made in 1892, in which important changes in this direction were proposed. It must be admitted that in making such changes we shall be running counter to the ideas of the general public. When it is proposed to omit commercial and so-called advanced arithmetic from the school course, the reply is likely to be that we are considering only the requirements of pupils preparing for a college course; and that business and commercial arithmetic is a prime necessity with the masses. There being in our country no body of men more influential than that here assembled in wisely directing public opinion on this subject, I beg leave to point out the fallacy in this plausible view. The experience of directors in our great enterprises shows that the best business mathematician is not the one who has taken a course in commercial arithmetic, but who has the best understanding of numbers and quantity in general, obtained by the more advanced course of a mathematical character. A problem of practical business is best taken up by one who understands it. On the purely practical side, that understanding can be better gained in one day by actual experience than by any amount of arithmetic in a course subject to all the drawbacks of being treated as an abstraction.

I once saw an interesting example of this. It was in connection with a building association on an old-fashioned plan, which, I fear, has gone out of vogue. It was a mutual-benefit association in which accumulating results of monthly payments thru a term of years were to be equitably divided month by month among the members desiring advances. The mathematical principles involved, if investigated in detail, were so complex that only a professed

mathematician would be able to construct or apprehend their theory. Yet, when the problem was faced as an actual one, the whole process was gone thru with by everyday business men and laborers without the slightest difficulty. Not one of these could have explained the process to a learner, but he went thru each step correctly when the concrete problem was before him.

We should also try to dispel the current notion that the use of algebraic symbols belongs to a more advanced stage of study than arithmetic. We have advanced a little in the right direction since the time when the signs + and − were considered as belonging only to algebra, and therefore were not used in arithmetic. If my contentions are well grounded, the application of algebraic methods may be commenced as an auxiliary to arithmetic at a much earlier stage in the course than at present. In connection with the graphic construction of problems which I have suggested may come their solution in the form of an algebraic expression. If this seems too much to expect from the young mind, I think that impression will disappear on closely looking into the case. Let us grapple with the subject by taking it up as it really is. What will 13 pounds of tea cost at 55 cents a pound? Before the arithmetical solution can be begun, the pupil must understand that the cost is equal to the product of 55 cents into 13. It follows that, if he sees this, he can write on his slate as the answer 13×55. If a given sum of money is to be equally divided among 11 people, what will be the share of each? The answer is to be found by dividing by 11. If the pupil knows this, he can write a fraction, with the sum to be divided as the numerator and 11 as the denominator, more easily than he can perform the division. It follows that by the combination of the two problems he can express the result of dividing the price of the tea among 11 persons. The same thing holds true in all the problems of arithmetic, after the first four rules are disposed of. Not only will no greater difficulty be encountered in expressing the solution in this way than in performing it, but, since the idea to be expressed must be in the mind before the arithmetical solution is commenced, it will be a help to express the result in what we call the algebraic form.

We shall also find that the use of algebraic symbols of quantity is much simpler than is commonly supposed. If we have four x's, it is simpler to call their sum $4x$ than to call it x multiplied by 4. This suggests the idea, which I think is correct, that it is simpler and more natural to consider the figures 6 and 7 together to mean 6 multiplied by 7 than to have it mean, as we actually do, sixty-seven, which latter means 6 multiplied by 10 plus 7. Granting this, the expression of simple arithmetical problems in the form of equations will be easy, and I should suppose more interesting and more improving than requiring the pupil to work at the solution without using algebraic processes. It goes without saying that this use of algebraic methods in elementary problems does not imply the manipulation of algebraic expressions, including their factoring and division, which forms so prominent a feature of the usual elementary course in algebra.

Having suggested all these innovations, allow me to sum up in briefest compass the practical conclusions which I draw from a survey of the field.

I. I do not propose that we shall train a pupil in abstract mathematical reasoning until he reaches the stage where pure geometry can be advantageously taken up. But, from the very beginning, he should be trained in the faculty of mental insight. This can be done by problems like this, to be answered by thought without making a drawing. Of three houses, A, B, and C, B is 100 meters north of A, and C is 100 meters west of B. What is the direction of C from A, and about what would you suppose its distance to be?

II. I regard time spent in the schoolroom poring over problems and trying, perhaps vainly, to see how they are solved, as time wasted. Much waste in this way is indeed unavoidable; but our policy should be to reduce it to a minimum by explaining the problem whenever the pupil does not readily see into it for himself.

III. Of course, we should train the mind in seeing how to attack a problem. The objection may be made that whenever we help the pupil in this respect, we diminish his power of helping himself. I admit this to a certain extent; but my solution is that we should devise such problems that the course of thought they require can be seen without spending time in vain efforts. Please let me cite once more the analogy to outdoor exercise. We should all agree that, if we coupled the exercise of taking an outdoor run with the requirement of finding out at every few steps what path was to be followed, and put an end to the exercise if this right path could not be found, it would materially detract from the good of the exercise. Let us, then, in our exercises try to promote facility of calculation by exercising the pupil in purely straight-ahead work, without requiring him to stop and think what is to be done next.

IV. I have found in my own experience that words are as well and more easily memorized by repeated reading than by the same amount of repetition from memory. If this principle is correct, then we never lose anything by having the multiplication table before the pupil every time he repeats it, so that he shall read instead of memorizing it. I do not present this view as a demonstrated fact, but as one well worthy of being tested.

V. The plausible system of learning one thing thoroly before proceeding to another, and taking things up in their logical order, should be abandoned. Let us train the pupil as rapidly as is advantageous in the higher forms of thought, and never be afraid of his having a little smattering of advance subjects before they are reached in the regular course. Let us remember that thoroness of understanding is a slow growth, in which unconscious cerebration plays an important part, and leave it to be slowly acquired. A teacher aiming at thoroness might have kept Cayley or Sylvester working half his life in problems of advanced arithmetic without reaching the standard of thoroness. Let us rather promote the development of higher methods in the earlier

stages by introducing algebraic operations immediately after the four fundamental rules.

VI. Separate the actual exercises for acquiring facility in arithmetical operations from the solving of arithmetical problems. If I am right, it will be more conducive to progress to be satisfied with the graphic representations of problems, without the arithmetical operations of solution, than by actually going over the solution itself.

VII. If I am not straying too wide from my theme, I may devote one moment to the extension of the ideas I have advocated to the mensurational side of geometry and physics. As a part of the arithmetical course let us teach geometrical conceptions, the aim being a correct apprehension of lines, lengths, angles, areas, and volumes, as they actually exist in the objects around us, and are to be conceived in thought when these objects are out of sight. Valuable exercises in this repect will be endeavors to estimate a result in advance of calculating it. If a freight car is the subject of measurement, either in thought or by a picture, let the pupils form the best judgment they can as to the number of cubic meters or the tons of water the car will hold, before making the computation. Practice in estimating length and angles by the eye, and, in fact, in estimating magnitudes generally, should be a part of the elementary course.

I conclude with some thoughts on what is, after all, the great question involved. What are we to expect from the introduction of such a system as I have outlined, and how far shall it be carried? On ground which is, so far as my knowledge extends, as new as this, it would be hazardous to reach a decided conclusion in advance of trial. Here again the difficulty arises that a really decisive trial must be guided by clear apprehension of the purpose in view, which may essentially differ from that with which arithmetic is generally taught. Suitable exercises must be constructed; and this cannot be done until their purpose is fully seen. If I should express the hope that, thru the proposed system, the average boy of ten might be as well qualified to begin algebra as he is at the standard age of, I believe, thirteen or fourteen, I should not be interpreted as meaning that the mathematical faculty would be as well developed in one case as in the other. As I have already pointed out, development of the mind is a slow growth. The expectation would therefore not merely be an acceleration of the mental growth, but a development of the faculty of using powers which may be awakened at an age earlier than is commonly supposed. I may make this clear by referring to the fact, already pointed out, that a language is so easily and rapidly acquired by the natural process, when the acquisition would be slow and difficult by the process of teaching. If we could imagine a child ten years old who had been taught to speak only by rule and grammar, learning first nouns and then verbs, and compare him with one seven years old who was without theoretical instruction, but had learned to talk in the usual way, we might perhaps find that the older boy was better developed, had a much better theoretical

understanding of words and their meaning than the younger would have. But the younger would be far ahead in the facility with which he could use language, and apply what he knew in promoting his further intellectual advancement. Something like this I should expect from instruction and practice in visible and graphic arithmetic.

Of course, it should always be understood that the process must begin by being a tentative one, applied step by step. I therefore earnestly hope that some teacher will prepare, and some publisher be willing to bring out, a series of exercises of the kind I have described, to be tried on a small scale at first, and expanded as far as found successful in results. I certainly cannot conceive that the time spent in a few such trials would prove to be thrown away, even if the results did not come up to expectation.

This is my first and, perhaps, my last appearance before a body of eminent educators. While I fear that the possibilities I see before me may seem to be the ideas of an enthusiast, I trust that careful thought and experience will lessen the impression. I therefore make bold to say that it seems to me quite within the power of education to make as great a revolution in the intellectual powers of the masses of our population as science has made in the powers of the few thinkers who pursue it. The scientific investigator has been aptly described as a new species of the human race; a species so rare that it might well be considered an abnormal one. This species made its first appearance only four centuries ago, yet, it has revolutionized the conditions which surround humanity. I think it is possible that a similar revolution may be brought about in the intellectual power of the masses to judge of and grapple with the great social questions that confront them. I see in imagination a great nation the millions of whose citizens shall each have clear conceptions of the nature and causes of the natural phenomena presented to him at every turn; such an application of the forces which move both himself and his fellow-citizens that no unwise law can be enacted; such understanding of financial problems that the public of which he is a part shall be quite secure against becoming the victim of rapacity; and such training of the reasoning faculty that the masses shall never be moved to action except by sound reasoning, the force of which they shall be able correctly to judge. This end is not to be attained without many trials, and perhaps many failures in experiment. But every trial, whether a failure or a success, must be intelligently discussed. In all our discussions the end aimed at must be kept constantly in view. We do not propose to form a nation every citizen of which shall be a learned man, or even a well-read man; but it is necessary that every citizen shall become a careful and correct observer of all that he sees in his daily life, and so good a reasoner, that, however unable he may be to trace out the more difficult problems of life, he shall at least be able to analyze his own modes of reasoning, and thus be secure against the acceptance of fallacious conclusions. This end will never be gained so long as we regard correct observation and correct reasoning as subjects for the college and university alone, to be taken up at

stated times in a course of education. I therefore hope that the thoughts I have ventured to submit to your courteous consideration will not be applied to mathematical development alone, but to the mental training of the masses in an enlarged sphere of intellectual activity.

DISCUSSION

ROBERT J. ALEY, professor of mathematics, University of Indiana, Bloomington, Ind.—The address of Professor Newcomb is so good that it is unnecessary to praise it, and it touches the vital points so deeply that it seems almost presumptuous to undertake to discuss it.

One of the points made emphatic by Dr. Newcomb is the necessity of frequent repetition in a variety of ways of the things of fundamental importance in the subject taught. I urge this in justification of my own repetition of a few things which I regard as of great value.

It is a trite, but true, saying that to teach any subject well, one must fully understand its nature. Arithmetic, like most other subjects, is dual in character. There is a *pure* arithmetic and an *applied* arithmetic; a *theoretical* arithmetic and a *practical* arithmetic. A very common mistake is the attempt to master the practical without an adequate understanding of the theoretical. In this intensely practical age many people have been misled. Schools almost without number flaunt their advertisements in our faces, promising to prepare men and women for the highly paid practical positions in life in from ten to twenty weeks. An occasional millionaire goes into print and tells the worshiping public that time spent in studying the foundations of things is worse than lost. What is needed is a little study in the practical affairs of life. Our millionaire friend doubts the need of much school time devoted even to practical affairs. His advice is: "Get into the thick of the fight as early as possible." He points to himself with much pride, as the man who has *learned to do by doing*.

It surely requires but little argument to convince thinking people that the best practice the world knows always rests upon a sane theoretical basis.

The great bridge that spans the river out yonder was a theoretical bridge, a pure structure if you please, with the strain and stress computed for every part of it, long before it stood there a concrete embodiment in stone and steel and cement. It stands there today a monument of strength and utility, because it first stood a completed theoretical structure within the brain of the engineer who planned it. The attempt to build the practical bridge independent of theoretical considerations has usually resulted in disaster.

The technical school, that school that is supposed to be intensely practical, is everywhere increasing the amount of time devoted to theory. It is doing this because it has found in its own experience that practice alone does not prepare one to meet the varying conditions of life. The engineer whose sole preparation for bridge building has been the construction of a bridge crossing a stream at right angles, and of another bridge crossing at an angle of 30°, is generally powerless to construct a bridge which must cross at an angle of $23\frac{1}{2}°$, or on a curve. But the engineer whose preparation has been very largely a study of the general principles of bridge-building is able to meet all sorts of conditions, and to build structures involving new or improved principles.

In the normal schools of a generation ago much more time was given to practice than is the case today. Experience has taught the normal school that practice, to be fruitful, must be intelligent, and that it can be intelligent only by resting upon sane theory. As a result, much time is now given to the study of the principles of general and special method.

"Arithmetic is the science of numbers and the art of computing by them." No better definition has been made. It emphasizes the pure or theoretical nature of the subject. When this science is taken out into the affairs of life and made to answer questions in experience, it becomes applied or practical arithmetic. Pure arithmetic might exist in all its completeness without ever being applied to a single practical purpose. Practical arithmetic could not exist for a moment without the principles of the pure science. Pure arithmetic is the tool that does much of the quantitative work of the world. For this work to be done well, it is necessary that the tool be thoroly mastered.

The most fundamental thing in arithmetic is number, for it is in number that the science itself is found. The number-idea is universal. The organization of number-ideas into a system by means of scientific grouping is also universal. All people, however meager their number-notions, have arranged these ideas scientifically about some elementary group. In most cases that group has been *ten*. Thoro acquaintance with the number system can be obtained in but one way—by counting.

Counting is, therefore, the most fundamentally important thing for the beginner in arithmetic. Counting at first is necessarily concrete; that is, counting is a form of quantitating material things. Perhaps at a very early stage of counting it may be advisable to have the objects counted essentially alike; but experience teaches that this necessity, if it exists at all, is very temporary. The child soon feels that number is a quality apart from size, shape, color, or any other physical property. From this, the step to abstract counting is very short. Indeed, but few of us can remember back to the time when objects were necessary in our counting.

There is something in the rhythm and swing of counting that is especially pleasing to the child's mind. It is a rare child, indeed, that does not enjoy it.

It is through counting that the fundamental facts of numbers are fixed in the mind. We know that 37 is more than 34, not by visualizing the two numbers, but because in our counting 37 comes after 34. All the basal facts of the fundamental operations in arithmetic are established by counting. The commutative, associative, and distributive laws, as well as the tables of the *four rules*, are all established by this means.

Since counting is of such great importance, since it delights and interests the child, and since it requires but little time and no apparatus, it should certainly take a large place in the number work of the first three or four years.

This counting should be by 1's, 2's, 3's, 4's, 5's, 6's, 7's, 8's, 9's, and 10's, both forward and backward, and involve every possible order. Such counting insures a complete mastery of all the addition and subtraction tables the world knows. It also insures the fixing in the mind of all the multiplication-table products.

Counting is not the only number exercise for the elementary school. It is an important one, but with it there should go the formal development of the *four rules*. Of course, much of this must necessarily be enforced by application to concrete things within the familiar experience of the child.

The development of the processes of addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division, and their extension into the special fields of factors, fractions, multiples, powers, and single roots, cover the ordinary field of pure arithmetic.

This development should be thoro enough to establish clearly the principles of the various operations and the interrelations between them. The inverse relations between addition and subtraction, and multiplication and division, are so simple that children of the second and third grades can understand and appreciate them. These relations are capable of clear and interesting concrete illustrations, and also lend themselves to easy graphical representation. They should be taught so thoroly that their simple application would give no trouble whatever.

Accuracy and reasonable speed are two most desirable ends in elementary arithmetic. Arithmetic lends itself more readily to the training in accuracy than any other common-

school subject. In arithmetical calculations the results are right or wrong. The calculator himself, without much trouble, can usually determine the accuracy of his results. In no other subject can he do this with the same facility as in arithmetic.

Many pupils leave our schools without any just appreciation of the value of accuracy, and without ever getting out of the spelling stage of calculation. Both of these conditions are deplorable, easily explained, and curable. Arithmetic as a tool is almost useless unless it has an edge keen enough to do its work with considerable speed and absolute accuracy. The lack of speed is due to inadequate training in counting, and to insufficient drill upon the simple combinations that make the tables of the *four rules*. Another thing contributing to slow work is the very common practice of having pupils deal with concrete problems, involving complex reasoning, before they understand the pure arithmetic. Speed is attained by dealing with things so simple that practically all the attention can be given to the speed itself.

The woeful lack of accuracy is due wholly to the attitude of the teachers. Teachers permit and sometimes encourage inaccuracy. If the process of solution is right, the pupil is praised, even tho his answer may be utterly and absurdly wrong. Until a few years ago the State Board of Education in Indiana instructed the examiners of applicants for license to teach, to mark the papers in arithmetic upon the basis of one-half for process and one-half for answer. For the past half-dozen years the instructions have been to mark the arithmetic papers by the absolute standard of accuracy. The first plan developed slovenly habits in the teachers, and gave us a generation of graduates from our common schools that could not be trusted to add a grocery bill. The second plan convinced the teachers of the state that the habit of accuracy is an asset worth having. Their only chance of getting even was to pass the absolute standard on to their pupils. They have done this. The result is that the pupils today in Indiana have an appreciation of the value and desirability of accuracy not dreamed of by their predecessors of ten years ago. Pupils soon form the habit of accuracy when they find that inaccurate results are uniformly marked zero.

Accuracy, speed, and understanding of the principles of pure arithmetic are best attained by centering attention upon these things, rather than by attempting to accomplish them thru complicated applications to concrete affairs. In multiplication by 2, after the table has been learned, more desirable results in speed, accuracy, and understanding are obtained by multiplying large numbers by 2 than by often repeated little multiplications. The multiplication of a number of twenty figures by 2 has all the merits found in the multiplication of twenty single digits by 2, plus the chance for speed, the drill in carrying, and the enormous impetus given to the child in the idea that he is doing something big. The purpose of this work is to learn to multiply, and with it to attain to speed and accuracy. The same is true of work with large numbers in the other operations.

Speed, accuracy, and understanding are all greatly helped by the early teaching of contracted methods and short-cuts. Many persons think that the immature mind is unable to grasp short, direct methods. Nothing is farther from the truth. No one more readily grasps, or more highly appreciates, masterly ways of doing things than a child. Much of the arithmetic-teaching of today puts a premium on the long-drawn-out way of doing things. In many schools the solution is best which covers the greatest number of square feet of blackboard or square inches of notebook. This is all wrong. The teaching should face about and develop mental alertness that will go to the heart of things and get results in the most direct way possible.

I have tried to emphasize two of the many important points made by Dr. Newcomb.

1. The necessity of a clearer understanding of the principles of pure arithmetic. This may be attained by giving more attention to the relations of number thru counting and thru a deeper study of the relations in the *four rules*.

2. The desirability of better results in speed and accuracy. These may be attained by much drill, by the use of direct methods, and by the teacher maintaining an absolute standard of accuracy.

SUGGESTIONS FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF THE STUDY PERIOD

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Last spring I took charge of a fifth-year class of twenty children in history and geography, with the object of investigating and, if possible, improving their method of study. After spending perhaps sixty minutes with them, I assigned one day a paragraph of map questions which they were to dispose of in class, *without help*. I was to do nothing more than to call upon someone now and then to "go on," or to "do what ought to be done next."

A girl read the first question: "Here is a relief map of the continent on which we live. What great highland do you find in the west? In the east?" Then she stood silent, staring at the book. She might have inquired the meaning of "relief;" or have turned to the relief map opposite—which was small; or to the better map two pages further over; or to the wall map hanging, rolled up, in front of the class. But, altho she was not embarrassed, she did nothing. She was waiting to be directed just what to do, and she waited until aid arrived from me.

In response to the next question, "In what direction does each (highland) extend?" the two great highlands, the Rockies and the Appalachians, were described as parallel; and the pupil was passing to the next question without objections from any source. Again I had to interfere.

"Which is the broader and higher?" was the third question. A boy stepped to the wall map and pointed out the Rockies. But, as no one asked why they were supposed to be broader and higher, I suggested that question myself. Someone gave the correct reason for considering them the broader. But, by that time, the entire class had forgotten that there was a second part to the question, and were passing on. I then reminded them of the omitted part.

The fourth question called for the location of the lowest land between these two highlands. Four or five stepped to the board in succession, showing wide disagreement. Yet no one asked anyone why, or proposed any way of settling the dispute, or even evinced any responsibility for finding one. They would have taken the next question, had I not objected.

"Trace the Mississippi River," was the fifth question. Only about one-half of it was pointed out—i. e., from Cairo southward. But no one entered complaint, and the next question was read before I requested more accurate work.

The girl who read the next direction—i. e., "Name some of its largest

tributaries"—stood silent. The word "tributaries" was probably new; but she apparently lacked the force to request help. As nearly as I could judge, she was waiting for me to ask her if she didn't need to ask someone for the definition. So I complied, and the definition was given.

Then all failed, for a time, to answer the original question, apparently because they could not break it into its two parts, first tracing the principal tributaries on the map, then finding the names attached to them.

These responses are representative of my earlier experience with these ten-to-twelve-year-old children. In spite of the fact that they were not frightened, and plainly understood that they were to go anywhere in the room, and do or say anything that was necessary, frequently someone stood ten to fifteen feet from the wall map, straining his eyes to read it, until invited to step forward. And even after answering the single question that was assigned to each during a portion of the time, they often remained standing at their seats, or holding a pointer before the map until directed to sit. They seemed to be wanting in energy to move about freely, to determine when answers were correct and complete, and even to lay aside the pointer and sit down, without assistance.

Yet they were normal children, were up to grade, and had even enjoyed rare school advantages. Nine out of the twenty had attended this school—the Practice Department of Teachers College—from the beginning, and every one of the five teachers that they had had, had been a graduate of a state normal school or of a college, or both, and had been especially trained for teaching. How, then, can their failure to master such a simple lesson as map questions be explained?

The explanation, I think, is found in the peculiar difficulties of studying alone; for I was almost requiring them to get their lesson without the aid of a teacher. Let us consider those difficulties.

When a pupil studies a lesson with a teacher, it is a question of how much two persons can accomplish together, the one being immature, and only under favorable circumstances fully willing to receive and be guided; while the other is much better informed in general, more or less versed in the principles of presentation, and more or less skilled in their application.

In the mastery of text together, the teacher asks questions, pushes the pupil against difficulties, points out crucial thoughts, calls a halt here and there for review and drill, furnishes motive by praising or reprimanding or pummeling, as the case requires, and not seldom grows red in the face from exertion.

Likewise, in the case of developing instruction, the teacher chooses the general topic, breaks it into parts, and then concentrates her ability on her questions, endeavoring to have them short, simple, and attractive enough to make sure bait. And if she is very skillful, her predigested morsels of knowledge may be swallowed and assimilated without pain or conscious effort.

In both cases the teacher is the acknowledged leader. It is she who takes the initiative in determining how the lesson shall be attacked; who exercises resourcefulness in meeting unexpected obstacles; who assumes responsibility for deciding what the crucial questions are, and when the answers are right and complete, and who supplies the energy that makes things go. If she is accounted a good teacher, she is fully as active as her pupils, and probably grows tired first; she is the one who does the work.

Now, eliminate the teacher, and let the pupil attempt to get his lesson alone. It is no longer a question of how much two persons can accomplish together, but how much the weaker of the two can and will do alone.

The work to be accomplished is the same, however, as before—i. e., the assimilation of the topic by the pupil. The means, then, must be substantially the same—i. e., a careful division of the subject into parts, and the putting and answering of questions touching the meaning, relative values, organization, and bearing on life. Therefore, what the two accomplished before—with the more capable one working the harder and doing the greater part—must now be performed by the weaker one alone. He must now duplicate the teacher's task by teaching himself. How different the two situations!

Here is the explanation of the failure of the class mentioned, in spite of the fact that they were fairly endowed and responsive children, and this was their fifth year of superior instruction. For nearly five years they had been establishing the habit of waiting to be told when to step to the board, when to lay aside the pointer, what questions to consider, when an answer was wrong, when something had been overlooked or forgotten, and when they were thru with a task. They were strong as followers, as would quickly have been proved if I had been willing to play the customary part of leader. But they were untrained for such leadership of themselves as is necessary in study, because they had not been learning to take the initiative, carry responsibility, exercise resourcefulness, and find motive for effort, by having someone else perform these duties for them. Indeed, such help from a teacher as is customary undermines self-reliance and unfits for independent study, altho it may and often does result in a good fund of knowledge.

This class, I think, is typical of others. The first change, therefore, for the improvement of study periods must be effected within the recitation itself. That period must accustom children to taking the initiative in the mastery of thought. Outside of school—as in games and conversation—they do this constantly, and always have done it; it is in the school, the special institution for education, where it is wanting. When instructing a fourth-year class in literature one day, I suddenly inquired: "Do you ever stop to talk over what you read?" "No," replied several. "Yes," said a few, " sometimes we do." "All right," said I to the latter. "Let us stop here and talk a few minutes. Eddie, what have you to say?" "O, we don't talk; the teacher does the

talking," remarked Eddie, with a most nonchalant air. How typical of the school! And how lamentable!

To secure this initiative from children, radical reform in the conduct of recitations is necessary in two respects. First, there must be an ability on the part of teachers to keep still more of the time. The teacher is too prominent in the class. And, strange to say, in development work—which seems to be regarded as our highest type of instruction—she is most prominent. One great object of a good teacher should be to show children how to get along without her; and the longer she keeps a class, the less talking and other work she should do, because under her guidance they have learned to do it themselves. How otherwise can they be improving in power to study alone? Second, initiative on the part of the pupils in the mastery of lessons must take the place of knowledge of subject-matter as the primary object of many recitations. It is well enough to recite to a teacher a portion of the time, in order to prove one's possession of facts. But reciting does not usually reveal one's way of getting the facts; it merely tests results. And it is partly because so much time has been occupied in reciting that so little attention has been given to children's method of study. Many recitations—possibly most of them in the elementary school—should be spent by the children in mastering lessons in the teacher's presence, with the aid of her suggestions—not primarily for increase in knowledge, but for increase in intelligence and independence in study. This change of aim might make it advisable to call the periods in general "study periods," rather than "recitation periods"—there is so much that is reprehensible in the latter name. Children would probably know as much in the end—but they would also have far better methods of working.

Now, what are the facts about method of study whose mastery demands so much time? Teachers may be willing to practice silence in class, and to accept initiative on the part of pupils as their primary aim; but until children are very clear in regard to the directions in which initiative is to be exercised, they are likely themselves to be provokingly silent. This problem, touching the principal factors in proper study, is one of the greatest that now confront the teacher.

Both children and college students generally recognize two main factors in study—i. e., memorizing and thinking. And which of these should come first is the first important question to be met. Custom says, "memorizing." "Fix the facts or thoughts in memory, then reflection upon them can follow at leisure," is the common thought. But there are always more duties in life than time allows us to perform, so that reflection is habitually postponed until it is omitted. In consequence, to the great majority of persons, studying signifies mainly the stultifying work of memorizing. Suppose, now, this order were inverted, and young people were taught to undertake the first thing whatever thinking was expected of them in each lesson. They would then at least make sure of the more interesting part. But, more than that, thinking thoughts thru, in the various ways required in good study, is the very

best method of memorizing them, and psychologists recommend this method even in the case of verbatim memoriter work. Conscious effort to memorize would then be largely or wholly unnecessary, because the memorizing would become a by-product of thinking instead of a substitute for it. Here is the first great fact to be taught to young people about how to study. And if it were applied, there would need to be less of dull drill in school; one reason for so much of it now is that there is so little thinking.

What kinds of thinking are to be expected is the next great question. The chief factors in reflection must be carefully taught. Let us very briefly suggest a few.

1. In the reproduction of stories by six-year-old children, teachers affect to make the response easy by mentioning definite points to tell about. Children in the second and third years of school easily detect the substance of scoldings received, of conversations, and of paragraphs in their readers, and they determine the substance of paragraphs for short compositions. In development work thruout the primary they are reasonably successful in comprehending the question under consideration, and in holding to the point as the discussion advances. Here there are the beginnings of the ability to group facts into points, or to think by points. This is one of the first requisites for the organization of knowledge, but the extent to which it is lacking in adults is suggested by the tendency of teachers to offer scattered or isolated facts in the studies, and to wander from the point in their conferences. This ability, then, needs to be highly valued and developed. Lessons should often be assigned, or at least recited, by points rather than by pages. Marginal headings should be prepared by children, and they should learn to put their fingers on the spots in the text where the treatment of a certain point begins and ends, thus determining the places where the thought turns, and where pauses might be suitable, for reflection. Also they should verify and improve the paragraphing of the text; should assume responsibility for detecting beginning wanderings of thought in discussion or in text; should receive practice in taking notes, by points, when the teacher reads or talks to them; and should learn so to group their ideas that they could easily number the points that they themselves make, in reciting or in writing.

2. Children somewhat easily detect the main points in a story; they often recognize trivial facts as such in development work; they are keen critics of the value of words in comparison with deeds in the conduct of their teachers and parents; and they are often distinguished for their good sense in their judgment of relative values, just as adults are. Here are the beginnings of a second mental ability of vital worth in study; and it is all the more important that it be developed, since the facts in the three R's and spelling are so nearly on a dead level, and the prevailing conception of thoroness so magnifies trifles, that the appreciation of relative worths is in peculiar danger of atrophy in the primary school.

Whole recitation periods might well be spent primarily in the cultivation

of this ability. To that end children might be encouraged to mark their texts, indicating the relative value of different passages by their system of markings. Reciting usually with their books open, in history or geography, as in literature, they should often be asked to begin with the largest thought in the entire lesson, no matter where it might be found; and, if disagreements are noted, the period might be spent in the attempts of various pupils to defend their estimates. They should practice putting large questions, as well as answering them, and should develop skill in selecting the details necessary to the support of a large thought thereby learning to slight insignificant facts. If they are not allowed to mark up their books, how are they to review them without loss of time? And if they do not learn to neglect much of what is in a text, how are they to learn that wise selection of facts which will allow them to make profitable use of reference-books, newspapers, and magazines?

3. Children have such vivid imaginations that they are capable of becoming frightened by their own pictures. When they become interested in a story, it is difficult, even in the kindergarten, to check their expression of suggested ideas; conversations among them are as natural as among adults; developing instruction is based on the assumption that their experiences are rich enough to allow contributions of thought, and fables, calling for interpretation, are especially written for them. Here, then, are the beginnings of a third ability of great importance in study—i. e., the power to supplement an author's thought. The best of authors fail to put most of their ideas into print. Or, as Ruskin declares, all literature—like the story of the Prodigal Son—appears practically in the form of parables, requiring much supplementing to be properly pictured and interpreted. The words in a minister's text in comparison with those in his sermon are perhaps as one to one hundred. The statements in any text should bear a somewhat similar ratio to the thoughts that they suggest in the reader's mind. Accordingly, much time should be occupied by children in school in visualizing in greater detail the scenes in geography, history, and other studies; the bearings of facts upon human life should often be traced out with care; and comparisons of many kinds should be instituted. To this end fact questions, testing mainly memory, are out of place; questions involving reflection should be common, if we desire young people to become reflective. And the initiative, it must be remembered. should come from the children. A very common remark from the teacher in the treatment of text might well be: "Do we need to stop here to talk over any matter?" The children should even learn to call a halt themselves, at fitting places, and to offer the supplemental thought without even a suggestion from the teacher. Thus they might be taught how to read books.

Want of time forbids my doing more than merely indicating a few other prominent factors in proper study, by means of questions.

Is it one's duty, in reading an author, to try to agree with him; or may one disagree, and thus set himself up as a judge? Even six-year-old children are allowed to praise fairy-tales that they like; have they the right of condemna-

tion also? I find many college students uncertain about this whole question.

Should a scholar aim at firmly fixed opinions? Or is it his duty to remain somewhat uncertain, and therefore flexible, in his views?

Again, how is a student to know when he properly knows a thing? Or is he expected to feel very uncertain until the examination returns are seen?

In mastering a lesson or reading a book, should one study primarily for the sake of understanding what is presented? Or primarily to meet the teacher's probable requirements? Or primarily for personal profit?

These are all questions of vital importance in study for all ages of students, And until they have been properly answered, and young people have been properly instructed in regard to them, home study will continue to be a bugbear. and complaints of teachers about pupils not knowing how to study will continue to be common. We have been on the right track in the past, when we have emphasized the need of careful directions in the assignment of lessons, so that children would know how to go to work. But we were ignorant of the magnitude of the difficulty involved. How to study is very different from how to teach, and even a broader question, I think. And we might as well expect to train persons to teach merely by giving them occasional suggestions about teaching, as to expect to train them to study by giving occasional suggestions about study. Therefore, my main proposition for improvement in study periods is that we begin to take the problem seriously, and go to work upon it. It involves more knowledge about how adults should study than is now easily attainable; it raises the question of the extent to which children can be expected to study; it favors radical reform in the conception of the class period —i. e., as a meeting time for the exchange and correction of ideas rather than as a time for reciting to a teacher; and it requires cultivation of initiative on the part of children to an extent that is now almost unknown.

MEANS OF IMPROVING THE EFFICIENCY OF THE GRAMMAR SCHOOL—ELIMINATIONS AND MODIFICATIONS IN THE COURSE OF STUDY

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The keynote of American public education is democracy. We proceed upon the theory that the school that is best is none too good for all. We have no special types of school for the different classes in the social order. Every child must pass thru the same educational evolution required of any child. Just how far the state should carry this system is as yet an unsettled question. That it should cover the periods of childhood and of youth is already assumed, and types of public schools, called primary and grammar and high schools, are everywhere accepted as part of the business of the state in education. These are evidences that this state support may yet include the college. Were it not for the fact that religion and private philanthropy have already entered upon

this higher education, doubtless the state would long since have taken this also under its support and supervision. It may yet do so, just as it has supplanted the private secondary school in the great centers of population.

No one questions the right of the state to provide an adequate system of education; for everywhere a complete system of elementary schools, in which is included that type of school called the grammar school, is now under state control and state support.

Child-labor laws in almost all the great states of the Union prohibit the employment of children under thirteen or fourteen years of age. Compulsory educational laws require attendance at school to the same period. But this period rightly figures the period of elementary education. It is thus seen that the theory of the state is that every child must attend the grammar school. Beyond this the state does not as yet assume to dictate to the home what education the child must receive.

It is significant, therefore, that the state expects and demands the presence of every child in the grammar school. It also virtually announces that this same grammar school is the highest type of universal education imposed by law upon the child. All secondary and higher education is optional. Grammar-school education is compulsory.

From the point of view of the state, then, it is fair to assume that the grammar school is unique, and, if for no other reason, should, perhaps under some more felicitous name, retain its integrity and individuality as such. Moreover, certain considerations arise from its unique character as thus defined.

In an illuminating address before this Association at its Atlanta meeting in 1904, Dr. Frank M. McMurry set up the criteria for testing the course of study in elementary and secondary schools. Before these standards he caused the detailed data of our curricula to pass. With wise discrimination he rejected the less worthful and retained the more essential elements of the materials with which to build the *real*—called content or knowledge in education. This work was so well done that no restatement of that phase of our problem is needed. Within the scope of that analysis fall the materials that should be used in the grammar school. I shall, therefore accept that statement as a satisfactory dictum relative to the materials of the grammar-school curriculum, and discuss only such additional means of improving the efficiency of the grammar school as seem significant.

Not all our ills are in the curriculum. Not all our reforms are to be achieved in recasting the quality or the amount of material to be used in the educational process. The course of study is not the only field of struggle upon which to win pedagogic triumphs. Education is not alone a process of informing the mind; it is a process of enriching the soul. It is more than filling the mind with useful facts, valuable as this may be; it is the cultivation of all the powers of the soul, the complete equipment of the individual for service. It thus includes, in addition to the informing of the mind, the forming of the mind. It has a culture aspect, as well as a knowledge aspect, and

it is quite conceivable that the educational process may be so directed by the teacher as to produce a minimum of culture with a maximum of knowledge. The reverse is also true. But the better teaching is that which lays emphasis upon the cultural, not the informational aspect of the teaching.

We cherish a fact as if it were a sacred thing. We neglect development of power as if it were an incidental thing. Even in the grammar school we are too much given to the worship of the things in the curriculum. We are intoxicated with the alluring wine of "education for practical life." We are not educated by the mere possession of facts. When these facts are secured at the cost of the physical ill-health or mental enervation or moral blight, we pay for the facts more than they are worth. There are thus three means of possible improvement in the efficiency of the grammar school: (1) increased concern for the physical well-being, (2) increased concern for the training of the powers of the mind; (3) increased culture of the moral qualities of the soul.

The physical well-being of the child in school is so important that it seems unnecessary to do more than refer to it. Good health is requisite to good living, to efficient service, and no school has the least justification for compelling a child to attend its sessions and providing no adequate care for his health.

The culture of the mental powers is of vastly more significance than the meager scraps of knowledge too frequently forced unrelatedly into memory. The function of the grammar school is to create in the pupil an appetite for more knowledge, not to fill him with masses of preselected data which some self-satisfied official has ordained to be the pupil's meat and drink. True, indeed, these facts of the curriculum do have value both for what they are and for what they may occasion. But the practical judgment of the school community will always prevent these from losing their place in the processes of educating the masses. We deplore the great loss of pupils in the grammar grades. We regret that so few of all that should and could enter the secondary school really do so. Is not the reason in part due to the sated appetite and the quenched thirst produced by wrong nutrition in the elementary school?

Of the need of the culture of the moral qualities, the translation of clear thought into efficient and sufficient action is confessedly the greatest aim of the school. Since "conduct is three-fourths of life," its achievement becomes the first office of the school. No school is efficient that fails to stimulate right conduct, set in the currents of the soul right habits, the issue of which is character. Not what one knows, but what one is, is the goal. To say it cannot be achieved is to confess the school a failure. To neglect its achievement is treason to the child and to the state. I do not mean to imply that these great issues are wholly neglected in our schools. I know they are not. But I am constrained to say that they should have vastly more conscious attention; that, in short, they should be viewed by the teacher, not as matters to be attained incidentally, but consciously and deliberately, with the same

care and concern that now is shown for the ordinary things of the course of study.

Perhaps in no one way may these ends be so economically and so wisely attained as thru such a reorganization of our procedure as will secure to the child less facts in the curriculum, and a vastly wider identification and relation of each new fact with all that has already found place in consciousness. Not more facts, but more relations for each fact, most surely promotes efficiency. This modification of the curriculum is everywhere needed.

We should always distinguish between clear knowing, which sees the thing and not some other thing in its stead, and distinct knowing, which sees the thing in all its relations to other things in the mind. Thus we rise from teaching that is content with perception, to teaching that carries the act of perception on to its fulfillment in the act of apperception. With a crowding of facts into consciousness there is left no time to relate these facts each to the other; and yet a perceived relation is usually a more essential element in learning than a perceived fact. A poor teacher may present facts to the mind; only a good teacher knows the more delicate and essential art of building relations in the mind.

Viewed, then, from its several aspects, the problem of efficiency seems to resolve itself into a problem of simplification. This simplification may be viewed from three aspects: (1) simplification by elimination; (2) simplification by enrichment of the materials of instruction; (3) simplification by enrichment of the teaching process.

These three methods of simplification are radically different. The first assumes that the materials of the curriculum in the grammar school are too great quantitatively to be mastered by the pupil. The second assumes that the amount is not too great, but that the materials are not wisely organized and that there is a consequent waste of effort, which may be corrected by a recasting of the data used in the grammar school. The third assumes that the materials of the curriculum, as to both quantity and quality, are not so much in need of reorganization as is the teacher of the grammar school.

With the first of these Dr. McMurry has dealt adequately. With the second much is being done. There are yet other needed reforms. The attempt to secure a closer articulation between grammar school and secondary school, by adding to the curriculum of the former some language element or mathematical element, which was until lately held to be peculiarly and exclusively the materials of secondary schools, has done some good. We have not yet learned the whole significance of this, especially in the sphere of languages. Experience has forced me to believe that practically thru the grammar school two languages can be learned in the time given to one, and that each language will be more thoroly mastered by reason of the other. Here at least one may predict gain of knowledge and of discipline without increase of effort by the pupil. It may be well to ask whether a more vital articulation would not result if in some way we could overcome the great

crisis in a child's life when he is jumped in a moment, in the twinkling of an eye, from instruction under one teacher in the grammar school to departmental teaching in the secondary school. And in overcoming this irrational procedure at the very age when the tension of compulsory attendance is removed, let us not forget that the welfare of the many in the grammar school is of more moment to the state than the welfare of the relative few in the secondary school.

The third method of securing efficiency—by enrichment of the teaching process—is comparatively the most significant. In the last analysis, the teacher is the course of study. No mechanism can be devised that will in any adequate way compensate for the absence of a thoroly trained and widely informed teacher. And this teacher must be more than a scholar. He must understand the whole round of youth's activities, and enter heartily and sympathetically into all that the pupil rightfully should know, do, and be. He must be a superb teacher, whose presence and process alike challenge the pupil to his best efforts, and whose systematic training in the principles and methods of teaching dispose him to discipline as well as to inform the expanding powers of the soul. Such a teacher is the best enrichment the school may hope for, the best enrichment it can command.

HOW CAN THE SUPERVISING INFLUENCE OF GRAMMAR-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS BE IMPROVED?

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The statement of my theme implies the feasibility of the organization of the agencies employed in public education into some unity of purpose, to the end that each of those agencies may have its individual efficiency increased, and that there may be a definite increase of the collective result. This possibility of the improvement of the agencies at work in the school is based upon a fundamental fact in human nature—namely, that there are large classes of people engaged in every vocation, in every province of human effort, who have not the training which enables them to transmute into valuable experience the life-occurrences in the midst of which they move and work; so there must be some means taken to develop in these people that alertness of mind which makes them sensitive to their surroundings, which brings to the forefront of their consciousness their entire past history and achievement, their complete set of mental possessions, so that these shall be the means of the interpretation of the circumstances in which they live and work. The entire situation is typified to my mind by an occurrence that took place some years ago. I am the owner of a little farm in the neighborhood of Indianapolis. In the early eighties, during two successive summers, I moved from Indianapolis to this farm, and drove back and forth to my teaching each

day. When on the farm I assisted somewhat during evenings and Saturdays in the work, and specifically I helped in both years in the planting of potatoes. An aged patriarch, living on the farm just across the road, seeing the young city farmer at work, came and climbed on the top rail of my fence, and discovered that I was planting potatoes in the light of the moon. He proceeded to show that potatoes so planted, in the light of the moon, would grow into foliage, but would not produce tubers; while those planted in the dark of the moon would produce large tubers and little foliage. I went ahead, however, and planted my potatoes in the light of the moon. I cultivated them carefully, and used paris green to save their ample foliage from the bugs. He planted his potatoes in the field just across the way in the dark of the moon; but he forgot to till them, and the bugs held riot on the few leaves that came above the ground. He did not even try to dig his potatoes, so poor was his crop; but when I had dug mine, I had more than I needed. I generously supplied his table with potatoes from my cellar. What surprised me was that the next spring, when the time came again to plant potatoes, that man, with the strength in him born from eating my potatoes which had been planted in the light of the moon, came across that same road, climbed that same fence, sat on the same top rail, and told me that same story; and said that during a long and useful life, devoted to piety, patriotism, and potatoes, he had never known his rule to fail. I give this as a sample of failure to learn from experience. We as teachers live daily in the midst of a set of facts which might become the inspiration of our lives in our chosen work, and from which we might learn how to correct our errors. In many cases, however, the effect is to deaden us to all helpful influences, so that each year of so-called experience makes us poorer teachers than before. Sometimes, when a candidate files with me the statement that he has had ten or fifteen years of experience, I say: "How sad! It almost precludes the possibility that you can grow into a good teacher, because the probability is that you have hardened yourself into habits that cannot be broken."

This whole theory of improving the teacher is based on our ability to get spiritual stimulus and professional help out of the ordinary occurrences of everyday life. The solution of the question, "How can the supervising influence of the grammar-school principals be improved?" depends upon three elements: the room-teacher, the building principal, and some supervising power that shall lead these two forces into effective co-operation. Some means must be found whereby the principal and the room-teacher can be made to co-operate in the direction of greater efficiency. It is the business of the superintendent to project the theory of this improvement and to assist in carrying it into execution. The very first thing that the superintendent must do in this connection is to lead the teacher himself or herself to desire to be a better teacher. All those outside or external inducements—such as the offer of promotion, the increase of salary, the choice of position—are each and all legitimate in their place. But none of them can take the place

of a desire to increase one's efficiency. I believe that it is just as necessary to teach the teacher to idealize the reals of her work as it is to ask her to attempt to realize the ideals of teaching. The greatest power that culture gives to a human being is the power to look an imperfect thing squarely in the face, and see with the mind's eye the perfect thing that should be in its place. Soon the interest of the teacher will center in the possibly perfect thing. The superintendent must begin by teaching the principals of the buildings how to deal with their teachers, and stimulate them to desire improvement in teaching for improvement's sake. The very first thought is that the principal and the teacher must work together in the schoolroom with the children. Of course, the principal should have an office for some phases of his work; but when he becomes chiefly an office-holder, his value as a supervisor is largely lost. The principal must go into the schoolroom, sharing responsibilities there, developing sympathies, measuring successes, detecting failures, and always eulogizing the best things found, criticising adversely as seldom as may be. The superintendent himself should often go with the principal, in this way criticising the work of the room. In this way must be developed a professional comradeship, for the improving of the efficiency of the schools thru the improving of the efficiency of the teacher; and this comradeship will grow eventually into a feeling of perfect confidence and sympathy, until, when principal and teacher meet to talk over the experiences of the day, there will be absolute freedom. It is impossible to develop the highest efficiency in a teaching force by cynical criticism. It must be done by stimulating the highest powers. There must be all the time developing in the mind of each teacher a growing ideal of what efficiency consists in, and all else must be subordinate to a desire for growth. The essence of the whole matter is developed in this comradeship in effort. A principal of a school building who cannot share the teaching work of the day with the room-teacher ought to fit himself for such supervision by practical teaching. Instead of having charge of some special subject or special grade, the principal should put himself into sympathy with all the teachers; until at last he shall be considered as a helper—one to whom the teacher can go for comfort in her struggles and help in her difficulties. Soon there will come a sense of growth, and that greatest reward that the teacher can have—namely, the feeling that all the agencies are working in harmony toward the increasing of the efficiency of all, and that all are working in harmony with the great Creator in the redemption of the world.

DISCUSSION

C. M. Jordan, superintendent of schools, Minneapolis, Minn.—I have been asked to speak particularly of the seventh and eighth grades, and I feel impelled to say that, in my judgment, neither paper has touched the vital point as to improving the efficiency of these grades. The papers have gone upon the assumption, altho it has not been boldly stated, that the purpose of the grammar school is to fit pupils for the high school. I con-

tend that this is only part of its purpose, and the smallest part, and that its real purpose is to fit the pupil for life.

It is a fact without question that a large percentage of the boys and girls in the high schools of this country are not getting enough out of the high-school course to pay for the time and money which it is costing them and their parents. The first thing to do, then, is to fit the seventh and eighth grades to the demands of those pupils, as well as to the demands of those who will go forward into the high school. I feel that it is our duty, in these higher grades, to make the pupils acquainted, as far as possible, with the demands of life. I would say to the boy of these grades: "You may go to school in the morning and study the regular subjects of the curriculum; and at two o'clock in the afternoon you may return, and we will give you a thoro course in manual training." The reply at once is that such a course would not fit a boy properly for the high school. My answer would be to make the kind of a high school that such a boy will fit. I do not understand that boys are made for the high schools, but that the high schools are made for the boys. I often ask myself if it is not possible that the more system we have, the less true education we are giving the children.

I am not extremely particular about the course of study. There is not a man within the sound of my voice who has a course of study in his schools which he would select for his own children to follow.

What I want is what Dr. Brumbaugh demanded. I want the teacher. Especially for the seventh- and eighth-grade teacher I would rather have the reformed sinner than the plaster-of-Paris saint. I want a woman who knows something of life; who knows something of boys and girls; who knows the conditions into which they are going; and who knows the temptations against which they should be warned. I care little whether the teacher is a man or a woman. The question of sex does not trouble me in this particular. But I want the teacher. And when I have the right teacher, I want her to stay with the boys and girls long enough so that she can impress upon them her personality. I have often thought that it would be a wise plan to arrange a system of rotation for teachers —a system by which the first grade teacher could retain her pupils for two years, and then put them into the hands of another teacher who would retain them for two years, and so on thru the grammar-school course. Under the present arrangement, in most graded schools, the teacher is with the children so short a time that she hardly makes their acquaintance. The objection to this is at once suggested by the question: "Suppose you were to have a poor teacher?" The answer to that objection is obvious. How long would the people tolerate a poor teacher, if they understood that she was to remain with the children for two years? Many teachers are retained in the public schools today whose equipment and success are not what they should be, because of the difficulty of dismissing them, and because the parents feel that the children will not suffer materially by being in their rooms one term.

Give the boys and girls something to do, so that they can see there is some relation between school and life. Get the teacher who is in sympathy with the children. And many of the difficulties that trouble us of the upper grades will disappear.

C. N. KENDALL, superintendent of schools, Indianapolis, Ind.—Pupils in the grammar schools, near the beginning of the adolescent period, are at an age when they require teachers of strong personality. Is it generally advisable to place such pupils under the charge of a young woman just out of the normal school and with no experience in teaching?

We need more men teachers, of course, but we are not likely to get the right sort of men in the grammar schools unless greater inducements are held out. Greater care in the transfer—I do not like to say promotion—of teachers in primary schools to positions in grammar schools will make better grammar schools. The truth is not generally recognized that an effective teacher for the higher grammar schools is not so readily found as an effective teacher for second, third, and fourth grades. The age of the grammar-school

pupil is such that it is imperative that he shall have a teacher who shall really be "captain of his soul," as Dr. Hall has put it. A great waste is going on in some sixth, seventh, and eighth grades because the teacher cannot command the situation. I am not referring to school discipline, for that has generally taken care of itself in the better school cities of the country; but I mean the teaching or training situation. We are likely, however, to have some unsatisfactory teachers in these grades so long as teachers' salaries remain where they were before the present era of high prices set in; so long, too, as we must await, not one Horace Mann, but a dozen Horace Manns, to go up and down certain parts of the country preaching with convincing eloquence that people in this time of overabounding prosperity can spend more money for really good schools than they are doing.

Under the present conditions, with some unsatisfactory teachers in the grammar schools, these schools should be systematically, courageously, and intelligently supervised. Supervision, to increase the efficiency of the school, should aim in the large to make better teachers. Every school, in a sense, should be a training-school. Every small school system is a real training-school for teachers, if it be capably superintended. Every school building in a large city school system is a training-school for teachers, if the man or woman in charge of it be an intelligent leader of teachers, with sound convictions about education and with ability to carry these convictions into practice in the operation of his school. Such a superintendent or principal earns his salary half a dozen times over. In such a school the fundamental truth in school administration is realized, that the growth of the pupil cannot go on apart from the growth of the teacher.

Supervision should include testing the skill or power of the pupils. How many pupils in the sixth year cannot read, judged by reasonable standards? Principals should know who such pupils are, and the reasons why they are deficient. These tests, while unscientific and crude, are valuable in revealing the deficiency of pupils and promoting efficiency. Some time we may have an accepted standard of what pupils may be expected to do and know at a given age or grade. Until then, each must in a measure establish his own standard, and each, however good his schools or proficient his pupils, may be open to the charge of failure to train in the so-called fundamental branches. Not the least useful result of the testing is the interest it should arouse in pupils. Every principal or superintendent with not more than fifteen hundred pupils should, thru his teachers or otherwise, know all those children who are abnormally bright or abnormally deficient.

The efficiency of the grammar school would be promoted by judicious eliminations from the course of study. Dr. McMurry pointed out two years ago at the Atlanta meeting what some of these eliminations might be. I can only add here that my experience has taught me that mere generalities to teachers about eliminations will not suffice. Many teachers require a bill of particulars.

There should be some substitutions as well as eliminations. The city grammar school has been somewhat tardy in responding to the needs of the times. Better civic government is widely recognized as one of these needs. What is the average grammar school doing to interest its pupils in city government by concrete examples of the way a city is governed or the way it ought to be governed? The application of science to domestic and industrial life is familiar to everybody. What is the grammar school doing to acquaint its pupils with some of the simple applications of science, to be found perhaps within a square of the school building?

Bearing in mind the manifest imperfections of the grammar schools and the high schools, the fact remains that these schools are a great effective force for righteousness and for the promotion of right ideals. Never so much need as now for the grammar school to hold up ideals of life by means of large reading of the best in literature; of history, foreign as well as our own; and also by means of instruction in art and in music.

A grammar school is not a good school in proportion to the number of facts it gives to its pupils. It certainly is not a good school unless it gives to its pupils power to get

facts intelligently and in a self-reliant way. As Dr. McMurry has pointed out, the informational ideal must give way to the ideal of power—power to use books, to study from books after the teacher has disappeared.

Under the stress of new subjects in the grammar schools, there must, first, be more intelligence on the part of teachers; second, elimination of subjects, much talked about, but not always practiced; third, increasing attention to teaching pupils how to study; fourth, a greater purpose to give pupils the power to use books.

ROUND TABLES

A. ROUND TABLE OF CITY SUPERINTENDENTS OF LARGER CITIES

TOPIC—INTERRELATION OF FUNCTIONS IN A CITY SCHOOL SYSTEM

INFLUENCE OF THE SUPERVISOR

ADA VAN STONE HARRIS, SUPERVISOR OF SCHOOLS, ROCHESTER, NEW YORK.

The term "supervisor" is misleading, as it is used to cover varied responsibilities. In some school systems the supervisor is in reality, an assistant superintendent—doing general supervisory work, and sharing in the executive functions of the superintendent. In other systems the work is that of a special and minute supervisor of the individual teacher—in reality an extension and reinforcement of the work of the school principal. It would conserve clearness of thought if this difference in functions were recognized in the title used. To those who are doing general supervisory work the title of assistant might be given; to those who are doing special supervisory work, the title of director

I shall have in mind in this discussion the general supervisor or assistant superintendent, who is responsible for the entire field of work for a given number of grades, or for all grades in co-operation with the superintendent, or for a given district.

The duties of a general supervisor are, from the educational side, identical with those of the superintendent, in a more limited sphere. The need in many cities, however, is to make the school system feel this. The teaching corps, the principal included, should be led to understand that the supervisor on visiting the school is an authority recognized as a representative of the superintendent; that when the supervisor or assistant superintendent speaks, it is as if the superintendent were speaking.

The relation of the supervisor to the superintendent should always be that of a co-worker, subordinate, but sharing equally all duties and responsibilities, failures and successes. A supervisor who cannot go into the schools in harmony with the spirit of the school policy, as laid down by the superintendent, has no moral right to retain the position.

Two of the absolutely necessary attributes of a supervisor in his relations to the superintendent are unqualified loyalty and candid frankness. There should be no hesitancy to express a conviction regarding the policy in vogue. He should at all times set before the superintendent his plans and methods of instruction, so that all instruction given or changes in plan may go to the teaching corps, first having received the approval of the superintendent.

It is the supervisor who gives aid and advice to the teachers whom the superintendent appoints. His duty is to make the teachers better, to aid in raising the educational standards. He is not to sit in judgment, or to act as a disciplinarian; but he must

be a sympathetic counselor who will guide the young teacher into right ways of teaching, and the older teachers, who do not understand the meaning of the course of study, to a wise and clear interpretation of the same. It is the supervisor who discovers and can point out to the superintendent sources of strength and weakness in the schools as a whole, who knows where questionable practices are existing which should be modified; and, if he is equal to the position he occupies, he should be able to offer suggestions which will rectify all these defects.

It should be the business of the supervisor, as of the superintendent, when visiting a school, to talk very candidly with the principal about the work of the school. He should state definitely what suggestions he has given to teachers, and point out where the weak points of the school are, as viewed from the standpoint of one who sees the system as a whole. If orders be necessary, or advice regarding the general policy of the school; if any new instruction of consequence is to be given; any new policy outlined, it should be made plain to the principal, and, if possible, the hearty co-operation of the principal should be secured. The supervisor should always recognize the principal as the head of his school, and by wise, tactful, and sympathetic counsel assure him that he is there to construct, to help him to build up a stronger school. By establishing a spirit of co-operation, lending a helping hand in every direction, the principal is led to feel that he is responsible for his school, and will be held so. He should also be held responsible for his attitude toward the supervisor. The individuality and personality of a school should not in any way be interfered with—so long as the best efforts are put forth by the teachers and principals, prompted by a spirit of loyalty and co-operation to the system as a whole.

One of the most vital problems which confront those in supervision is, how best to make the teachers with whom we are associated more efficient. Teachers may be made more efficient thru school visitation, teachers' meetings, institutes, study classes, and personal conferences. The measure of success attained in this work depends largely upon the tact and personal qualities of the supervisor. The function of the supervisor is not that of a police officer, nor of a detective to spy out weak teachers, nor even that of a critic; but primarily that of a helper and guide.

The supervisor who is required by a code of rules, adopted by the board and authorized by the superintendent, to go from school to school, and from class-room to class-room, and simply pass upon a teacher by the answering of a series of specific questions regarding the teaching power of each one, can never realize the best possibilities and opportunities of his position; he becomes a mere critic. He soon comes to be looked upon with suspicion by the teachers, and on his visits he is rarely, if ever, met with a cordial welcome.

The business of the supervisor is to help the teachers to teach, and to teach well; to make it easier for them; to guide them; and to stimulate them to higher ideals of efficiency by bringing to them the best possible helps in the way of suggestive outlines, bibliographies, and materials; by directing them to visit places where the most effective and efficient work is being done; and thus to inspire them to a greater joy and larger beauty in their chosen profession.

It is unfortunate that the word "criticism" plays so large a part in our educational work—"Criticism destroys genius, dulls brightness, enervates power, and saps all life. Criticism is too often destructive and discouraging, leaving the teacher without clearer views of what should be done, and too frequently without inspiration to seek a better way. Creative and stimulative suggestion is far more effective."

The great danger in all supervision is in emphasizing the negative side. By holding before us positive ideals, seeking only for the good, the work of supervision becomes an inspiration to both the supervisor and the supervised. The hearty approval of some one thing seen or heard in a class-room arouses the cordiality and gratitude of the teacher to whom it is given. It establishes a feeling of professional kinship, and sets the teacher

to analyze her own work; to seek for opportunities to improve in other directions, in order that other words of approval may be spoken. A feeling of confidence and sympathy has grown up, and the teachers no longer dread the supervisor's visits or hesitate to go to him for advice. He is a proven friend, helper, and guide. All sorts of difficulties come to be laid before him to be solved. Office hours are filled to the limit, in advising with teachers over problems, not simply with reference to the details of methods or class-room work, but with reference to the handling of peculiar and difficult children. Personal matters also frequently are laid before him for advice.

When observing a class, effort should always be put forth to discover the teacher's reason for using the method that she does. I often find the means used is justified in the end attained. We have no right on any occasion to object to what we find, or to say to the struggling soul, "That is wrong," unless we can concretely put before her some better way, which leads us to say: "Try this; I think you will find this an easier way, and you will attain better results."

This personal conference with teachers, if properly managed, may prove a source of reciprocal training. The best sort of pedagogical schooling comes by being compelled to find a valid educational reason for every method of teaching and every problem of discipline. Many of my own pet theories have been exploded during such conferences.

The supervisor needs to carry into every class-room: one measure of ability to put himself in the teacher's place and stand the fire of inspection; two measures of the saving sense of humor; three measures of appreciation for the effort put forth; four of timely suggestion; and five of stimulating words of encouragement and commendation. If to these you add a very large measure of tact and sympathy, the prescription left will prove a never-failing remedy for all errors, and sunshine will come into the life of many an overburdened teacher thereby.

As year after year he goes the round of the city, visiting classes and counseling with teachers and principals, he comes to have a bird's-eye view of the whole. He knows and has advised with the teachers who are taking special courses, because they are ambitious to succeed and desire promotion. He knows those of marked and exceptional ability, who possess the keenest and most sympathetic grasp of the fundamental principles as laid down by the policy of the system, and hence may be ready for promotion as critics or model teachers in the city training-school, or for promotion to a principalship.

When modifications are necessary in the course of study for the best development of the children of a given community it is the supervisor who can touch the vital point. Why? Because he has watched the development of the work with the children, and has counseled with the teachers regarding the practicability of the method used. He sees where, if certain transfers were effected, the work would be strengthened. He knows and can point to the overcrowded class-rooms, where teachers are struggling to meet the demands of the work as laid down by the authorities. He can point out where the strong and skillful work may be found; where the specific defects of the incompetent are. He finds the young teacher who is fresh from the normal school, who is struggling with a class of irrepressible youngsters, in a new world under new conditions; helpless, but not hopeless. He detects crying evils which exist in certain buildings by the mass of belated pupils, and counsels with the superintendent that these evils may be rectified at once. Conditions of all sorts and kinds which need to be modified come to his attention; even to pleas for more cupboard room, new blackboards, new window-shades, etc.

Complaints arising from the exactions of the special supervisors, which are making grievous inroads upon time, strength, and energy, reach his ears. Here his work is most effective, in that he is able to assist in organizing the work of the special supervisors so as to unify the whole. From the point of view of a well-rounded scheme of education he is able to point out most definitely where drawing, manual training, and domestic

arts may be co-ordinated with the other subjects of the school curriculum. This unifying process can be accomplished only where the supervisor has gained the confidence of the special teachers thru helpful suggestions, candid criticism, and frequent conferences which will help them to see the system as a unified whole.

With this general view of the situation, seeing and realizing the needs, the supervisor brings to the superintendent invaluable assistance. The hour for the discussion of these problems from the field, of ways and means for bettering conditions, proves of mutual benefit to all when brought out thru the superintendent's round table of assistants or co-workers.

Teachers' meetings hold an important position in harmonizing and unifying the work of a city system. Just how to conduct and make these meetings most effective is often a problem not easy to solve, especially when there are a number of special supervisors, each eager to develop his own subject to the highest point.

If I may be pardoned a personal reference, I will outline a system used in my own city that has proved exceedingly valuable. In accordance with the provisions of the state law which allows to each teacher five days of institute work during the school year, there has been developed a system of grade institutes. The institute is held on Friday of each week, with morning and afternoon sessions, the pupils of the particular grade being dismissed for the day. We have held each year for the past five years an average of over thirty institutes, thus bringing together the teachers of each grade at least three times during the year.

Teachers' meetings after school should be reduced to the minimum. In thus devoting three days of regular school time to the institute, the number of grade meetings that would have otherwise been essential has materially been reduced. The coming-together of the teachers of any grade for the day, when they are fresh and rested, develops a spirit of interest, open-mindedness, sympathy, co-operation, and sociability on the part of all, which cannot be obtained at a grade meeting after the fatigue of a day's work. The aim in all these institutes has been to bring to the teachers good cheer thru helpful suggestion and inspiration.

In the beginning illustrative lessons were taught in all grades by the general supervisor. Ways and means for the development of the course of study for the particular grade have been considered and discussed, an effort always being made to meet the needs of the teachers of the children of all localities. In many instances suggestive outlines for the illumination of a subject have been given, these outlines often coming from the teachers themselves. Specimens of class work of all kinds from various schools are always displayed for study, suggestion, and comparison. The special supervisors are in attendance for the entire day and here outline their work. The teachers themselves have come to contribute largely to the success of these institutes by the skillful conducting of class exercises. This feature of the work has been full of suggestion and inspiration. We have had from time to time class exercises in all of the branches of the school curriculum, and have aimed to make the conditions surrounding such exercises as nearly those of the schoolroom as possible.

To the superintendent and the supervisor possibly the most gratifying results from these institutes were shown in the last series held, when each teacher was asked to bring a limited number of specimens of her class work in all subjects—these to represent the best, medium, and poorest in each group—and to place them on the wall for study.

Subjects were assigned to each grade for a free and open discussion. The aim and purpose of the leader of these conferences, whether superintendent or supervisor, was to bring out the best from each individual; to mold all diverse opinions into a harmonious whole; in short, to arrive at the truth by comparison of views and suggestions from one another. In every instance the discussion extended beyond the allotted time, and was full of valuable suggestion, both for teachers and supervisors.

Through these institute conferences we have come to know our teachers more intimately. We discover often that someone who is retiring in disposition, and whom we have not considered especially strong, is, when once brought out, a teacher of exceptional ability.

I believe that meetings, the character of which I have described, whether held all day, a half-day, or after school hours, will secure the confidence of teachers, and will aid the supervisor to impress himself upon them, not as a dictator, but as a counselor, guide, and friend, working with them in full accord and for a common end.

In meetings, of whatever character, the supervisor should make clear his ideals, views, and aspirations, and with such a spirit of frank open-mindedness as to impart enthusiasm to his teachers.

The work cannot rise much above the level of the supervisor, and its progress may be fairly measured by the character, energy, skill, and personal attainments which he possesses, and the zeal with which the teachers co-operate with him. The head and heart and soul of the supervisor must be great enough to check when necessary, to direct definitely, to encourage on every possible occasion, to stimulate to the highest ideals, and in all things to prove himself worthy of being a leader.

THE INFLUENCE OF THE CITY NORMAL SCHOOL OR TRAINING-SCHOOL

ELLA FLAGG YOUNG, PRINCIPAL OF CHICAGO NORMAL SCHOOL, CHICAGO, ILL.

The problem, stated definitely in its bearing on the division of the forces mentioned in the topic, is something like this: The city normal school should be a recognized power in the system of which it is a part; and if it does not command the respect and co-operation of the high-school faculties, and of all the elementary-school principals and teachers, why?

Graduation from a city normal school; service at the head of a practice school, and in the academic department of a normal school; and membership in a state board of education whose interest lies primarily in the state normal university, make it possible for me to discuss the weakness of the normal school without creating the suspicion of hostility to that school which, notwithstanding its weakness, represents the best efforts making for the advancement of the elementary schools. Some day the high school will be included in those to be aided by the normal school.

The function of the normal school, whether exercised within the limits of a state or of a city, would be generalized in the same terms: It is to maintian a high standard of life in the school system. The normal school fails of its purpose if it does not nourish the entire school system, making the reality of life more definitive and the charm more genuine.

There are two groups of persons whom the normal school aims to influence directly: those preparing to teach, and those engaged in teaching.

Difference in the extent of territory of which the training-school or college is the center does not affect the generalization of the function of a state or a city normal school. In questions of detail, however, there are modifications, arising because of the close proximity of the schools with which the city normal is identified; modifications that are not apparent in the state school. The rapid increase in the membership of the lowest primary-grades, especially in the crowded districts peopled with immigrants from the continent of Europe, made it evident to city superintendents at an early date that cheap service quickly prepared was eminently desirable. Because of the emphasis thrown on the desirability of cheap labor, the city normal school was founded on that practice which, under the peculiar title of "segregation," has been exploited in the Mississippi Valley in very recent time, as new and experimental.

Young women, and young women only, were admitted to classes preparing to teach in city schools. As a result of this plan, the city normal schools have always been given over to young women students, who are valued very largely as prospective teachers in the most poorly paid part of the service, altho superintendents of schools and principals of normal schools are loath to state the matter so baldly. Yet such is the condition, and because of it the quality of the work has been materially lowered.

To plan a course of study that shall ostensibly fit students to instruct in any grade of the elementary school, and then to administer it with the consciousness that an overwhelming majority of the class will be fitted to teach in the first two or three grades only, must influence the genuineness of the instruction. In course of time some of the graduates are transferred to the higher grades; but so insincere has been their preparation for advanced teaching that they influence almost not at all the scholarship or method of the upper grades by means of the theory and practice of the normal school. They reproduce very largely the methods and point of view of the teachers who taught them when they were pupils in the upper grades of the elementary school, and so it comes about that the normal school is not felt to any appreciable extent thruout the entire city school system.

Efforts made in recent years to draw young men into the city normal school have not had a marked effect on the situation. Of course, the same conditions, commercial and professional, have been operative thruout the country, have been effective in the large cities; but the taint of "segregation" is on the city training-school for teachers.

The standard of admission has been raised thru the efforts of progressive superintendents. This has not affected the personnel of the student body, altho it has increased the average scholarship. Much of the work attempted in the upper grammar and high-school grades bears evidence of haste and superficiality. The high school meets the evidence with the assertion that its best graduates rarely enter a normal school. This is a foolish subterfuge. The high-school student carries too many subjects.

Every city normal school has many students who are endowed with fine minds and have strong characters. The difficulty there is in the failure of the school to develop talents. The old, narrow plan is still in force for students who are not fitting to take a specialist's diploma. Those who are intending to enter the grade- or class-rooms as teachers are not given opportunity to develop their powers as in colleges and polytechnic schools. The all-around fallacy still has sway in one school beyond the high school—the normal school. The lack of initiative in original work is generally admitted to be a weakness common to city normal-school graduates. Why not develop the strength of the student body?

In turning to the second group, we find that the state training-school for teachers has always had a large clientele of experienced teachers, who take vacations from teaching in order that they may return to complete a course of study begun years before. This explains the early appreciation of the whole situation by the state school, before the city school realized that it should stand in direct relation to teachers in active service. Today, however, the conception of a city normal school is not limited to an activity that influences the school system thru the young teachers only; it is expanded to a form and quality of life that pervade the whole teaching corps, energizing the system thru its many members.

But the members forming the group of experienced teachers do not present the same conditions to the faculty which desires to influence them. There are those who early in their professional career abandoned all efforts in lines of advanced study. Often this was the result of assignment to a school not enveloped in an atmosphere of invigorating work; to a school whose principal was not a leader. But, in the large cities, the number lost to all interest in higher pursuits is less than the number endeavoring to keep up some line of advancement. It is a revelation to many a stay-at-home bookworm to hear the descriptions of travel, the discussions of art or music, the accounts of club

work, entertainingly given by city teachers. It goes without saying that the large cities, with their restless, seething thousands of human beings, develop an elasticity of mind and a poise of judgment in teachers that make discriminating and appreciative workers of a large part of the second group which the faculty of the city normal school aims to influence directly.

The means of approach to this service are thru instruction in the principles, history, and practice of education; thru instruction in advanced academic subjects; thru laboratory work in the method of the arts and the sciences. This instruction and work, to be valuable, must keep active in the consciousness of the students and the teaching body, not only those knowledges which are the conservators of the best which the race has done, but also those forces which purposely develop the originality of the individual. It is a delicate task to discuss the method of instruction in the normal school. With a few conspicuous exceptions, instruction in the various topics under education might be described as philosophizing in the shallows. As a rule, educational psychology and the philosophy of education are presented before the students have a basis in psychology and philosophy from which to develop the applications; before they have even a little experience in that sort of thinking.

Educational psychology, which is the application of psychology to teaching, is taught before the students have acquired the power to analyze their own consciousness. The history of education is discussed from a philosophical standpoint before the students have a bowing acquaintance with a single system of philosophy. A few words and phrases are associated with the names of Plato, Aristotle, Kant, and Hegel, and used as satisfying substitutes for great theories of life. The application of psychologic terms before the principles for which they stand have been thought out, and the phrasing of philosophic truths before the generalizations which they represent have been grasped, give a fictitious command of a technical vocabulary, develop a language technique, which misleads the student, who acquires facility in juggling with the strange terminology.

The result of this method is apparent. On every hand complaint is made that normal-school graduates are too vague and indefinite in their educational comprehension of problems in a strange environment; that they do not get close to the actual conditions in the problems of the schoolroom, and in those arising out of the social relations of the children.

Experienced teachers often discover in this kind of teaching a new way on the part of the instructor of stating a merely personal opinion that differs from their own. Observers sometimes say that they can see no difference between the methods of teachers who have studied psychology and those who have not. Both the discovery and the observation may be due to the inability of the listeners and the observers to understand all that is before them; or contrariwise, they may be correct.

There is a study of psychology that develops power in observing and interpreting mental activity, but it does not begin with the enunciation of the applications. There are truths about life that are intelligible to all students and teachers, but they should not be conveyed in the peculiar terminology of an unfamiliar school of philosophy. Under such conditions their meaning is hidden. It is not only permissible that they be incorporated in the talks and lectures on education and life; it is obligatory upon the teacher of the theory of education to bring great truths into the pedagogic consciousness; but they should be clothed in choice English undefiled.

Because of the limited range of subject-matter presented to students preparing to teach, the instruction in academic subjects is devoted to gentle assumptions as to the manner in which the pedagogical child would approach a given bit of subject-matter. Too few have an understanding of scientific method in teaching. Every graduate of a normal school should acquire the power to feel the method of mind in the subject studied; should recognize her own mental activity in getting at the secret of the subject-matter which embodies the experience of the race and is interpreted by her own experience.

Attempts to do the interpreting for children not present, and to decide how to teach that whose method is a mystery to the class, wearies the best minds, dulls the faithful who do not know that they don't know, and graduates many an incompetent one into the teaching corps. The idea that a teacher learns in a different way from that in which other people learn is pernicious. The teacher acquires knowledge as other human beings acquire it; and then goes on to organize the material so that he may set a problem, or make plain the conditions of a problem, for the pupils.

The deepest convictions of the normal school should be a belief in the subtlety and effectiveness of thought, and a belief in development thru the achievement of the indi vidual. With these convictions incarnate in its workings, the city normal school will command the respect and co-operation of the elementary and the high school. Thru its young graduates it will give added vigor and fulness of life to the system. By means of its work in classes of experienced teachers it will break up the tendency to ossification in the system.

Everywhere the evolution of the public school system as an organic part of the life of the city has been singularly uneven and inadequate. The city normal school should function more positively in supplying the system with the means of life, not the means of repetition merely; it should anticipate a progress that proceeds spontaneously and constructively toward an end which is within the activity of the school itself.

B. ROUND TABLE OF SUPERINTENDENTS OF SMALLER CITIES

TOPIC—THE LOCAL TRAINING-SCHOOL AS AN AGENCY FOR THE PREPARATION OF TEACHERS

WILBUR F. GORDY, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, SPRINGFIELD

In discussing this subject it is well to bear in mind that the point of view will greatly depend upon the conditions under which the superintendent finds that he must work. In Springfield, for instance, it is easy to reach many towns and cities in a densely populated state like Massachusetts. But in other places, where the population is not so dense, of course the difficulties of securing teachers are much greater.

There are manifest advantages in having a local training-school as an agency for the preparation of teachers. Such a school offers an opportunity for specific training in response to local needs and ideals, it insures a plentiful supply of teachers to meet every emergency, and in some cities and under existing conditions it enables the school author ities to maintain a higher standard of teaching efficiency.

But there are disadvantages. In the first place, small cities are not likely to spend enough money upon a local training-school to give the broad, thoro training which the present complex educational situation demands. The taxpayers are not willing to vote a sufficient sum of money to train teachers in a broad way. State normal schools can get large enough appropriations to do the work as broadly as the importance of the training demands, and state institutions will, therefore, better serve the interests of the teaching profession than the local training-school is likely to do. Never before have the schools so greatly needed teachers of accurate scholarship, pedagogical insight, and teaching skill. We often speak of an enriched and broadened course of study, but it is well to keep constantly before us the important fact that there are in reality two courses of study; one of these is that outlined and existing on paper, and the other is the one which is actually carried out in the everyday work of the schools. After all, the course of study will be no broader than the teacher's power of interpretation. If the teacher is

narrow, the course of study will be narrow in its operation, no matter how broad it may be as outlined by pedagogical experts. There is not so much lack of ingenuity in the use of devices and methods as in the ability on the part of the teacher to select those pedagogical facts that best illustrate the vital forces and truths which should be taught.

It has often been said, but it needs to be repeated, that quality rather than quantity should be the key-word in the schoolroom. One reason why the curriculum is so over crowded is because, thru a lack of perspective, the selective principle is not properly applied. Therefore we need a larger number of well-equipped normal schools under the control of the state.

But not only will the state normal school be likely to do a broader work than the local training-school, it will also be much freer from the baneful influence of local politics. Many a local training-school is an open door to inefficiency, and furnishes the petty politician an opportunity for putting into practice his pet theory of doing the thing that benefits the community. What he really does is to benefit a class at the expense of the entire community. The interest of the community is served by getting the most efficient teachers possible, wherever they may be secured, and the politician would benefit the class by selecting from that class people to do the work of the schools, whether they do it efficiently or inefficiently. If there is a local training-school, the pressure of local politics is likely to be so strong that a very large percentage of local people who wish to teach will be admitted to the school, and will be allowed to remain until they graduate, and then secure positions, irrespective of their ability to do the highest grade of work. This condition of affairs is true in many cities in various parts of the United States today. The local training-school is easily accessible to the people who are not by nature fitted to become teachers, and who would not go to the expense and trouble of attending a normal school that is not within easy reach. Many such people had better go into other occupations, and are likely to go into other occupations if a local training-school is not near at hand. The result is that the selections are made without any reference whatever to the ability of the teacher to do the work. The selection is made on the basis of favoring those people who desire to get something to do; therefore a small class in the community gets the advantage, while the community at large suffers. Higher professional standards must be insisted upon before the American people can get the best returns for the money they are investing in education. We need scholarship and professional training; but, most of all, we need virility and vitality of a high order behind the teacher's desk. Let us as professional educators make a courageous stand for these things, and we shall find public sentiment rallying to our support.

DISCUSSION

Superintendent J. M. Greenwood, of Kansas City, Mo., said that he had not recommended training-schools and did not have for them the highest admiration. He entered upon a very critical analysis of the qualifications of good teachers.

Superintendent J. N. Study, of Fort Wayne, Ind., briefly discussed the question. He found it necessary to have a training-school, as the supply of normal-school graduates was not sufficient to meet the demand.

Superintendent A. B. Blodgett, of Syracuse, N. Y., had a local training-school in successful operation, for normal-school graduates are not in as close touch with local needs and local methods as the home-trained teacher.

Superintendent R. E. Denfeld, of Duluth, Minn., in discussing the training-school, said that Duluth had been forced to abolish its training-school because teachers trained in the local training-school had not been able to compete with graduates of the state normal schools.

Superintendent A. K. Whitcomb, of Lowell, Mass., spoke for a training-school of a different kind. He advocated a training-school for normal graduates without experience, thus enabling them to become acquainted with local needs and conditions.

Assistant Commissioner A. S. Downing, of Albany, N. Y., said that experience has proven the desirability of training-schools in small cities. He said that all objections against local training-schools could be met by keeping poor material out of them.

Superintendent Martin G. Benedict, of Utica, N. Y., said that he had suspended his local training-school for the following reasons:

1. A small city in New York cannot duplicate the opportunities which the state is offering in its various normal schools, without quite unnecessary expense.
2. Those who have grown up thru the public schools of a small city greatly need the broadening influences of surroundings entirely different from those of their own city, before they settle down for teaching at home in life-positions.
3. In order that the teaching staff may be kept at as high a standard of efficiency as possible, it is desirable that there should be quite a variety in the training which new teachers receive. It is impossible to secure an adequate variety of this sort where a large number of the teachers come from a home training-school in a small city.
4. Many unpleasant experiences in the way of solicitation on the part of parents, friends, and interested politicians are avoided when a state institution at a distance is responsible for the training rather than the local authorities.
5. A training-school is objectionable when, either thru board regulations or thru pressure of outside influences in the community, the good, bad, and indifferent are given places, the only limit being the number of vacancies. In such cases a local training-school becomes a menace to the pupil and an effective agency for preventing the schools from rising above the dead level of mediocrity.
6. A training-school limits the selection of teachers to a few, and does not permit the taking of the best from many.
7. A training-school greatly increases the problem of school administration, and is liable to decrease the effective service of the superintendent and school authorities.
8. Under the policy of a training-school, as found in some cities, free education is furnished for others than its own citizens, and gives them positions in preference to those of their own city who by their determination and ability have extended their preparation and increased their mental capacity by attending a state normal school.
9. In most cities there is an imperative demand for additional supervision—a demand which should take precedence to the establishment of a training-school, as such supervision will bring greater return to the children of the city.

THE BEST MEANS AND METHODS OF IMPROVING TEACHERS ALREADY IN THE SERVICE

WILLIAM McKENDREE VANCE, SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS, MIAMISBURG, OHIO

It is probably safe to say that most teachers are made, not born; else most of us would have to be born again; and regeneration for some people is an impossible thing, as Mrs. Poyser, in *Adam Bede*, realized when she said it was a pity that Mr. Craig, the gardener, "could-na be hatched o'er again, and hatched different." The born teacher is not an extinct species, and happy is he whose commission is heaven-attested and heaven-sent; but the born teacher is so rare that, while he is not yet classed with the dodo and the apteryx, he is as seldom seen as those other *rarae aves*—the born orator, the born musician, and the born painter. Whatever debt of gratitude and admiration we may owe those souls that burn with Promethean fire, the fact remains that the world's work is not now being done by geniuses, but it is being done by ordinary people who have devoted a fair degree of intelligence and a high degree of conscience, and such humbler virtues as courage and persistence, to rendering themselves efficient. Indeed, the born teacher who does not exhibit in his work the evidence of complete mastery of the technique of his art will hardly succeed in getting it to be known that he ever was born. And the mastery of technique, whether of the piano or of preaching, of pugilism or of teaching,

is not a matter of long hair, nor of voice, nor of muscle, nor of memory, nor even of so-called aptitude, nor of any other accident of heredity; but it is a matter—and the truth, tho a platitude, needs an occasional restatement—it is a matter of practice. The mastery of the working details of any art can be gained only in this way.

The statement of the topic implies two things: first, that many of our teachers are a more or less inefficient lot; and, second, that their improvement is conditioned on a set of reactions due to external stimuli.

In this discussion I shall take for granted that the teacher already in service was possessed at the beginning of her career of average capacity and attainments. Of course, the teacher who has passed the period of probation without exhibiting promise, who has shown that she is possessed of a positive genius for missing the point, is impossible, and ought to be cut off without benefit of clergy. To be sure, her official translation should be done with a due regard for the dictates of humanity, and the executive intrusted with this sad duty may well—I think he usually does—pay to the memory of her well-intentioned but misapplied efforts the tribute of a sigh, if not a tear. This discussion is not for her. But it is for her who is capable of good work, against whom is brought the indictment of unrealized or lessened efficiency.

Upon the superintendent more than upon any other agency depends the improvement of teachers after they have become members of his corps. And to this work he may well devote his supreme powers; for, next to the selection of teachers in the first place, no function of his office is of higher concern than the training of his corps to higher efficiency. On these two things, the selection and the training of teachers, hang all the law (and the prophets) of school progress. There are no good schools where there are no good teachers, and the presence of even one or two poor teachers in a building greatly reduces the quality of the school's educational output.

In a small city the superintendent finds it feasible to meet his teachers with such frequency, and to know them so well, that he may become a real minister, pedagogically speaking, to their spiritual needs. The first condition of helpfulness to his corps is the establishing of cordial relations on the basis of mutual respect and appreciation. When a superintendent loses the regard of his teachers for any cause whatsoever, just or unjust, tho he be an educational expert of the first rank, he loses likewise the opportunity and power to help them. In order that he may have this power, he must needs be a man of broad and generous scholarship, of clear insight and wide vision, of technical proficiency in the teaching art, of abounding but well-tempered enthusiasm, of genuine sympathy, of transparent honesty, of a certain degree of personal magnetism, of a culture which "is to mere knowledge what manners are to a gentleman," and of a character like that of the Chevalier Bayard.

His teachers' meetings will be frequent and of many kinds. Sometimes the meeting will be a table-round, where each shall take his part and none shall be heart-sore because of precedency; sometimes it will be the lists, where he who will may shiver a lance; sometimes, a forum for the full and formal discussion of educational creeds and doctrines; sometimes, a field of tactical review and maneuver; at other times, and oftenest, it will be the olive grove of Academus where all, superintendent and principals and teachers, go to school together.

However, this ought not to be the place, in spite of my figure, where things academic are learned. Not infrequently superintendents, either from a sprit of mistaken altruism, or because they are unable to conduct a better kind of teachers' meeting, form classes for the review of common branches to enable their teachers to pass forthcoming examinations, or to win certificates of a higher grade. If this be not an actual perversion of the superintendent's office, it is, in my judgment, a work of supererogation.

The same objection, however, cannot be urged against his conducting classes of teachers in professional study, psychology, pedagogy, and history of education. Indeed,

such classes are, without doubt, one of the best means at his command, not only for the mental enrichment of his teachers in educational theory and history, but also for training in sound thinking. Certain teachers there are in every corps who lack the scientific spirit. This spirit signifies the capacity for investigation, the love of truth for its own sake, its acceptance with joy and thanksgiving when found, and its immediate adoption as a rule of action. Now, a teacher of this sort is usually willing enough to accept truth when she sees it, but usually it must be labeled and countersigned by her superintendent, who, in her estimation perchance, is its very apotheosis; or, she must find it in the columns of the monthly device instructor for which she subscribed at the annual institute; or, possibly, she may stumble across it in a book. She has also been ready, even eager, to adopt what she conceives to be truth as a rule of action, and her efforts to present it unalloyed and unabridged to her pupils in the shuttle-like rush of the daily program frequently results in pedagogical strabismus. Her sense of values is imperfect; perspective is wanting; her whole picture of educational work lacks depth. The training class affords opportunity to the superintendent to pursue with his teachers lines of investigation which will develop in them the power of constructive thinking. He may develop in them an unwillingness to accept the dicta of their calling from superintendent, or principal, or critic-teacher, in any merely docile, unreasoning, or unreflective way; and this he can do without risk to the loyalty of his corps to their supervisors, for the last thing that any truth-loving superintendent wants is allegiance based on a czar-like domination. To us who are engaged in elementary and secondary education the word of all words should be the same word that is the open sesame of the higher education, and that word is "truth." *Veritas* is the motto of Harvard; *Lux et Veritas* is the motto of Yale. On one of the Harvard gates is inscribed the command from the song of Isaiah: "Open ye the gates that the righteous nation which keepeth the truth may enter in;" and no better text can be taken by superintendent and teachers, as they study educational problems together, than, "Ye shall know the truth, and the truth shall make you free."

In this connection due acknowledgment should be made of the great value of the state teachers' reading-circles in the preparation and improvement of teachers. Altho these courses offer at times pretty strong meat for the babes in our calling, and, at other times, only a gruel-like decoction for those who have cut a full set of eye-teeth and molars; and, altho the suspicion is not wanting that occasionally certain books have gotten on the list in queer fashion; yet the movement as a whole has resulted in conspicuous benefit to teachers generally. It is worthy of confidence and acceptation. Superintendents commonly welcome it, wholly or in part, as a ready and valuable adjunct of teacher-training.

Usually the superintendent's best work is done in meetings where the teachers of a single grade only are present; or, at most, the teachers of three consecutive grades, when the special object is to have the teachers of one grade come into a fuller appreciation of the setting and sequence of their own work as related to the work of the grade above and the grade below. The grade meeting will be in the nature of a conference, marked by free interchange of thought, by recital of experience, and by courteous suggestion of better plans and methods. Here the superintendent correlates educational doctrine with educational practice. Here he grants the largest liberty consistent with a logical plan of work; and thus, from a considerable number of teachers, temperamentally different, and hence differing in plans and methods, he secures, not over-exact, but essential uniformity. Here the course of study is discussed, and teachers are encouraged to make their contributions thereto; for a course of study is a composite thing, which should be built up according to the principle of eclecticism from the best things which superintendent and principals and teachers alike may have to offer. A course of study thus constructed is a human document which may be inscribed with the utterance of Ulysses, as put in Tennyson's verse: "I am a part of all that I have met." The teacher

who feels a kinship to this human document, because of her own contribution to its existence, will experience a marvelously vitalizing influence in her own efforts to interpret it into the life of the schoolroom.

The superintendent may be of very great aid to his teachers by class visitation and inspection. The negative of this proposition is also true. It is largely a matter of manner. It has been said that an experienced observer could tell in Parliament which way the ministerial wind blew by noticing how Sir Robert Peel threw open the collar of his coat. A teacher need not be very old or very experienced to tell which way the executive wind is blowing when the superintendent visits her school. Woe betide her if it blows strongly and continuously from the east!

In a small city the superintendent is able to observe class-room work so frequently as to gather an intimate knowledge of the scholarship and working power of his teachers; here he notes those personal traits and habits which are the unerring indices of character; he discovers in the management of the school the presence or absence of right ideals and of correct educational philosophy; he makes a mental record of economic and of wasteful methods. And, in conference with the teacher afterward, with patience and tactfulness he endeavors to correct whatever of faulty manner or method he may have observed. Of course, he never criticises her before the school; but the meed of praise which is her due he may once in a while very properly utter in the presence of her pupils. His approval of good work is a powerful stimulus both to teacher and school. Often such a word of praise has created for the teacher a favorable sentiment when some antagonisms have arisen, and has enabled her to regain her lost hold. Often, by a judicious setting forth of her good qualities, he is able to turn from her the fire of adverse criticism from a hostile patron. But, whatever the nature of the superintendent's comment, if his praise be without fulsomeness and his criticism without carping, the teacher will respond with cordiality and gratitude.

The private interview, the so-called heart-to-heart talk, usually is a means of helpfulness to the perplexed or unenlightened teacher. Sometimes it isn't. Sometimes she is past help; sometimes she is helplessly inept; and sometimes the superintendent is incapable of giving the help needed. But where normal conditions of stimulus and reaction exist, the applicant for counsel and guidance ordinarily leaves the office with clearer vision, stronger purpose, renewed courage, and increased devotion. Here the superintendent, oftener than anywhere else, reveals himself to his teachers as guide, philosopher, and friend. Once in a while there is a bit of pedagogical surgery to do. The wise superintendent renders all the conditions beforehand as aseptic as possible, and then performs the operation with neatness and dispatch. Despite careful treatment afterward, the unofficial records show that the fatalities are somewhat in excess of the survivals.

There are other ways in which the superintendent may help his teachers to a larger and more effective experience. Illustrative teaching is one—done either by himself, or by some skillful teacher before her associates of the same grade. The visiting of schools is another. Occasionally the principal of the building may take her room for an hour, and allow her to slip into a room presided over by one of real teaching power. Once or twice a year, perhaps oftener in special instances, the superintendent ought to give her and her associates the opportunity to visit high-grade schools in other cities; and this should be done without loss of pay. In Ohio it is no infrequent occurrence for a superintendent to take his entire corps to Chicago for a two or three days' visit to the best schools of that city. Within recent years the Central Ohio Teachers' Association, having a membership of almost three thousand, has held three annual meetings outside of its own boundaries for the express purpose of enabling the teachers of central Ohio, particularly the rank and file, to visit the schools of Cincinnati, Indianapolis, and Cleveland. The experience is heartening. Teachers gain new ideals by seeing them applied.

They come home after such a pilgrimage with something of the exaltation of a returned worshiper from a shrine. They may be slightly poorer in purse, but they are immeasurably richer in the things of the spirit.

The community also has its part in increasing the efficiency of its teachers. The methods which it may employ are, chiefly, two: First, the community may stand positively and aggressively for the highest ideals of education, and it may demand that those ideals be worked out in a highly effective way. It will insist upon competency in the teaching force, and, to this end, it will intrust to the educational expert at the head of the system all needed powers of appointment and removal. Teachers must grow; else they will not be tolerated. This is a fine example of the *argumentum ad hominem*. Second, the community should put a higher premium upon the life and service of the true teacher —the generous award of profound appreciation. Teaching needs more of abounding enthusiasm and more of the joy of living. But enthusiasm and joy are not engendered by the fear of dismissal, the apprehension of poverty, nor the consciousness of social inferiority. The marvel is that so much of sweetness and light are found in our schools at forty dollars a month, and that so many teachers keep sunny-tempered all their lives.

Of course, the measure of a teacher's service cannot be made in dollars and cents; it transcends ordinary considerations of recompense. Teaching is indeed "the poorest of vocations, but the noblest of arts;" and it is the nobleness of our calling that dignifies the contumely, the drudgery, and the sacrifice, and draws to it many of the finest natures that dwell below the skies. But it is also true that, if the wage were less meager, the tenure more certain, and the social position of greater prestige, the new dignity, and the new joy, and the new opportunities which would be experienced by every teacher, would be speedily transmuted into superior service. The policy of the community toward its teachers ought to be one of such liberality as to encourage them to improve themselves in a broad way. There is no class of workers who can turn to such good account the results of travel and good books, and lectures, and concerts, as does the teacher; because everything which she assimilates in this way she transmits to her pupils. A generous policy would also save her from the nervous strain due to overcrowded rooms, and from the brain-fag of countless reports and papers.

But, after all is said and done, the final agency to be brought to bear on the teacher's improvement, is the teacher herself. The superintendent has rendered his best service to her when he has helped her find herself. He may disclose to her sources of power, but she must appropriate them; he may reveal to her the majesty of the child, but she must bow to it; he may inspire her with a love of truth, but she must enter upon its quest. Then, after she has come into a consciousness of larger life and power, when teaching has become an abiding joy, vastly different from the sputtering enthusiasm of earlier years, she, with every other sincere worker in whatever field of human endeavor, may find in Henry Van Dyke's lines a voice of yearning and content:

Let me but do my work from day to day
  In field or forest, at the desk or loom,
  In roaring market-place or tranquil room;
Let me but find it in my heart to say,
When vagrant wishes beckon me astray:
  "This is my work; my blessing, not my doom.
Of all who live, I am the only one by whom
This work can best be done in the right way."

Then shall I see it not too great, nor small,
  To suit my spirit and to prove my powers;
  Then shall I cheerful greet the laboring hours,
And cheerful turn, when the long shadows fall
At eventide, to play and love and rest,
Because I know for me my work is best.

DISCUSSION

SUPERINTENDENT EDWIN L. HOLTON, OF Holton, Kans.—I desire to emphasize a few points already made by Superintendent Vance, and perhaps add some personal experience.

1. The superintendent should visit his teachers as often as possible. In our smaller cities, with from four to six schools, it is possible to visit each teacher from two to five times a week. He should always leave a message of sunshine and encouragement. Do not be afraid to be on speaking terms with your teachers on entering their rooms. Make them feel that you are their helpful friend. If you are troubled over some unsolved, perplexing problem, and feel physically exhausted, better not visit schools. You will do more harm than good.

2. Make your teachers' meetings helpful and interesting, and adapted to your own local conditions. If your teachers feel that the teachers' meetings are an extra burden placed upon them, you may be sure there is something wrong with the meetings or the superintendent. If the teacher feels that the meetings are helpful, she will gladly attend. Should there be an exception to this, I should quietly remove the cause, if possible; if not, the teacher.

3. I heartily agree with what was said concerning teachers visiting other teachers in the same system of schools, and especially the entire corps, led by the superintendent, visiting the best schools of other cities. The teachers always return with renewed enthusiasm and determination to do better work. We annually renew our supply of enthusiasm by visiting the schools of Kansas City and Topeka.

But we may do all that is possible to be done by personal supervision; we may have helpful and interesting meetings; we may take the teachers to see expert teaching; we may be quite efficient in oiling and running the machinery, and still fail to render our greatest service to the teachers, and thru the teachers to the boys and girls for whom the school, with all its machinery, exists.

The statement was made at the last N. E. A. meeting by Superintendent Greenwood, of Kansas City, that about 80 per cent. of the teachers ceased to read systematically after they have once been thoroly installed as teachers. If this be true—and I do not question it—the problem of finding the best means and methods for improving teachers already in the service is an urgent one. "How can the teachers be induced to fall into studious habits of reading, and investigating educational problems?" is the problem which must be solved. But for the superintendent of a system of schools which has from fifty to sixty, or, as it sometimes happens, seventy, pupils in each room, this is not his most serious problem. His problem is how to get more teachers into the service, and how to supply more schoolrooms. I speak of this because I know these conditions do exist in many smaller and some larger cities—and they are not all in Kansas, either. We can expect teachers to make but little, if any, professional improvement under such conditions.

Therefore, I would say, the first thing to do in order to improve teachers already in the service is to give them a chance to grow. Give them time to read and to investigate educational problems. If the teacher is overloaded with regular school work during the day, and burdened with examination papers and reports during the evening, until her energy is all drained away, in the name of justice, what can we expect but that she will "cease to strive after higher ideals in self-improvement" and move, "with an accelerated velocity down an intellectual incline"? Teachers are human, and their supply of reserve energy can be exhausted. If she spends six hours a day in teaching her one section of thirty-six pupils, and one hour in preparing the work for the next day, she should be able to leave her schoolroom not later than five o'clock, with all her school work completed for the day. Her evenings must be kept sacredly free from daily school work, and the drudgery of looking over examination papers, and making endless, and

many times needless, reports. Save the teacher's energy for work which will bring larger returns for the energy expended. Every ounce of teacher's energy should bring its pound of character, of life if you please, and not stacks of reports for the superintendent's office.

In our little city of Holton we have a permanent organization of teachers called the Teachers' Club. The membership in this club is wholly voluntary, but at present it contains 100 per cent. of our teachers. We read the best books on educational and related subjects, and investigate educational problems. For this year our general subject is religious education. At this time we are reading and discussing Coe's *Education in Religion and Morals*. We have for references Hall's *Adolescence*, James' *Varieties of Religious Experiences*, Starbuck's *Psychology of Religion*, Coe's *Spiritual Life*, and a few other such books. Along with this work we are investigating the workings of the juvenile court.

Early in the year we decide upon the general subject for the year or part of the year and each member investigates for the best material in the way of books, magazine articles, papers, reports, etc., on the subject, and reports the results of his investigation to the club. From these reports the material is selected. It is our aim to read and discuss the latest and best books on the subject. We find Commissioner Harris' reports an invaluable storehouse of material.

I find that the teachers are deeply interested in the work; and, as I said before, it is wholly voluntary. The work of the organization is purposely not mentioned in the printed rules and regulations of the board of education. It is our opinion that the work must be entirely elective. It is my firm conviction that teachers will read and investigate, if they are given a chance, and if the superintendent or principal will take the initiative. I have unbounded faith in the teachers of this country. They are willing to, and do, drain life's energy, until it ceases to flow, for their boys and girls.

The direct good resulting from such an organization cannot be estimated in commercial values, but I am thoroly convinced that it is giving our teachers a broader view of educational problems and a deeper interest in the teaching profession, and therefore they are better prepared to lead the boys and girls into the larger life all about them.

To summarize: In such an organization, I think, the following points are essential:

1. Give the teachers time to read and investigate.
2. The membership must be voluntary. No success grade, tenure of office, or salary proposition should be used as a pedagogical whip to force the teachers into line.
3. Only the best material should be used, and live questions discussed.
4. The superintendent or principal must take the initiative.

With conditions approaching what I have mentioned, the teachers will gladly take advantage of the opportunities for broader culture. Whatever else may be said for or against this plan, I know it to be workable, because it is working.

C. ROUND TABLE OF STATE AND COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS

TEACHERS' SALARIES AND HOW AFFECTED BY THE OPERATION OF THE MINIMUM-SALARY LAW

FASSETT A. COTTON, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, INDIANAPOLIS, IND.

It is conceded that the pay of teachers is not commensurate with the dignity of the profession and the work required. While the professional teacher chooses his calling and works in it from motives higher than those of material gain, it is true that in order to do his best work this teacher must have money and the things that money will buy. There has been a slow and steady growth in salaries, but they are still very meager

and unsatisfactory. One of the first essentials for substantial progress is an intelligent understanding of the actual conditions by the teachers themselves.

Here are a few statistics on salaries of teachers in Indiana for the years ending July 31, 1904, and July 31, 1905:

Total paid teachers for the year ending—	
July 31, 1904	$6,832,321.70
July 31, 1905	7,356,056.31
Increase	523,734.61

Pay to teachers per day—

	1904	1905	Diff.
In townships, men	$2.57	$2.75	$0.18
" " women	2.37	2.53	.16
In towns, men	3.45	3.44	.01
" " women	2.59	2.53	.06
In cities, men	4.52	4.74	.22
" " women	2.75	2.89	.14

It will be noted that men and women in the rural schools received an increase of 18 and 16 cents per day, respectively; in towns, a decrease of 1 and 6 cents respectively; and in cities, an increase of 22 and 14 cents per day, respectively.

	Per Year
Commissioned high schools—	
July 31, 1904	$806.50
July 31, 1905	818.37
Increase	11.87
Non-commissioned high schools—	
July 31, 1904	$500.04
July 31, 1905	525.30
Increase	25.26
General average annual pay for all high schools for year ending—	
July 31, 1904	$684.81
July 31, 1905	708.91
Increase	24.10
Average annual salary of all teachers for year ending—	
July 31, 1904 ($2.56 per day)	$440.20
July 31, 1905 ($2.65 per day)	472.27
Increase	32.07

Cost of living.—The United States Bureau of Labor gives the average expenditures per family in the North Central States as $785.95 for all purposes, and as $321.60 for food alone. From this it will be seen that teachers are not making average living wages.

This growth in salaries in the rural and small town schools is the result of the minimum-wage law and the campaign for better salaries. The growth in the cities and high schools in particular is the result of the general movement in the interest of better salaries. The reports that we have just compiled from the city schools indicate that there has been a large increase in payments for high-school positions the current year over last, which is the direct result of the agitation that has been going on for two or three years. We have no figures on the salaries paid district and grade teachers for this year. These can not be secured until the end of the year, July 31, 1906. I am sure, however, these reports will show a very marked increase over last year.

State aid to poor corporations.—The law which provides for the assistance of poorer townships and towns has enabled many of these corporations to have school six months this year, the first time in their history. This will add very materially to the average salary of teachers in the townships thruout the state. This same law has enabled school boards in many small towns to employ a sufficient number of teachers to do the work well, thus increasing the teaching force in the state more than the usual yearly increase.

There are many evidences of interest in the question of raising the salaries of teachers. Notable among the cities that have increased the salaries recently is Richmond. The following from Superintendent Mott is of interest:

Our rule regulating the minimum wages in the grades is as follows: A young teacher or a new teacher, unless otherwise agreed to, is paid the legal rate in the state for five years. After five years' teaching no teacher is paid less than $55 a month; and after eight years' teaching no teacher is paid less than $60 a month. In the first grades we pay at least $65 a month, four teachers getting more. In the seventh and eighth grades no teacher gets less than $65 a month; five in the seventh and eighth grades are getting $70 or $75 a month.

Our ward principals, in eight- and ten-room buildings, get $80 a month. In the high-school teachers begin work at a price agreed upon, depending upon preparation and experience. Their wage is increased $50 a year until $800 is reached in case of women and $900 a year in case of men, those acting as heads of departments in high school receiving $1,000 a year.

The above statement shows the regular wages paid. A few receive more, but none less. Our supervisors receive $1,100 a year after they have been with us for long enough time.

The new country life.—These statements show improvement in salaries, but it is a very small percentage of what it ought to be. Then, too, the increase has occurred mainly in the cities and wealthy townships and towns, and particularly among the high-school teachers. The lower grades, the rural and small town schools, which serve the great masses of people, must be improved also. Tremendous advancement in all phases of country life is now being made, and the betterment in our schools must be in proportion to this. It might almost be said that a new era has dawned in country life. The past quarter of a century has marked a steady advancement in all things relating to the farm. Hand labor has given way almost altogether to more efficient, as well as more expeditious, machine labor; new inventions have helped and relieved the farmer every year in all of his work. Fertilizing has grown to be generally employed all over the country; and fruit-grafting is no longer a matter of wonder. More and more attention has been paid to breeding; in everything has the farm and its work been bettered. Can we say that in the last decade or two our rural and village schools have been correspondingly improved?

Conditions for living on the farm have also improved at an almost marvelous rate. Where the farmer used to spend half a week hunting helpers and arranging for the "swapping" of work, so common during the harvest time, he now spends a few moments at his telephone to accomplish the same purpose. He employs the same telephone to send to the near-by town, or possibly to some distant manufacturing city, for supplies needed at once, and in many instances the cross-country interurban brings the articles the next morning. He hauls his heavily loaded wagons about now during rainy weather on a firm gravel road, instead of being obliged to wait for dry weather.

Again, if the farmer of twenty-five years ago received his mail every Saturday, he felt satisfied. But if he lived near enough to the office to receive his mail twice each week, he considered himself fortunate indeed. Now the same man is given free delivery of mail by the government. His letters, his daily city paper containing the latest market values, are brought to his door by ten o'clock every day. Perhaps he opposed the movement in favor of establishing rural routes and free delivery, on the plea that it would increase the taxes. But now he is not satisfied with news a week old, or quotations long since changed; he must know within a few hours after its happening any event of importance, any change made in prices. So everything relative to the farm and farm life has been improved in the past few years, and will continue to improve; and the up-to-date farmer takes advantage of all these, because it pays to do so.

Have our country schools kept pace with this marvelous march forward? Have schoolhouses been remodeled and refitted proportionately to the remodeling and refitting of the farms and farm-houses? Have the country teachers received larger salaries, and become more and more efficient as the years have passed? All the benefits of which the farmer has taken advantage have tended to make better his financial standing and interests, his social standing and interests. Will it not pay as an investment alone to

keep the school up to the standard of improvement enjoyed by the farm? Is it not necessary that the farmer's children be educated in harmony with these many improvements? Is it not necessary to his future standing financially and socially to keep up with modern advancement at school as well as at home?

Cause of low salaries.—It should not be forgotten that the salary the teacher receives represents the community's estimate of the value of the school to the community. The people exalt material things and depreciate the spiritual things. They generally use good judgment in their business transactions; they want the best lawyer to look after their business interests; they choose the best physician for their families; but, somehow, they continue in the notion that anybody can teach school. But it is fair to say that lack of preparation on the part of the teacher is partly responsible for the estimate the public places upon his work. Just as soon as the people learn the difference between good and poor teaching, and just as soon as they learn that a good school, as well as scientific farming, pays, then will they demand good teachers regardless of the cost.

Again, the proper relation does not always exist between teacher and patron. The teacher does not know the people, and hence is not the power he should be in the community. For this condition the teacher is responsible. Sometimes he does not even live in the community, and of course can take no interest in it. Sometimes, when he does live in the community, he acts as if he were merely a transient sojourner, and does not enter into its life. Sometimes he is pedantic, narrow, and not well enough informed to be socially agreeable. He does not consult with the leading men and women with regard to the needs of the community. He does not invite the patrons to his school and confer with them in regard to his work and that of their children. On the other hand, the patron is responsible, too. He is not informed on schools and is not interested. He does not cultivate the acquaintance of the teacher. Sometimes he stands in awe of the teacher's superior learning, and there is a kind of a restraint like that which sometimes exists between pastor and church member. He thinks the teacher doesn't know anything but books anyhow, and that he is incapable of unbending. The fact is that, if patron and teacher would only take the trouble to get acquainted, each would be surprised to find what a good fellow the other is, and that humanity is pretty much the same the world over.

Lack of revenue.—It is often said that salaries of teachers are as high as the revenues will permit. But why are the revenues so limited? The answer is that men are not convinced of the large merits of education—they do not see that it pays. As soon as they understand that it will pay large returns, they will be willing to tax themselves for good schools. All men should pay school taxes willingly. The man with children, that his children may be educated; the man with no children, that the children of his poorer neighbor may be educated, his property protected, and peace preserved. The man of wealth often does not seem to appreciate the close relation existing between freedom and free schools; between the safety of his property and education. He does not see that the more school tax he pays, the less he will be taxed for prisons, courts, poorhouses, and tramps, to say nothing of graft.

The demands of the twentieth century are large.—Our schools must really educate the children—teach them to do things, and to do them well and skillfully. More than that, they must teach them to want to do things. They must teach them to work, and to want to work, for their salvation. A system of education that leaves one without the power to undertake and accomplish things in life is worse than worthless. The school must be brought closer to the home, to industry, to out-of-doors, to life. The average farmer and business man will be quick to take advantage of this sort of school work, because it will soon help their children to do more skillfully the daily work they are called upon to do, and more naturally and successfully the work of life; in other words, it will pay, and they will be willing to pay for it.

Men and women as teachers.—The fact that men are leaving the profession, and that it is becoming a woman's calling, has something to do with the salaries. It is not a question of whether the pay of women should equal that of men. For equal service, of course it should. But public opinion, the law of supply and demand, and other economic problems have entered this question of teachers' salaries. It is true that the more men that are retained and the higher salaries paid to them, the better are the salaries of both men and women. It is true that in systems where few men are employed the salaries of women are perceptibly lower than the salaries of women where men are more numerous. Dr. E. B. Andrews, while superintendent of the Chicago schools, tried for some time to teach the women teachers of that city this lesson in school economy, and some of them at least refused steadfastly to comprehend it.

Teaching not yet a profession.—After all, one of the greatest causes of poor pay to teachers is the fact that the vast majority of teachers are not professional educators. The calling is still a stepping-stone to other professions, and will continue to be so as long as present conditions exist. The prospective lawyer, doctor, and minister, are willing to take temporary employment as a teacher at a lower salary than a professional educator can afford to take it. There is a great deal in the attitude of consciousness with which one comes to a calling. Men enter law and medicine for life. The average life of the teacher is four years. It is safe to say that a large percentage of those who teach on and on do so in yearly anticipation of some change for the better that may come to their relief. Many are teaching because they had not the courage to starve till a competence might come in the profession of their choice. Many others are teaching because they had not the means to go into business. Poverty makes teachers subservient to society. They get used to small means and small ways, and for this reason are incapacitated for the big things in life.

Reasons for better salaries.—The professional teacher must make long, careful preparation before entering his life-work. In order to do this, he must receive such compensation as will enable him to give his best thought to his work. He must have the opportunity to make constant daily preparation after he has taken up his life-work. Under present conditions, he is often compelled to do other work "on the side," to assist him in earning a living for his family. His hours are long and his work hard. He must work in the presence of people, often under the criticism of people in other callings, and too often under unsympathetic supervisors—mechanical taskmasters instead of the professional artists they should be. This is a severe strain on the nervous system.

Just recompense.—To begin with, every teacher should have comfortable living expenses. In addition he should have enough to reimburse his expenditures in preparation. There should be sufficient salary to enable him to buy the books and apparatus necessary to carry on his work. It should be possible for him to put by a small sum, at least, every year for the time when he can no longer teach. He should receive full pay while off duty on account of sickness. If any abuse this just privilege, it is better to rid the calling of such offenders than to make the innocent suffer. The teacher should have his annual vacation, and every few years should have a year off on half-pay for rest, recreation, investigation, and added preparation.

In our rural schools the minimum salary should be $600. From this there should be rapid increase for increased efficiency and new preparation. Under such conditions good professional teachers could afford to become residents of rural communities, and would be willing to attempt a solution of their problems.

OUR MINIMUM SALARY LAW

An act to amend an act approved March 12, 1901, entitled "An act regulating the minimum wages of teachers in the public schools and fixing a penalty for violation of the same," being secs. 1 and 2 of the acts of 1901. (H. B. 81; approved March 11, 1903.)

Sec. 1. Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the state of Indiana that the daily wages of teachers for teaching in the public schools of the state shall not be less in the case of beginning teachers than an amount determined by multiplying 2¼ cents by the scholarship given said teacher on his highest grade of license at the time of contracting; and after the first school term of any teacher, said teacher's daily wages shall not be less than an amount determined by multiplying 2½ cents by the general average of scholarship and success given the teacher on his highest grade of license at the time of contracting; and after three years of teaching, said wages shall not be less than an amount determined by multiplying 2¾ cents by the general average of scholarship and success at the time of contracting; provided that 2 per cent. shall be added to a teacher's general average of scholarship and success for attending the county institute the full number of days, and that said 2 per cent. shall be added to the average scholarship of beginning teachers.

Sec. 2. All teachers now exempt, or hereafter exempt, from examinations shall be paid as daily wages for teaching in the public schools of the state not less than an amount determined by multiplying 2¾ cents by the general average of scholarship and success given said teachers; provided that the grade of scholarship counted in each case be that given at the teacher's last examination, and that the grade of success counted be that of the teacher's term last preceding the date of contracting.

Sec. 3. All school officers shall comply with the provisions of this act, and shall pay the teachers employed by them no less than such an amount as shall be determined by secs. 1 and 2 of this act. School officers who shall be adjudged guilty of violating any of the provisions of this act shall be fined in any amount not exceeding $100 for such offense. The state superintendent of public instruction is hereby authorized to bring action against any school officer violating any of the provisions of this act.

HOW THE LAW OPERATES

I. In poor townships and towns.
  1. Encourages—
    a) Poor scholarship.
    b) Indifference as to high success grade as result of school-room work.
    c) The employment by school officials of poor teachers, and young teachers with low grade of scholarship. Teachers with high grade of scholarship are entitled to larger salaries than those fixed by the law. Many teachers request county superintendents to lower grades of licenses so the trustees will give them employment.
  2. On the whole, the law increases daily salaries in the poor townships and towns, but it shortens the term of school.
    a)*But our last legislature remedied this by the enactment of the "deficiency law." In future best teachers will be employed.

II. In wealthy townships and towns.
  1. The law has little direct effect on salaries in such corporations, as salaries here are larger than those fixed by law.
  2. But the moral effect of the law stimulates the school officials to pay better salaries.

III. The law should be framed in the interest of the teachers who make preparation for the work and remain in the profession. But this cannot be done until—
  1. Number of teachers is reduced.
  2. The standard raised, when the corporations that are able will raise the tax levies to meet requirements of a better wage law.[1]

The ideal for country schools.—In our state, with the township as the unit of our school system, the logical thing is a complete central school in each township to which all the children shall go. It should have a kindergarten, the eight grades, and a high school with a four-year course. It should have well-equipped modern buildings. Here should be located the township library, which should contain books selected with the view of meeting the demands of the community, and which should have arrangements for distributing books by means of transportation hacks and the free delivery mail system. The school center easily becomes the center of all community interests, and all meetings of the

*See "State Aid to Poor Corporations," above.

[1] In Indiana we have 16,495 teachers, whereas, on the basis of 40 pupils to the teacher, we need only 13,750; something like 3,000 teachers more than necessary. Three thousand teachers, at average annual salary of $472, draw $1,416,000. This, added to salary of the 13,750 necessary, would raise average annual salary from $472 to $575, or an increase of $103 for each teacher.

people should be held there. The school hall should be the public hall for township meetings of the people, and there everything pertaining to the public welfare should be considered. It should have a small farm, equipped for scientific elementary nature study or agriculture. It should have manual-training departments for boys and girls. It should be in session at least eight months in the year. Finally, it should have for teachers the best-prepared men and women, who have chosen teaching as their life-work, who shall live in the community, and who shall be paid respectable salaries.

Such a system would reduce the number of teachers and encourage better preparation.

CONSOLIDATION OF SCHOOLS IN INDIANA

In the matter of consolidation substantial progress has been made. The following statistics recently collected will show the actual status of this problem better than any discussion:

The Small School

1. Number of schools with 5 pupils or fewer	49
2. Number of schools between 5 and 10 pupils	286
3. Number of schools between 10 and 15 pupils	1,090
4. Number of schools between 15 and 20 pupils	1,932

Consolidation

1. Number of schools abandoned	699
2. Number of consolidated schools	280
3. Number of wagons used in transporting children	484
4. Number of children transported	8,312
5. Cost of transportation per day	$824.85
6. Average cost of wagons per day	$1.70
7. Number of townships in which roads are suitable for transportation	659

8. After a fair trial, are the people in favor of transportations. Forty-three counties answer "Yes;" nine counties answer "No;" forty counties answer, "Not sufficiently tried to determine."

THE NEXT STEPS IN EFFORT TO SECURE BETTER SALARIES

In these days of great prosperity, living expenses are perceptibly higher than they were in less prosperous times. Under such conditions many of our best teachers leave the profession. Something must be done to attract the best men and women to teaching, and make it worth while for them to undertake it as their life-work. All are agreed that something must be done, but it is difficult to name the next most important steps. In my judgment they are as follows:

The people must be aroused.—First, the public must be awakened to an appreciation of good teaching. The people are always willing to pay for *good* school advantages. The one thing that most parents are striving for is the happiness and welfare of their children, and there is no sacrifice they will not make for this purpose. Looked at from this point of view, the welfare of teachers lies almost wholly in their own hands. Better preparation, more professional zeal, larger interest in the children, closer study of the needs of the community, will bring immediate returns and a large promise for the future.

More adequate facilities for training teachers.—Second, the state must raise its standard to make large requirements in scholarship and professional training on the part of teachers. The standard must be raised to eliminate those who are poorly prepared and those who are "makeshifts" in the calling. When the supply is less than the demand, sufficient funds will be provided to induce the best young men and women to prepare for the work. This can be brought about very easily. The school authorities can set a date for better conditions, and everybody will work toward their accomplishment. Suppose it should be agreed that after September, 1911, no teacher will be employed who does not have certain qualifications; there would be five years and more for preparation. I do not know just what the qualifications ought to be, but surely something like this: (1) Teachers in the rural schools, and in the grades of towns and cities, should

have scholarship equivalent to that of a graduate of a commissioned high school with one or two years of professional training. (2) Teachers in high schools should have a scholarship equivalent to that of a college graduate with one year of professional training. (3) These would certainly require more adequate facilities for training teachers. These might easily be provided in a system of training-schools over the state which would sustain short courses, graduation from which would entitle to teach in the district and grades three or four years without examination. Then those who remain in the profession might be required to pursue their work in the central graduate school. Such a system of preparation would certainly raise the standard of teaching and do much toward making the calling the profession it ought to be.

A commission appointed by the governor.—Third, the whole question needs the careful study of experienced educators. At our last state teachers' association the writer suggested that a strong forward movement can be best determined by a commission, composed of our best students of the problem, to be appointed by the governor. By unanimous vote the association requested the appointment of such a commission.

The teachers must organize.—Fourth, finally, there should be a perfect organization of the teachers themselves to aid in bringing the recommendations of this commission before the next general assembly. This organization should be undertaken by the state teachers' association, which should appoint and pay some competent man to take charge of the work. This chief should call to his aid a number of men and women, who shall constitute the state advisory board. This board might be composed of one person from each congressional district. This member from the congressional district should in turn have a board made up of members chosen from the counties in the district, one from each county. The members of the congressional district board should in turn be the head of a county board made up of members chosen from each township in the county. Then each township should have an organization of the teachers of the districts. With such an organization the teachers could make an intelligent, aggressive, educational campaign, and could secure recognition at the hands of the legislature.

Can we afford to pay larger salaries?—Here are some actual figures of American expenditures:

Annual national government expenditures	$ 600,000,000
All other government expenditures	2,000,000,000
Annual national pensions to old soldiers	145,000,000
Annual drink expenditures	1,450,000,000
Annual expenditures for beer alone	700,000,000
Annual expenditures for tobacco	750,000,000
Annual expenditures for education	275,000,000

The annual per capita expenditure for alcohol and tobacco is $29, and for all forms of education $3.50. Our national wealth and annual business are each rated at nearly one hundred billion dollars. We do not begin to comprehend our stupendous resources. We simply do not know what possibilities are within our reach.

The outlook encouraging.—With all our difficulties, we are making progress. The outlook was never more hopeful. The calling was never more respected. The people never showed a more willing spirit toward educational work. They were never more willing to pay teachers respectable salaries. And teachers have never realized more fully than they do now that something depends upon them. Patrons and teachers are awake to the importance of the problem, and both sides have determined on better things.

No more splendid army ever marched to victory than the mighty army of schoolteachers who have their faces set against ignorance and idleness in the land. Once aroused and every man to his duty, such a public sentiment will be created in the interest of better salaries for teachers that "we the people" will take hold of townships, and municipalities, and states, and the nation, and will sweep away the things that make for ignorance and idleness, and will enthrone the forces that make for enlightenment and personal righteousness.

DISCUSSION

NATHAN C. SCHAEFFER, state superintendent of public instruction, Harrisburg, Pa.— I have been asked to tell how Pennsylvania got its law fixing a minimum salary for teachers, and the effect of this legislation upon the school system. The story sounds like a romance. I used to lie awake at night, scheming how to secure an increase in teachers' salaries. Finally a woman and a newspaper reporter came to the rescue. The woman had been a teacher and was married to a lawyer, who was elected to the legislature. When he bade her good-by to go to Harrisburg, she said: "Do something to improve the compensation of teachers." The reporter was a representative of the *Philadelphia Press.*

At dinner he asked whether there was anything new in school matters. "Nothing new," I replied; "but the thing that keeps me awake at night is the low compensation which many teachers get." "Tell me about that," was his next remark. Before long Representative Snyder, whose wife had been a teacher, introduced a minimum salary act, and the *Philadelphia Press* began a campaign, during which the school department became the storm center. Maps were printed showing the "black belt" in which the teachers got the lowest wages. The friends of better salaries finally compromised on thirty-five dollars per month. This had its effect outside the so-called black belt. When the compensation of substitute teachers was raised in the cities, there became necessary an advance along the whole line. In Philadelphia the agitation filled the largest assembly hall in the city, and resulted in an increase of the salaries of all teachers below the high school. In Pittsburg the agitation brought about a classification of teachers on the basis of efficiency. This caused an awakening never dreamed of by those who inaugurated the movement. The Carnegie Library suddenly discovered that alcoves devoted to pedagogy did not contain enough books to supply the demand. The university-extension lecturers had to seek larger assembly rooms in order to seat their audiences.

So far as I have been able to learn, it has not led the school boards to hire the cheap teacher in preference to the teacher with the better grade of certificate. Fortunately, we have had no uniform examination law to deprive the superintendents of their power to grant certificates to the best qualified teachers, and to make it impossible for others to teach by refusing them licenses or certificates of scholarship. Uniform examinations level from above as well as from below, and sometimes prevent the best districts from demanding the qualifications which they could secure under a system of examinations based, not upon the average standard, but upon superior excellence. Moreover, the state superintendent can withhold a district's share of the five and a half million dollars' state appropriation, if the school directors fail to comply with the law. The experience which we have had with the minimum-salary law convinces me that this legislation has benefited the schools in every section of the state.

THOMAS C. MILLER, state superintendent of free schools, Charleston, W. Va.— West Virginia can justly claim the place of pioneer in the matter of fixing minimum salaries for teachers. By reference to the code, I find that on March 15, 1882, a bill was passed by the legislature as follows:

> Teachers having certificates of the grade of No. 1 shall be paid not less than twenty-five dollars per month; those holding certificates of the grade of No. 2, not less than twenty-two dollars per month; those holding certificates of the grade of No. 3, not less than eighteen dollars per month.

Since that enactment this provision has been amended twice, and salaries, as now fixed, are $35, $30, and $25, respectively, for No. 1, No. 2, and No. 3 certificates. While, of course, this provision applies to the entire state, it does not affect more than 20 per cent. of the school districts, and the measure was first enacted to protect the school interests of communities where the idea of economy seemed to be too dominant. In these places the law has had a good effect, and, in fact, its influence has been a helpful one thruout the state, even tho the minimum has been low.

At the last session of the legislature a bill was proposed fixing the minimum salary for a No. 1 certificate at $40 per month, but the delegates from a few portions of the state showed that such a measure would lead to burdensome local taxation, and this led to the framing of a bill providing for additional financial aid for such districts. Unfortunately, this measure failed, but I confidently believe that our next legislature will provide some means for aiding school districts having a scant school population and small material development. When this is done, the provisions of the minimum-salary law will be more readily carried out, and I think the amount will be fixed at $40 per month. I am glad to report, however, that the average salary thruout the state in country districts is considerably above that fixed by this minimum law. For No. 1 certificates the general average is $39.70; for No. 2, $31.66; for No. 3, a little above $25. The average salary in the state for all grades of certificates, based on the length of term, is $34.58.

The conditions of material development in West Virginia are so varied that there will necessarily be a great deal of difference in carrying out the provisions of any measure. When we note that in two adjoining districts one may have an eight-months' term on a 25 cents (or 2½ mill) levy, while the other can only scantily support a five-months' term on a 50 cents (or 5 mill) levy, it will be seen under what disadvantage some districts labor. These conditions are made possible by the larger industrial development in some sections, whereas in others the material progress is slow and valuations of property low in the aggregate.

Of course, teachers will go where they can secure the longest terms and the best salaries, and this for a time left some of these remote sections of the state with the teachers holding the lower-grade certificates, and in some sections there was a shortage of teachers. But the law of supply and demand has worked very well even here, and I can say that the minimum-salary requirement has worked well.

But a more potent influence in behalf of salaries for teachers is the uniform examination system provided for early in 1903. Like a thunderclap came this new law, and at first there was almost consternation in the teaching ranks; but now the new system is viewed as having wrought the greatest amount of good in the shortest period of time that any educational measure has ever produced in the state. The certificates issued by the state superintendent are valid in any county, and this new measure has, without doubt, had more effect in increasing salaries than the minimum law itself. Boards of education, in order to retain their best teachers, have been compelled to advance salaries, and there is considerable competition, not only between counties, but between magisterial districts in the same county, for the services of the more competent instructors. It is true that districts with less material development and scant financial resources may for a time seem to be at a disadvantage, but the effect of the uniform examination system has been to increase teachers' salaries very materially, and it is now almost universally commended. Of course, there are many other features of this new system that are recognized as having wrought much for our educational upbuilding, but we do not underestimate the influence of the uniform examinations in advancing teachers' wages.

Under our new revenue system we confidently expect to have a much larger school fund, and this will, no doubt, extend our term and give teachers fairer remuneration.

RURAL SCHOOL ARCHITECTURE

J. W. OLSEN, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, ST. PAUL, MINN.

Your presiding officer has requested me to "present some rural school plans (floor plans at least) which shall differ in elaborateness and be prepared in such a way that they will give valuable suggestions to builders, as well as to state and county superintendents, with estimates of cost, plans, cuts, etc."

In endeavoring to comply with the request, while I have confined this paper to the so-called "material" benefits to be derived from the building of schools modern and sani-

tary, I would say that the writer has had always in mind such schools as may furnish to the growing and coming generations a more pleasing picture than "the little red schoolhouse" brings before the retrospective vision of the older generations. It is only to the narrow mind of a Gradgrind that the beautiful and the useful are incompatible.

The school site should be selected with as much regard to its natural surroundings and its scenic possibilities as the limitations of district distances will admit. Those intrusted with the choosing of it should see that it affords ample scope for playgrounds deserving of the name. The school should not, for penny-wise economy, be relegated to some lonely, isolated spot that makes drainage impracticable and miniature farming and landscape gardening a chimera. It should fitly crown some elevation near main traveled roads—a beacon light of prosperity and culture to the wayfarer, an abiding joy and pride to its district, the real ethical schoolhouse. The structure itself should be an expression, in stone or brick or wood, of the best in modern architectural thought. It is not necessary that it be costly, but it should be true in proportion, graceful in line, harmonious and restful in coloring, simple and dignified—architecture humanized; a building that is at once an invitation, an inspiration, and a fadeless memory, free from obtrusive gaudiness, rich in essentials.

In 1901 the National Educational Association declared itself as follows:

We believe that the standards for school architecture, including the proper seating, heating, lighting, ventilation, and ornamentation of school buildings, should be as definite as the standards for teaching. The law should fix the dimensions and all other requirements for school buildings, as well as the size and character of the school grounds.

On p. 54 of the *Virginia School Laws* (edition of 1892) we find that "no public school shall be allowed in any building which is not in such a condition, and provided with such conveniences, as are required by a due regard to decency and health," and that it shall be the duty of the county superintendent to condemn unfit schoolhouses. Legislation should be enacted giving independent central authority, under safe restrictions, power to condemn unsuitable buildings and sites. Massachusetts, New York, and Pennsylvania, have realized the importance of more adequate ventilation of public buildings than now exists, and have passed laws, calling for the proper heating and ventilation of public-school buildings. Massachusetts has a state inspector to whom drawings may be submitted with a view to determining whether or not the plans meet the requirements of law and can be approved; while par. 6, art. 4, p. 556, Vol. II, *Laws of New York* (1894) reads as follows:

No schoolhouse shall be built in any union free school district until the plans for the ventilation, heating, and lighting of such schoolhouse shall be approved in writing by the school commissioners or commissioner of the district in which said schoolhouse is to be built.

Many states have laws adequately protecting the inmates of almshouses, jails, prisons, and other charitable and penal institutions, providing them with fresh air, and other means for comfort and the preservation of health. Too often the poorest, most unsightly, and worst-adapted building in a whole neighborhood is the schoolhouse, frequently insanitary and endangering the health of the pupils, who can do their best work only in the most healthful and comfortable environment. No wonder that country children seek the city with its attractive school surroundings! The time has come when educators should have the courage to make themselves heard in behalf of our school children, that at least the same protection be afforded them as is thrown about our paupers and criminals. Not only should the central authority have power to condemn unsuitable buildings and sites, but, when buildings are to be constructed, the plans should be subject to its approval. This does not necessarily mean added cost for construction; but experience has shown that many of those who plan school buildings, even with the best of intentions, do not understand how to provide proper heating, lighting, and ventilation, nor how to arrange the blackboards, cloakrooms, and seats so as to secure the greatest convenience and economy of space.

The material most suitable for schoolhouse construction depends upon climate and other local conditions. Architects who can plan a harmonious and well-appearing exterior, and who can give directions as to the most suitable building material, can everywhere be consulted; engineers can plan and install heating and ventilating plants; but not one architect in a hundred can plan a schoolhouse, especially a small one, so that its interior arrangement "will aid modern methods of school work and facilitate discipline." I shall, therefore, devote most of the time allotted me to a discussion of the schoolhouse from the teacher's point of view.

The schoolhouse should be situated on a dry hill, so that the ground slopes away from it on all sides. If the locality is flat, the basement should be well set up, without much excavation, and the ground should then be graded up about the outside, so that the hill to some extent will be made where the building stands.

It should not be situated near stagnant pools, as dangers are often associated with the putrefaction of organic matter. It is not desirable to place the schoolhouse on or below the north slope of a steep hillside, because this will prevent the free access of sunlight during the winter months. Where a basement is not provided, the ground under the schoolhouse should be as free as possible from dampness. If necessary, a drain should be built from under the building. The site most suitable will depend in a measure upon the climate. In a warmer climate, the advantages of placing an attractive schoolhouse upon the highest hilltop seem manifest. On the other hand, in a severe climate it is better to build in a less exposed place. It should have some trees about it—natural timber preferred—to form a setting, and to afford shade and protection; but not so many as to shut out the light, to make it damp and unhealthful, nor to close out altogether the view. The soil should be porous, making drainage easy.

In my judgment, the following are desirable features to combine in every schoolhouse, and in the plans submitted it is aimed to combine them:

1. *A large porch, protected by a roof*, in which the pupils may exercise in damp weather and be benefited by the fresh air, instead of suffering from undue exposure.

2. *Well-lighted, long cloakrooms*, in which the pupils may keep their wraps, and thru which they may pass in and out in regular order. It is very desirable that these should open in plain view of the teacher's desk.

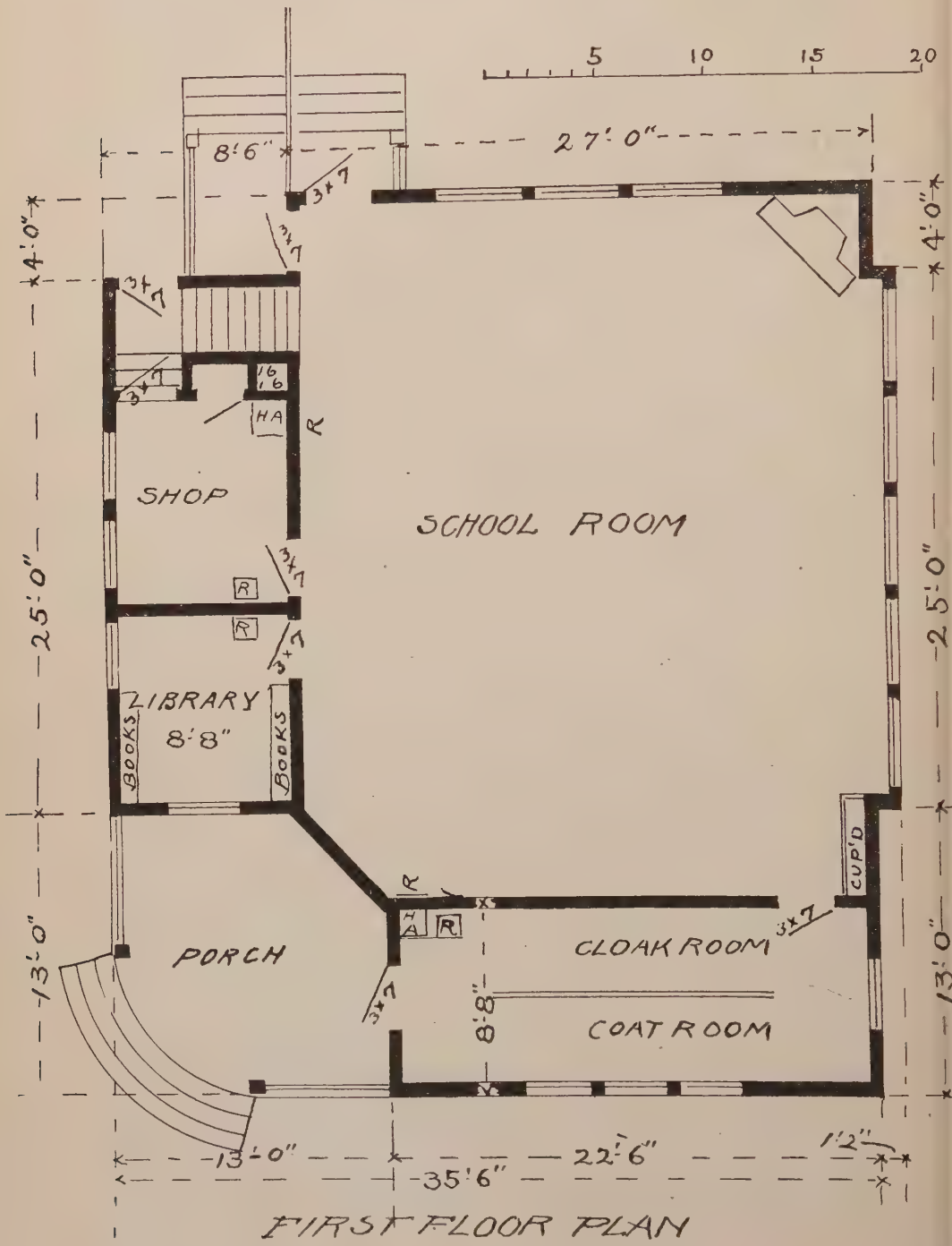
3. *Sanitary lighting.*—The light should come in at the left side of the pupils and, on dark days, from the top of rear windows near the ceiling. (I think we have about come to the conclusion that light should be brought in over the left shoulder of the pupil.) The windows at the pupils' left side should reach to within a few inches of the ceiling, and should be grouped with as little space as possible between them. The best light comes in from the highest point. Blinds or dark shades should not be used. The narrow streaks of light admitted thru blinds are injurious to the eyes. The shades should roll upward from the bottom, and should be made of light-colored, translucent material. The windows in the rear of the room should not be more than a third the length of those at the side, should be placed as close as possible to the ceiling, and should be protected by curtains of light material that can be drawn *aside* on cloudy days as necessity demands.

4. *Pupils should be seated facing the main entrance.*—This will deter them from involuntarily turning around every time the front door opens, and has the added advantage of having the teacher near at hand when a visitor calls.

5. *A long, unbroken wall space*, giving the teacher and pupils plenty of blackboard for continued work. How frequently an otherwise well-appointed schoolroom has been spoiled by cutting up the walls so that the blackboard is all in patches! Long compact blackboards for class drill are indispensable for the best work.

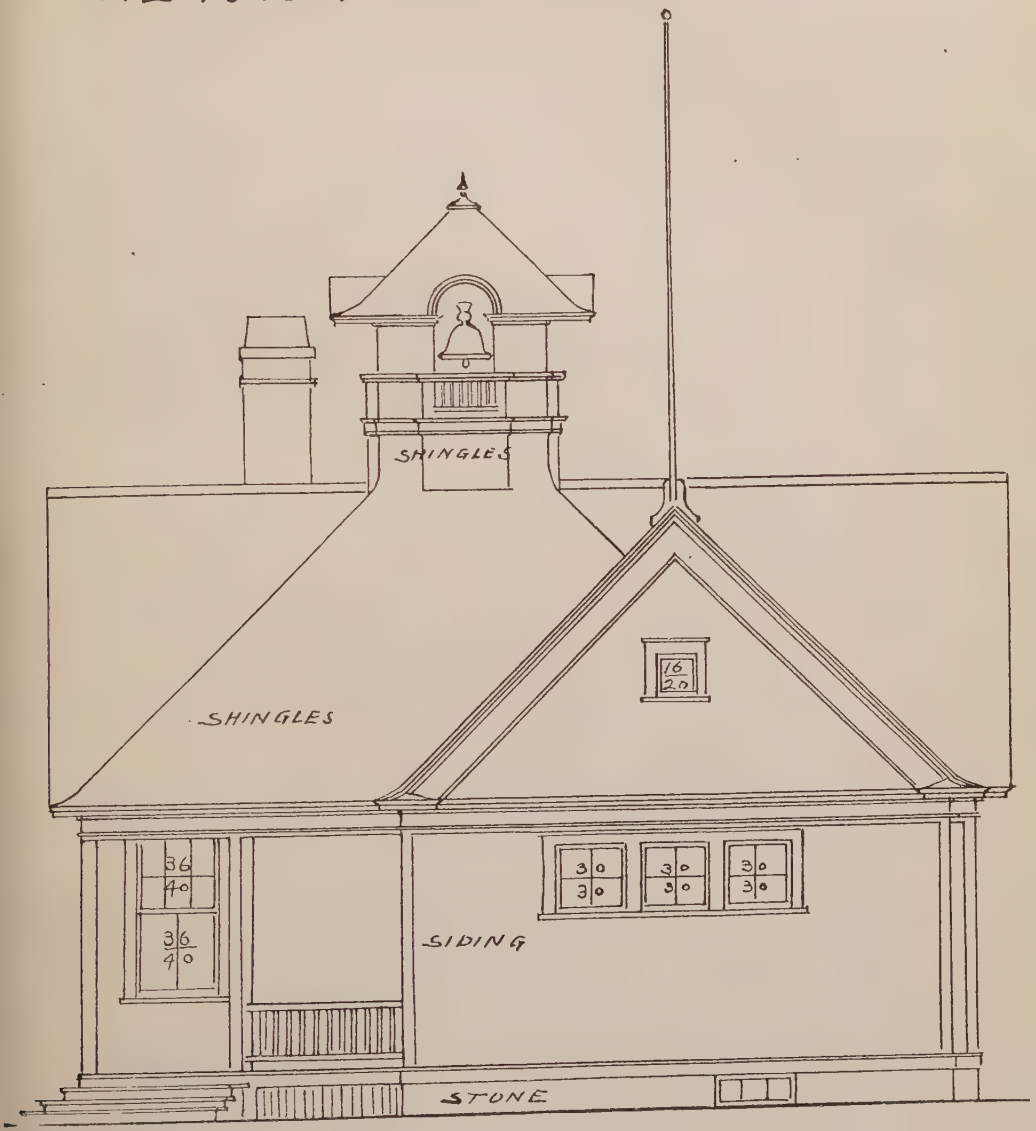
6. *A library and teacher's room* directly connected with the schoolroom, where books and charts can be kept clean, and not be subjected to unusual wear and tear. This room, if needed, can be used for special study and as a recitation room.

ONE ROOM SCHOOL BUILDING



FIRST FLOOR PLAN

ONE ROOM SCHOOL BUILDING



FRONT ELEVATION 5' 10' 15'

7. *An exterior plan so arranged that three sides appear to be fronts.*—This adds to the beauty of the building and helps to prevent any controversy as to which way it should face, if situated where the roads cross.

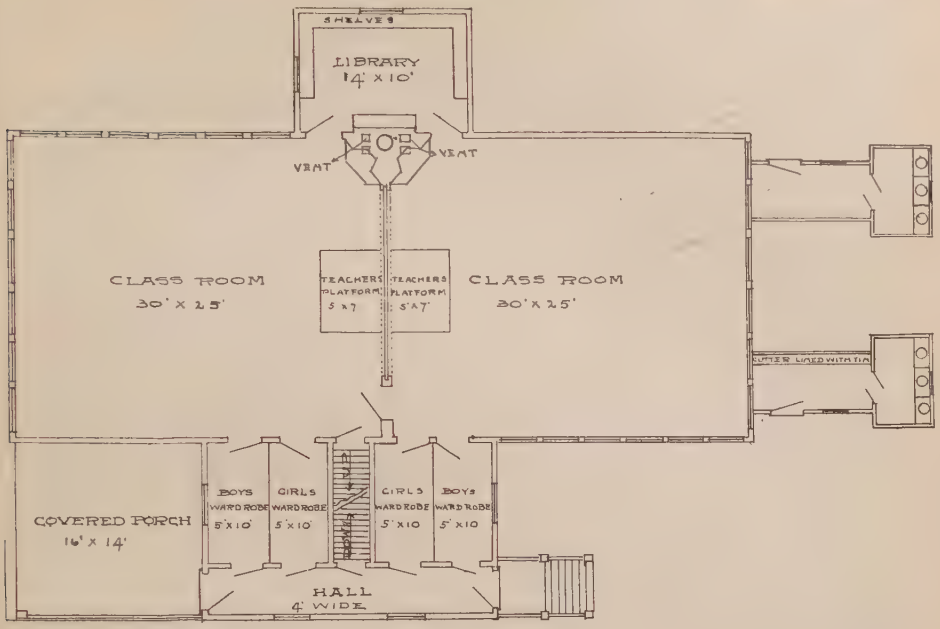
8. *Sanitary heating and ventilation.*—The heating and ventilation system should furnish ample heat, evenly distributed thruout the schoolroom, should introduce fresh air in proportion to the actual needs of the pupils, and should draw off the foul air from near the floor thru a shaft or shafts properly heated for the purpose. There are two means of ventilation: (1) mechanical power applied to the forcing of air by fans; (2) the gravity system-ventilation by motion of air resulting from the difference in the specific gravity between the hot air and the cold. For our rural schools it is useless to consider the elaborate machinery of the fan system. We must content ourselves with the less scientific gravity system which, if properly installed and used, will greatly improve conditions for physical and mental development. In Massachusetts the law provides that schoolhouses shall be so constructed as to supply each pupil with 1,800 cubic feet of fresh air an hour. To comply with this law, the air of a schoolroom (30×24, with a 12-foot ceiling) must be changed every $9\frac{6}{10}$ minutes, or six times every hour. Special provision should be made for drawing off the foul air from the cloakrooms, to prevent its contaminating the schoolroom. Every schoolroom should be provided with a fireplace, not only to add beauty and homelikeness to the room, but to take off the chill and dampness on those days when furnace heat is unnecessary, and in warmer weather to provide ventilation, which may be secured by heating the fireplace shaft with a lamp. Burrage and Bailey, in their work, *School Sanitation and Decoration*, in discussing this subject say:

> Each school building requires a special study by itself. Two buildings constructed on exactly the same architectural plan might require entirely different heating and ventilating systems because of slightly different orientation or exposure.

This is true; but, as a general rule, I believe it advisable to have the fresh hot air introduced for the entire schoolroom from one place about eight feet from the floor near the center of the end wall that is least exposed. Let it sweep thru the schoolroom and return, to be drawn off from near the floor thru a foul-air exit under the hot-air intake. In a one-room country schoolhouse, where a responsible janitor cannot be in constant attendance, and where the fires must be looked after by the teacher, furnace heat from the basement is considered by some a doubtful good; it is maintained by them that more satisfactory results can be had from the right kind of stove with a proper ventilating system attached. (It is, however, to be borne in mind that provision must be made in any event for the admission of fresh air from without in such a way that it can be thoroly heated before it is thrown into circulation in the room, and for drawing off the foul air from near the floor thru a properly heated shaft.) In case the plans here submitted are followed (except that no basement be made), another room on the same side as the library and shop should be added for the fuel, and should be connected with the schoolroom proper by a door.

9. *The water-closets for the boys and girls should be separated*, should be of ample size, and should have each apartment divided into stalls. "In no case should the boys be exposed to one another when standing at the urinals." The passageway from the rear doors of the schoolhouse to the closets should be inclosed for the girls, so that they may not be unnecessarily exposed to the weather.

The cost of this building will depend upon local conditions. Some years ago when material was cheap, a building practically the same as this one, except that the porch was not provided (the inside measurements of the schoolroom being 23×33 feet, with a 12-foot ceiling; the library and teacher's office, 8×10; a fuel-room instead of the shop, 12×8; a 6-foot hall running across the front end of the building; no fireplace) cost for timber of good quality, carpenter's work, and everything complete above the foundation, except blackboards and furniture, $765, not including the hauling of the lumber from the station to the schoolhouse, which labor was contributed by the patrons of the district.



FIRST FLOOR PLAN

HERMANN KRETZ, ARCHITECT.
ST. PAUL, MINN.

SIDE ELEVATION

HERMANN KRETZ, ARCH.
ST. PAUL, MINN.

It will be seen that the essential features of the building may be retained, even if it be necessary to reduce its size and eliminate some of its conveniences.

I submit herewith plans also for a two-room building, in which I have tried to keep the advantages described, with the added one of throwing both schoolrooms into an auditorium. As the school should be a social center, it is well to have such a place where lectures, concerts, and other entertainments may be held.

The partition between the two schoolrooms is provided with counter-weights, so that it can be raised when necessary. This building also has a library and teachers' room directly connected with both rooms. As you will see from the elevation, the purpose is to locate it on a hillside, to make excavation and drainage easy. This, too, will make it comparatively easy for the building committee to have the basement as small or as large as funds will permit. The halls are light, and when the cloakroom doors are opened, the teachers can see practically clear thru them; while a stairway leads directly from the hall into the basement, thru which the girls may pass to the closets without undue exposure in severe weather. This is a modified form of a building put up in a rural district in Dakota County near the city of St. Paul, in 1899. It cost as follows:

Contract price	$2,285.26
Furnace	150.00
Slate blackboards	115.00
Desks and window shades	263.78
Total	$2,814.04

I trust that these plans may furnish suggestions or points for criticism that will enable the combined wisdom of this body to submit to the public better plans for rural schoolhouses than have hitherto been devised.

D. ROUND TABLE CONFERENCE ON SIMPLIFIED SPELLING

SIMPLER SPELLING: WHAT CAN BE MOST WISELY DONE TO HASTEN IT?

E. BENJAMIN ANDREWS, CHANCELLOR OF THE UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA, LINCOLN, NEBR

We shall help spelling reform much by clearly explaining what it is not.

Unfortunately, reform spelling is often straightway identified with phonetic spelling. No alphabet ever popularly employed is complete. Till such is invented and introduced, silent letters must often be used. A letter itself silent may be needed to tell the sound of a neighboring letter. Instance the *a* in the present tense of *read*. A letter otherwise idle may be of value in distinguishing one sense of a word from another, like the *u* in *Saviour*, more specific than *savior*. The late Professor Whitney's retention of the *u* in *Saviour* in editing the *Century Dictionary* was wholly consistent with his position as a devotee of reform spelling.

Progress in orthography is hindered by what is understood as the "immediate emancipation" program. Many changes in the word-forms are desirable and ultimately possible which you cannot bring about today or this year. Crudities in spelling must be laid aside a few at a time. The late Francis A. Walker, an enthusiastic tariff reformer, lamented that the Wilson tariff bill attacked any other duty than that on wool. Introduce the wedge by its bit, he said. Many people quite willing to spell reasonably recoil before the philological societies' "Ten Rules."

Not a few find the reform ridiculous because of the assumption, which some of its champions appear to make, that if all crooked spelling were today straightened, characters perfectly representing sounds, reform would thus be achieved fully and forever. That would, of course, not follow. Human nature being what it is, the devil of bad spelling is

not cast out so easily. Whereas the sounds of words, being liquid, ever tend to change, the script forms of words, not being liquid, ever tend to fixity. But the fact that many reform spellings, if adopted, would in time themselves have to be reformed is no argument against endeavor to introduce them. If script can never be made perfectly to imitate sound, let not the gap between them widen to a chasm.

The cause is aided also by showing that the slowness of its progress is naught against it, but rather precisely what we ought to expect.

Follies in spelling take their own time in passing away. You cannot hurry them with the lash. No step in the progress of orthography is made possible or easier by efforts at coercion or dictation. The movement has always been spontaneous and will continue so. You cannot hasten it by edict any more than you can stay it by jest. If a man wishes to write *though* for *tho*, using just 100 per cent. more time, work, paper, and ink than necessary, it is of no use to flay him; better humor him.

Wisdom is justified of her children. Thoughtful men and women become impressed with the unreason of such spelling, and little by little change their practice. Others follow, influenced by example. All is voluntary. Innovators and laggards alike are derided. The first spelling reformer who wrote *music* for *musick* was pronounced a crank. After a time any who added the *k* were considered cranks. And so the reform has spread, never swiftly enough to pacify faddists, laughed at by the thoughtless, but not materially retarded by any of its opponents.

Ardent reformers fail to appreciate the difficulty which one wishing to spell well encounters in writing for different sets of readers. In making manuscript for one's own eyes, or to be read by a spelling reformer, one can with impunity spell well. Not so in working for the press or in miscellaneous correspondence. One rule in an exceedingly useful style-book for proofreaders lying on my table bids: "Unless otherwise instructed, follow in spelling the authority in use in the office." People not proofreaders often, in effect, have to "follow authority" in spelling. Even if not bound to do this, you may have drilled yourself to certain forms so as to vary with difficulty. Then sometimes you fail to vary when you would have liked to, and find you have offended a friend or lost a market for a manuscript. Stenography adds its plague. Stenographers, of course, employ common-law spelling. If you use a stenographer, you must follow custom in spelling, or else be incessantly revising his work—a frightful task. These practical difficulties discourage many proselytes, who, tho sighting a better life, continue in their sins.

Were one with a sense for sane spelling to write without reference to his readers, his spelling program would be simple enough. Remembering that a letter may be silent, and yet of use to tell the sound of a near letter or to distinguish one sense of a word from another, he would proceed according to precepts somewhat like these:

1. When a letter or combination of letters is in no sense helpful or necessary, leave it out.
2. When a letter or combination differing from the usual one renders the sound better than the usual one, substitute it for the usual one.

But such a program, simple as it is, would, if carried out all at once, produce odd and surprising changes, which, as so many of us write for non reformers and Philistines, would give much offense and hinder progress in spelling instead of speeding it. Real reform must, therefore, perforce, be moderate, not attempting too much at once. Advocacy of the use, forthwith, of many new spellings, or of spellings over which men pause to ascertain their meanings, is the sign of the doctrinaire. A speller who, as a good beginning, simply writes *tho*, and keeps the *ue* off *prolog* and its cognates, helps the cause much more.

To make the two rules workable, real measures of reform, I therefore saddle each with the proviso that the new spelling must not in a context necessitate study or occasion doubt, uncertainty, or ambiguity respecting the word it denotes.

To determine whether a new spelling should be used in place of the old we should ask:

1. Is it more economical either (*a*) in the learning of it, or (*b*) in the using of it?

2. Would it, if employed in a context, involve ambiguity or occasion hesitation or study in respect to its meaning? If ambiguity is going to result, the spelling is not to be recommended, as it cannot prove a step in reform.

In spite of all vicissitudes, revision of English orthography has gone far of late and is progressing with rapidity. The most rabid foes of reform spelling use reform spellings.

Professor Peck himself writes *music* and *almanac*, never *musick* or *almanack*. Nearly all nice spellers, however conservative, have for years followed Soule and Wheeler's *Manual* instead of *Webster*. Few Americans longer tolerate *labour* or *honour*. Yet no rational argument can be adduced for printing *music*, *almanac*, *labor*, or *honor* in lieu of the older forms, which is not equally cogent for a thousand other improved spellings. Considerations of this nature affect scholarly and thoughtful men more and more. Manifestos by the Philological Society of England, the American Philological Association, and the Modern Language Association of America have also told.

The great influence of the National Educational Association of the United States is now cast in the same direction. We are no longer shocked to read *tho*, *altho*, *demagog*, *prolog*, (and so all the compounds of *logos*), *thoro* (and its compounds), *thru*, *thruout*, and *program*. The non-use of final *e* in words like *hav*, *giv*, *ar* where it is not needed to lengthen the preceding vowel; the use of *f* for *ph*, as in *geography;* the omission of every silent *gh*, as in *bou(gh)* and ni(*gh*); and the spellings *coud*, *sovrein*, (*w*)*hole*, *iland*, and *gastly*, will, most of them, be equally familiar. Most of these proposed innovations will be approved, and they will be gradually followed by others.

The study of great poets helps this movement, for, from Homer down, great poets have with much boldness trimmed the dress of words to suit sound and sense.

Any man with a voluminous correspondence is aware how widely these influences have wrought. Unless compelled by employers to do otherwise, the best proofreaders now spell *tho*, *altho*, *decalog*, etc., with the National Educational Association. They also say *controller*, *draft*, *drouth*, or *drout*, *dulness*, *fulness*, *skilful*, *wilful*, and *bazar*. They use simple *e* for æ and œ ligatures in all fully Anglicized words, even proper names (as *Cesar*), and follow good usage against the dictionaries when the two are at variance. Remembering the *via dolorosa* of reforms in general, and the rough riding which this reform in particular has had to encounter, one must pronounce its victories in recent years fairly satisfactory.

We can gain much by pointing out on proper occasions how vapid the logic of our opponent is.

Arguments against reform in spelling, as distinguished from arguments against a special spelling, or against this or that effort to introduce the reform, are ridiculously weak. One editor solemnly warns booksellers that, were the new spelling to prevail, all present literature would have to be reprinted. Could extant books be buried so easily, all being disused which could not get themselves reprinted, such a chance of doing good would swell spelling-reformers' ranks by a host. But all who know how easy it is to read Chaucer see at once that the assumption is idle.

Anti-reformers appeal to the sacredness of usage. "Spare the spelling of the fathers!" But not a man who pleads thus uses the spelling of the fathers. To do that you would be compelled to put down *ayre* for air, *cuppe* for cup, *fysche* for fish, *sunne* for sun, *howse* for house, *trewe* for true, and so on. The spellings urged in opposition to proposed revisions are usually not old or reversed at all, but hail from yesterday. Says Max Müller:

> We have only to go back a very short way in order to see the modern upstart character of what is called historical spelling. We now write *pleasure*, *measure*, and *feather*, but not very long ago, in Spenser's time, those words were spelled *plesure*, *mesure*, *fether*. Again, *tung* (AS. *tunge*, German *Zunge*) and *yung* (AS. *jung*, *geong*, German *jung*), as spelled by Spenser, have a more historical aspect than *tongue* and *young*. . . . . The two strongest arguments, therefore, against phonetic spelling, that it would destroy the historical and etymological character of the English language, are, after all, but very partially true and

I believe that, taken as a whole, the loss occasioned by consistent phonetic spelling would hardly be greater than the gain.

Professor Skeat is "convinced that the chief argument in favor of present spelling, viz., 'that it preserves the etymology,' woefully breaks down when carefully examined." He adds: "In the interest of etymology alone, I wish that the present spelling might be utterly smasht. . . . . It is impossible to enumerate all the numerous anomalies which the disastrous attempt to make etymology *visible* has introduced."

Language exists not for etymologists' sake, but to aid communication. It is, however, pertinent to notice that the origin, history, and real meanings of words are in most cases far clearer when their useless letters are laid aside. *Program*, *labor*, *prolog*, and *colleag* are examples.

What anti-reformers usually have in mind as etymology is something far different. The burdening, for instance, of *humor* with a supernumerary *u* is no etymological affair. Originating as a Gallicism, it is now in effect a freak of ignorance, like the "Linkun" for Lincoln written by some of President Lincoln's ancestors, simply because they did not know any better. It cannot be denied that freak spellings possess a certain sort of historical value, showing how funnily ignorance and conceit may manifest themselves, as the highfalutin rhetoric and false historical references of old writers do. But this is surely no reason why hunchback and varicose forms of words should be continued. As well perpetuate in use antique firearms, clothing, tools, wagons, and ships! *Abhominable* would certainly teach a little etymology, but who would put in the *h* on that account? It would be abominable.

Sam Walter Foss' poem entitled "The Calf-Path" has already been cited against anti-reformers, but will bear repeating in the same interest.

One day thru the primeval wood
A calf walked home, as good calves should.

But made a trail all bent askew,
A crooked trail, as all calves do.

Since then two hundred years have fled,
And I, infer, the calf is dead.

But still he left behind his trail,
And thereby hangs my moral tale.

The trail was taken up next day
By a lone dog that passed that way;

And then a wise bell-wether sheep
Pursued the trail o'er vale and steep,

And drew the flock behind him, too,
As good bell-wethers always do.

And from that day, o'er hill and glade,
Thru those old woods a path was made,

And many men wound in and out,
And dodged and turned and bent about,

And uttered words of righteous wrath,
Because 'twas such a crooked path.

But still they followed—do not laugh—
The first migrations of that calf,

And thru this winding wood-way stalked
Because he wobbled when he walked.

This forest path became a lane,
That bent and turned and turned again;

This crooked lane became a road,
Where many a poor horse, with his load,

Toiled on beneath the burning sun,
And traveled some three miles in one.

And thus a century and a half
They trod the footsteps of that calf.

The years passed on in swiftness fleet,
The road became a village street,

And this, before men were aware,
A city's crowded thorofare,

And soon the central street was this
Of a renowned metropolis.

And men two centuries and a half
Trod in the footsteps of that calf.

Each day a hundred thousand rout
Followed the zigzag calf about;

And o'er his crooked journey went
The traffic of a continent.

A hundred thousand men were led
By one calf near three centuries dead.

They followed still his crooked way,
And lost one hundred years a day.

For thus such reverence is lent
To well-established precedent.

A moral lesson this might teach,
Were I ordained and called to preach.

For men are prone to go it blind
Along the calf-paths of the mind,

And work away from sun to sun
To do what other men have done.

They follow in the beaten track,
And out and in, and forth and back,

And still their devious course pursue,
To keep the path that others do.

But how the wise old wood-gods laugh,
Who first saw the primeval calf:

Ah! many things this tale might teach—
But I am not ordained to preach.

Of course, reformers' last and chief resort is the positive argument in favor of simpler spelling.

If spelling reform be understood as a sober propaganda to effect in time, by those gradual changes which alone can be expected, the closest desirable parallelism between the correct sounds of words and their written and printed forms, the argument for the reform is imposingly strong. Serious people, who can be induced really to consider it, will not dismiss it as a fad fussed into notice by the idle, the thoughtless, and the queer.

Why do men write or print at all? Is it not that they may communicate thought? This is the final cause of all speech. Whatever on the whole ministers to this end is good, and ought to be encouraged. Any method of writing, on the other hand, which hinders communication, puts friction into it, makes it awkward, cumbrous, needlessly consumptive of time, or in any way detracts from its efficiency, is an evil to be abated. We do not write to preserve the history of speech, still less to publish the whims or ignorance of obtuse printers in past ages, but to be understood here and now. To say the reverse or to go upon any other principle is pedantry. Turgid spelling, the weighting of words with idle letters, is no more justifiable than pleonasm, verbiage, or tautology in rhetoric.

THE EVILS OF TRADITIONAL SPELLING

Nothing is more certain than that the current spelling of our tongue needlessly clogs communication, needlessly interrupts the flow of thought between human beings. It renders writing and printing 10 per cent. unnecessarily slow, laborious, and expensive, inevitably lessening to a great extent the use of these invaluable devices. It obstructs reading, prolongs the time necessary for a given amount thereof, and wastes eyesight power. In this way again the usefulness of reading is seriously restricted in scope. The force of this point may be easily tested. Let a person acquainted with English and equally so with Italian (whose spelling closely follows sound) try the two languages, printed in type of a given size, in a very dim light. He will find the Italian a great deal the easier to make out.

A consideration of moment quite independent of the above is the waste of time involved in learning the traditional spelling. The estimate that this amounts to two years in educated persons' average school life seems to me within bounds. Here is the chief reason why American youth of eighteen, constantly in school since they were six, average to be in studies two years behind German and French students of the same age likewise in school since six. The foreign boy, that is, has learned in ten years as much as the American in twelve. French print, too, has its useless letters, but they occur according to a method which keeps them from balking the learner as ours do.

Spelling is not alone at fault in the above matter, for there are other particulars wherein our pedagogy is behind Europe's best. But the defect is mainly due, directly or indirectly, to our difficult spelling. The evil reaches the latest school years, inferior composition being among its baneful sequels. Every teacher charged with the correction of juveniles' manuscripts bewails the precious hours he must spend in amending orthography, which, were this unnecessary, he might devote to promoting literary power.

I reckon that thoro spelling reform would each year save about 10 per cent. of the English-speaking world's printing bill. The work of proofreading would be reduced more than this. I think half of it would be saved. The cost of composition, ink, paper, press-work and power therefor, electrotyping and the interest of capital invested in printing would each be extensively lessened. I have at hand no means of computing the

aggregate which useful economy in spelling would thus yearly add to the world's wealth, but it would clearly reach millions.

A needless drain would be stopped in the schooling of the young. One of the two school years above described as practically sacrificed to bad spelling between the ages of six and eighteen is lost in the first eight years of this time. With amended spelling the eighth year the entire cost of the eighth grade could be eliminated, pupils learning as much in seven years as now in eight. Upon a rough computation, in which the cost of land and buildings is ignored, I make out that by carrying its elementary schooling thru seven grades only, and canceling the eighth, Chicago could save not less than 4 per cent. of what the present eight-grade system costs. The lessened amount necessary for land, buildings, and high-school expenses would certainly swell the saving to 5 per cent.

This percentage might be expected to amount to a considerably higher figure but for the following reason, which shows that it is impossible to separate this economic consideration from the pedagogical one. Sane spelling, by cutting off a year from the elementary-school course, would very considerably increase the proportion of the pupils who complete that course and the proportion who press on into and thru the high school, thus enabling the school system to accomplish its end much more completely than now.

Suppose the percentage of reduction by this means suggested to be but 5 per cent., the yearly saving effected by Chicago, with a population of, say, two million, would approximate three hundred thousand dollars—enough to make a sensible addition to teachers' wages. At the same rate a nation of eighty million would save yearly twelve million dollars. This figure relates only to the public or common schools. For all the schools, academies, colleges, and universities of every kind in a nation of eighty million it would probably rise to fifteen million dollars or more.

To make the above remarks practical, I beg leave to move as follows:

Resolved, That the Department of Superintendence be recommended to overture the National Educational Association to order the twelve forms "bizness," "enuf," "fether," "mesure," "plesure," "red" (past tense of *read*), "ruf," "trawf," "tru," "tuf," "tung," "yung," used hereafter in all its publications instead of the longer forms now used.

Resolved, That the Department of Superintendence be recommended to urge that superintendents advise their teachers that in appraising pupils' work words spelled after the styles of the National Educational Association be not considered misspelled.

WHAT CAN MOST WISELY BE DONE TO HASTEN SIMPLER SPELLING?

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A brief answer to this question may safely be offered in the reply: At the outset, it were certainly most wise to endeavor to profit by the hard experience of the past. Inasmuch as this problem has presented itself for generations in many countries, notably in England, France, and Germany, there is considerable experience to draw from. Moreover, the present moment appears particularly opportune for continuing to enlist public interest, for the subject has received of late an unusual amount of attention at home and abroad. Japan is on the eve of adopting a phonetic alphabet of Roman letters. In Germany the university men and the magazine writers are bringing strong influence in the direction of common-sense to bear upon the written language. This is seen particularly in the adoption more and more of Roman type instead of the German in printing, and in the suppression of capital letters in the spelling of common nouns. Useless letters are being gradually driven out; for example, the words for *animal*, *worth*, and *red* are no longer spelled with an *h* as formerly, but, respectively, *tier*, *wert*, *rot*. Tradition, prejudice, and conservatism offer formidable opposition to such innovations; yet, notwithstanding, something in the way of simplification is gradually being accomplished.

France has been aroused as never before by the report of the learned commission

appointed by the minister of public instruction. This commission was intrusted with the duty of presenting suggestions for the simplification of spelling. The report was presented in July, 1904, and created a sensation. Nevertheless, according to M. Paul Meyer, the well-known professor at the École des Chartes, the reforms recommended were not revolutionary, merely aiming to preserve the spelling that corresponds to the true pronunciation as well as to logic and common-sense. The principle seems to have been to suppress useless letters, and, in a certain number of words, to adapt the spelling to the pronunciation. The arguments for so doing were based on logic or common-sense. The opposition was violent. It came largely from artists, poets, or prose-writers, to whom words mean more than mere stenographic signs. They cannot bear to see the poems of their favorite authors, and especially their own productions, appear in a form which renders them monstrous or comical. To them such simplifications are sacrilegious and the reformers are hateful iconoclasts. The report of the French Academy accepted changes in 150 words only, for which two spellings will be tolerated, one the proposed rational, the other the traditional. This result shows the force of the resistance that any similar proposition is bound to encounter.

Here in our own country there are several quite well defined movements aiming in the same general direction, that is, toward the simplification of complex conditions—the Ben Pitman, the Carnegie, the Phonetic English Alphabet recently prepared by a joint committee representing the National Educational Association, the American Philological Association, and the Modern Language Association of America, and lastly the Boston University movement. All of these efforts deserve the cordial support of those who desire to see something accomplished in the direction of indicating pronunciation phonetically. The principle involved is absolutely right. As a matter of fact, the progress that any of these efforts makes in bringing to pass the object aimed at is almost infinitesimal—certainly out of all proportion to the time, labor, and money expended. Tradition, force of habit, conservatism, and indifference are some of the immediate obstacles that have proved practically insuperable—not to mention direct opposition. It is obviously easy to criticise each of the above plans for bringing about ultimately the object sought—simplicity of sound-notation. Pitman's dot, for instance, making the vowel long, occurring rather frequently, is nothing other than a diacritic, the absence of which, inadvertently or otherwise, works complete disaster. Of the twelve words—*program*, *catalog*, etc., proposed for simplification by the promoters of the Carnegie movement, the two just cited are those that have had some measure of success. The serious obstacle encountered here is that, even tho you write these words as suggested, the publishers will rarely print them so. This method has been compared to trying to shave one's self by plucking out each individual hair. The growing keeps pace with the plucking. The time, effort, and money expended is out of all proportion to the tangible results.

As regards the Joint Committee's Phonetic English Alphabet, it simply takes its stand with the series of other phonetic alphabets awaiting recognition. Moreover, prepared by American scholars, without the participation of English scholars, it is questionable whether the latter will use it. This effort, then, simply continues existing conditions, and adds one more key to the numerous dictionary keys already in existence. Besides, inasmuch as the Joint Commission decided to adopt the system of the International Phonetic Association to indicate the pronunciation of French words used in English, we have here two keys in one dictionary. As the foreign words are those most likely to be looked up for pronunciation, the chances are that the foreign key will become the more familiar of the two.

These remarks are in no wise intended to disparage the above laudable efforts, but to show the nature of the criticism upon them.

Lastly, the Boston University movement, aiming primarily to secure uniformity in indicating pronunciation in all dictionaries and standard works of reference; and, sec-

ondarily, by so doing, accomplishing something in the direction of simplification of spelling. On August 26, 1904, Boston University, complying with a request indorsed by some 120 prominent men, issued a preliminary circular inviting opinions on the proposal to hold an international phonetic conference for the purpose of adopting a universal alphabet to serve as a key to pronunciation in dictionaries and standard works of reference. Briefly summarized, the need of such an alphabet was explained as follows: As a matter of necessity, every important dictionary uses a key to pronunciation, but, owing to the multiplicity of keys, not one of them becomes familiar to the public; on the contrary, the number and divergence of these keys render them for the majority of students practically useless. There is no satisfactory reason why Murray's *English Dictionary* should use one system for indicating pronunciation, the *Century Dictionary* another, and *Webster* and *Worcester* still another. That is, there is no good reason why all these dictionaries should not use the same key to pronunciation. Moreover, there is no adequate reason why the letters comprising that key should not have such form as would be convenient also for ordinary writing and printing. Such a universal key to pronunciation would at once establish a universally recognized phonetic spelling. Students of foreign languages would find it convenient to have the pronunciation indicated to them by letters with which they were already familiar. The system once introduced in all dictionaries would soon be used in manuals, primers, and in all books in which it is desirable to indicate pronunciation.

The criticisms to the movement for a universal alphabet, together with the replies thereto, will be found in the Circular Inviting Opinions issued in 1905 by the Boston University. Let it suffice here to say, in reply to the objection that the scheme is impractical: Look at the extensive use to which the alphabet of the International Association is already put for every kind of purpose here and abroad. The reply to the objection that such an alphabet, in the nature of the case, must be cumbersome is that the average student has no occasion to use all the signs, and generally uses but a few more than he is obliged to in transcribing his native tongue. Practically, instead of being applied to all languages, as the name "universal" would imply, the alphabet would largely serve its purpose in its application to English, French, German, Italian, and Spanish. The three last-named tongues being written far more phonetically than either English or French, the alphabet would have its greatest practical bearing upon these two unphonetic tongues. A uniform system once generally recognized for indicating the pronunciation of these five world-languages would make its influence felt upon other languages in the direction of their conformity to the universal, or world alphabet.

Thousands of children who are now growing up and receiving a good education are taught not only the essentials of one foreign language, but of two, or even three—Latin, French, and German. Phonetics is not a fad in language study; it has come to stay. The principles involved in acquiring the sounds of any language are the same.

In Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Germany, France, and England, phonetic transcription in acquiring the sounds of language is being used more widely than ever. Modern civilization is rendering us every day more cosmopolitan, more international. Why, then, should a child first learn a phonetic spelling for English, another for Latin, a third for French, and still another for German? Such a method is confusing, and leads to the same senseless result obtained by the divergent dictionary keys—each one serving to efface the other. In a word, what is most wanted is not a particular system adapted to special needs, but a uniform phonetic transcription that scholars everywhere will use for popular scientific purposes. Such a universal system will not only accomplish its object, but will in so doing illustrate as never before the value of the science of phonetics.

Introduced into geographical, scientific, and language works, in which pronunication is usually indicated, the rising generation, continually in touch with the system thru primers and manuals, will get into the habit of using that alphabet whenever they have occasion to indicate pronunciation. They will become familiar with the phonetic spelling as well as with the traditional.

The main object desired, then, is not merely an alphabet—because there are scores of them and good ones—but an alphabet *that will be used*. The stress is emphatically upon the *will be used*. For the past four centuries, alphabets have been invented and treatises written in the orthography of the inventor. These alphabets have been singularly unsuccessful in gaining the attention of the public. Nevertheless, the ardor of inventors who continue to offer phonetic alphabets has in no wise diminished. The stress has always been placed on perfection instead of utility. In the nature of the case, perfection is an impossibility. What alphabet, however restricted, is perfect? In the solution of this problem, perfection is a relative factor, whose importance has been so magnified as to nullify almost completely, up to the present time, the end in view. In a certain sense, it may be said, the more perfect the alphabet, the less its utility. Consequently, alphabets for specific needs have but few who use them. The climax of the quest for absolute accuracy is reached when each dictionary employs a key of its own.

In this country there are three main objects for which a phonetic alphabet is useful: (1) as a key in dictionaries; (2) in dialect research; (3) in class work in languages, particularly French.

The first use of a phonetic alphabet, as a key to pronunciation, in dictionaries, is so obvious that it is needless here to say more. Let it suffice to say, in regard to the second use, that of dialect research, that there is sufficient work of that character done in this country to justify the existence of the American Dialect Society. It is in the third use, that of language work in classes, that the use of a phonetic alphabet is most clearly shown. It is here, too, that its ultimate influence in hastening simplicity in spelling is likely to make itself most felt. At the present time, for example, a certain French grammar indicating the pronunciation by means of the symbols of the International Phonetic Association is very widely used thruout the United States and Canada. The meaning of this statement is that now thousands of children are familiarizing themselves with this system of indicating pronunciation. Moreover, a whole series of international dictionaries with this same system of figured pronunciation is in process of publication. The volume French-English and English-French has already appeared, and is being much used in school, college, and library work. This statement, like the preceding, is significant.

Aware of what has been done in the past, as well as of what is now taking place, it is the belief of the promoters of the Boston University movement that what can most wisely be done to hasten simpler spelling is, first and foremost, the avoidance of the repetition of the experience of the past. Instead, then, of adding to the numerous phonetic alphabets already in existence by inventing a new one, take the one already most widely used thruout the world for the purposes just enumerated, and use it for just such purposes. The experience of four centuries shows that any new system, be it ideal if you will, simply has to take its chances with all the others already awaiting recognition and go thru precisely the same vicissitudes.

Of the scores of existing phonetic alphabets, there is one that is decidedly in the van. This well-known method is being used more widely than ever, not only on the continent and in England, but in this country. It employs the phonetic transcription of the International Association. At present, in different countries, there are published more than one hundred books in which this uniform alphabet is used. Some of these works have had a very large sale, spreading the system far and wide: the Passy-Rambeau *Chrestomathie Française*, the best-known book of the kind in this country, and the most generally used of the works on French phonetics; Miss Soames's book in England; the Passy books in France; Rossmann and Schmidt in Germany; the Fraser and Squair *French Grammar* in this country; and also a set of international dictionaries of foreign languages published by Hinds, Noble & Eldredge in New York. The Fraser and Squair *Grammar* has been widely used thruout the United States and Canada, and is today the most effective means of introducing the system of the International Association to the rising generation.

The Hinds, Noble & Eldredge dictionary enterprise bids fair to eclipse in magnitude all similar ventures, and to spread far and wide this useful phonetic system, which is coming of itself, and which can easily be promoted and hastened. It must be obvious that in any attempt to adopt universal alphabet the International System will have to be reckoned with.

Meantime, the question is: What can most wisely be done to *hasten* the coming of simpler spelling? The reply is: Using the most widely used phonetic alphabet. That will hasten what, as just pointed out, is already coming of itself. The principle involved is that a system that is uniform, tho far from adequate, if it comes into general use renders incomparably better service than the countless individual systems employed only by their inventors.

In order the sooner to secure an alphabet that will be generally used, all of those interested in the simplification of spelling, in uniform keys for dictionaries, in dialect research, and in language instruction in class work should get together in a solid phalanx and use for their particular purpose one uniform system. In reply to an inquiry, the editors and publishers of the leading American dictionaries have declared, with practical unanimity, that if phonetists would agree on a uniform scientific alphabet, that alphabet would of necessity be used as a key to pronunciation in future editions of dictionaries. The importance of this statement can hardly be overestimated. It has been truly said: "Agree on a uniform alphabet and fold your arms, the spelling reform will come of itself."

Out of some eight hundred replies received by the promoters of the Boston University movement for securing uniformity in indicating pronunciation, comprising many from the most qualified experts at home and abroad, only three per cent. were opposed to the project. The ninety-seven per cent. composing the majority declared a conference to be the only satisfactory means to arrive at any agreement. Without an agreement, reform cannot be hastened. Reform, in fact, means agreement. The problem is then reduced to a question of money. The foremost authorities in phonetics are well known. Even tho all the results hoped for thru such a commission might not be realized, yet many points upon which agreement is possible and desirable could be settled. For instance, the marking of stress, quantity, nasality, voice, voiceless, word-division, etc. This result in itself, small as it may seem, would make a conference worth while, and hasten the ultimate object.

Besides the efforts of Boston University for the cause, New York University, Leland Stanford, the University of Wisconsin, and the University of Maine are acting as receivers of funds which, in small sums, are constantly coming in. Moreover, pledges to contribute certain sums have been received from representatives of many colleges and universities, not only in this country, but all over the world, as well as from private individuals desirous of promoting the cause. Educational institutions and men of science are, however, proverbially poor in material resources, yet thus far they have furnished not only their powerful moral support, but what they could financially for the cause.

It has been estimated that the sum of $10,000 would be sufficient to realize such a conference as contemplated. In view of the fact that donations for public purposes in the United States have recently averaged $100,000,000 a year, it ought not to be difficult for the friends of the present movement to obtain the small sum needed for a work of such manifest necessity and such far-reaching importance.

By abandoning the attempt to insist on the form, and by putting the stress on unity, you are likely to get, in the first place, results; secondly, you can improve on them later.

DISCUSSION

President David Felmley, of the Normal University, Normal, Ill.—English spelling tends to shatter a child's belief in the doctrine that this is a world of law. What ought to be done? The N. E. A. list is too short. President Felmley then read extracts from a letter

from Professor Calvin Thomas suggesting that the National Educational Association cause a spelling primer to be made and offered to primary schools with its sanction.

President Charles McKinney, of the State Normal School, Milwaukee, Wis., reported on some investigations made for the purpose of learning to what extent the educational journals of the country are using the N. E. A. simplified spelling list, and whether they would agree to use a more extended list if it were offered. Somewhat more than a fourth of all such journals now use all of the list, about one-half use only a portion of it, and a fourth say that they are opposed to it. He suggested that persons present might aid the cause by efforts to induce their state educational journals to use the N. E. A. list.

W. T. Harris, U. S. Commissioner of Education, commended Chancellor Andrews' paper and Professor Hempl's remarks, and cautioned against too much haste in the cause. He said that real advance in the cause will be made only when the children in some school begin to use the list, and when a pronouncing alphabet has been made and accepted.

THE INCORRIGIBLE CHILD

MISS JULIA RICHMAN, DISTRICT SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, NEW YORK CITY

The incorrigible child makes me think of the story of a band of street boys, one of whom had a big apple and was eating it alone. Six pairs of eyes, hungry and envious, watched him sadly. One lad, at last, could contain himself no longer: "Say, Dick," he burst out, "will yer gimme de core?" Between bites, Dick replied: "Dere ain't goin' ter be no core."

"Dere ain't goin' ter be no incorrigible child," ladies and gentlemen, when we shall have come to see that every child, properly understood and properly trained, is "good to the core." I need not define the incorrigible child. We all know him as the child that hates school, torments the teacher, demoralizes the class, disobeys the rules, and defies authority—even the laws of the state. He is present in every school, and, if reports may be relied upon, is present in ever-increasing numbers. He it is who is responsible for the nervousness and breakdown of many a teacher who succumbs to his torments. He it is who burdens and weights down the best of teachers by his presence in the class. He it is who robs the rest of the class of time and instruction by his drafts upon the energy and patience of the teacher. But "with all his faults, I love him still."

I have seen and am seeing the incorrigible boy at his worst—in a section of the congested East Side of New York City, where over twenty-five thousand school children, of both sexes, are housed within an area of less than half a square mile. For many years school accommodations in this section of the great metropolis have been inadequate. Even now, after eight years of constant effort on the part of recent boards of education, the number of schools is not equal to the needs of the district. For many years children had been kept upon a waiting list, or sent away from school, because there was "no room." The compulsory-education law could not be enforced, because there was no school place for the non-attendant. Have you any idea of what happens to the boy of the tenements, if he is left on the streets for a year or two? Take

the history of the boys committed to city or penal institutions during the last ten years, and you will learn. Read the biography of the city's professional loafer, and you will find out. The boy kept out of school gets his education on the streets, and graduates in loaferism, gambling, and burglary by the time he is fourteen. This has been the fate of many hundreds of boys, ruined for life because of administrative niggardliness, or because of the official wickedness of those teachers and principals who attempt to maintain discipline by driving the troublesome boys out of school. But this condition has gone by in New York. "Compulsory truancy" is a thing of the past, because every child must now attend school, even tho for the younger children in some sections, owing to the lack of accommodations, only part-time instruction can be afforded. In consequence of better administrative methods, hundreds of children, mainly boys, have been brought into the schools, lawless, undisciplined, untutored; fitted by age and size for the middle and upper grammar grades, unfitted in book-learning for any but the lowest primary classes; ignorant as new-born babes of all that the course of study demands; wise as veterans in all street shrewdness and knowledge of the seamy side of life. Introduce five or six of these street arabs into any class, and can you not foresee the result? Tired, discouraged teachers must refer extreme cases of discipline to the principal; tired, discouraged principals must give valuable time and their best energies to the investigation and treatment of the acts of delinquents. Add to these internal burdens the additional one of the boy paroled by the children's court; the boy known to be a thief; the boy known by his classmates to have been arrested; the boy known by his confederates to have been sent back to school unpunished; the boy whose answer to the question, "What did they do to you in court?" is, "Oh, nuttin'; de judge jest talked soft ter me"—and the result is disheartening.

The incorrigible child, now counted by the score, must soon be counted by the hundred, unless remedial and preventive measures can be immediately applied. On the one hand, there are the boys already bad, who must be reclaimed; on the other hand, there are the boys not yet corrupted, who must be saved. In every class there are children several years beyond the age for which the regular grade work is designed. Think of the effect upon the boy of twelve or fourteen who, having spent years upon the street peddling, gambling, and often stealing, is forced to attend school with forty, or fifty, or sixty little fellows of six or seven, and compelled to repeat with them, "One apple and two apples are three apples!" Think, too, of the effect upon these six- or seven-year-old babes of associating with the boy who swears, gambles, and smokes, and who has eaten of the fruit of the tree of knowledge, of less good than evil. Let me say right here that the first-year classes are meant for the babes, and the second-year classes for those a bit older; and the child of ten or eleven or twelve or older has no place in the regular classes of the first three years, no matter how ignorant he may be of reading, writing, or arithmetic. Such a classification of the older boy has a bad subjective

influence upon him, and a correspondingly bad objective influence upon the child for whom the grade work was planned.

My first recommendation, therefore, to meet these conditions, is the formation of special classes for the children over age. It will be found that, with few exceptions—so few as to be almost a negligible quantity—the incorrigible child will find his way into the special class, which at once relieves the regular classes of the most objectionable material. The teachers for special classes must obviously be selected with great care, in order to secure for these backward children the teaching power and the sympathy and the encouragement necessary to bring them forward more rapidly than is possible in the regular classes. The so-called non-essential studies should be taken from the course, and the teacher's whole energy devoted to carrying the children on to meet the academic requirements of the child-labor law. Much attention, too, should be given to physical training. Promotion from group to group and from class to class should be promised, and given at any time that progress is evident, and each child should be made to understand that this special grading is solely for his benefit. In New York this experiment showed good results from the beginning. Many a boy, responding for the first time to a real interest in his welfare, began to realize the importance of trying to please his teacher; and later not only showed interest in his work, but a real desire to learn. Many of these boys, who had been, or were destined to become, incorrigible under the old classification, were saved by being placed where work was provided suited to their years and ability, and where an earnest teacher was willing and able to give them the individual help and encouragement they needed.

The formation of special classes helped much, but it did not solve all the difficulties. The incorrigible child and the chronic truant were still too much in evidence. The former, after having had a fair trial under at least two teachers, was officially suspended by the principal. To have returned to his old school, a suspended boy, whether sinned against or sinning, would not only have had a bad effect upon other children, but it would have made it difficult for the delinquent to do his best. There is much truth in the old adage: "Give a dog a bad name and hang him." The transfer to another school was accompanied by a warning that a second suspension would result in commitment to the truant or parental school—a threat invariably executed. The principal of the school whither the boy was transferred, was made acquainted with the circumstances, and the boy placed, if possible, in the class of a good teacher. He was also placed on parole to the district superintendent, at whose office he was compelled to report every Saturday, bringing with him a record of daily attendance and conduct. In like manner, all chronic truants, and all children placed on probation by the children's court, were compelled to report to the district superintendent. A word of praise, a word of admonishment, a moment's friendly conversation, the loan or gift of a book, a ticket to a ball game or some good entertainment—these things

give the superintendent a hold upon paroled boys, and a claim which most of them will recognize. In my experience, several got to a point where they would polish their shoes, smooth their hair, and wear collars, when they came to see me. I did not always talk "soft." When a boy deserved a scolding, he got it, and he respected me all the more for it, so long as I "played fair." It is "playing fair" that wins a boy's heart. On one occasion I gave a letter to a paroled boy who had removed. In this letter I asked the principal of an up-town school to place Harry in the class of a teacher who would encourage him when he tried to do what was right. I read the letter to the boy and asked: "Do you know what I mean by that, Harry?" "Yes, you mean a teacher who won't holler at me for every little thing." It is the teacher who "hollers" at a boy or class "for every little thing" that helps to make the incorrigible child. If only all teachers could be taught to "play fair"!

The chronic truant gives much trouble. There are many causes which lead to truancy, and scientific treatment will eradicate much of the evil. The subject, however, merits a chapter of its own. "The call of the street" is irresistible to some boys. After two or three attempts on the part of the attendance officers to keep a truant at school, the parent and child are summoned to appear before the district superintendent. If upon investigation it appears that the parent is to blame, the case is dismissed upon the understanding that following the next offense the matter will be taken before a magistrate, with a request that he impose a fine upon the parent. If, owing to lack of parental control, the blame rests solely upon the boy, he is warned, placed upon parole, and upon a repetition of the truancy is committed to the truant school.

Unfortunately, the capacity of the two truant schools in New York is only about one hundred and eighty. With a school population of over half a million, such an equipment is absurdly inadequate. Better accommodations are under way, but some of our troubles past and present are due to this inadequacy. It takes but a few weeks after the opening of the fall term to fill the truant schools; then follow other trials and commitments. In order to accommodate the newer commitments, vacancies in the truant school must be created, either by returning a good boy to his home or by sending an exceedingly troublesome one to some reformatory institution. This is the weakest and wickedest part of the truancy system. The boy sent home too soon invariably has a relapse. The boy sent to a correctional institution, after some months usually comes back wholly corrupted. Intimate association with boys worse than himself corrupts the individual boy to a point almost beyond redemption. Last spring the removal from our city of one great institution sent about a thousand children back to their homes. All under fourteen were ordered to attend school. Many of these became the most demoralizing element in the schools, and within two months the majority of those sent to my district had to be recommitted, either thru the children's

court or thru my office. Unfortunately, however, before their recommitment they had organized their own little gangs, and had started other lads on the evil road. Many of my paroled boys, perhaps more weak than wicked, attracted by the strong personality of one or another of these young law-breakers, drifted into evil ways, and arrest often followed. For a time last spring it seeemd as tho all our efforts, which for many months had been unremitting, had proved futile; complaints from the schools became more frequent; discouragement met us at every turn. The heaviest burdens were directly traceable to the "ticket-of-leave" boys from correctional institutions. With this absolute knowledge in my possession, there came a determination to keep my boys, even my "incorrigibles," out of all institutions if possible, and to try to bring about reform in some other way. It was easy to determine that I should recommend no more for commitment; but what could I do with the bad boy? To turn him adrift was out of the question; to keep him in the regular school was equally out of the question; I would not send him to the truant school; consequently a special school was needed.

Our school board authorized the establishment of a special school for truant and incorrigible boys, using for the purpose a small, old-fashioned school building in my district. (The bad girl must be differently dealt with, and before long something definite, I trust, may be undertaken for her reclamation.) Altho this special school was designed solely for the most undesirable material in the regular schools, it was deemed ill-advised to stigmatize it by giving it a name which might carry with it offense either to the children enrolled or to their parents. Therefore it goes by its old name, Public School 120, under the same general management and supervision as the regular elementary schools.

It was, of course, essential that no mistake be made in the choice of a principal. Not only was it necessary to find some one fitted to do this delicate and important work; it was quite as necessary that he or she should be willing to undertake a task so beset with trials and opportunities for discouragement. Thank God that among the men and women in our profession there are not a few of the class whom Matthew Arnold characterizes as "divinely touched," and a more capable, patient, earnest, loyal, God-serving group of men and women than forms the teaching force of Public School No. 120 it would be hard to find. The school was organized about the middle of last October. The pupils were taken from a new and novel kind of eligible list. Every principal within my districts was directed to make a list of the most serious discipline cases among the boys in his or her school, writing out a short history of each case, and arranging the list in the order of demerit—the worst boy at the top. I shall never forget the impression made upon me upon my first visit to that school. About sixty boys, every one of them with a history; hardness, mistrust, ugliness, written on almost every face; a latent desire to resist authority in every heart—it seemed to me as tho I had done a cruel thing in loading such a responsibility upon the principal and her teachers.

That was four months ago. Today those same boys, and others of their kind, who have since been sent to the school, are growing more and more susceptible to good influences; and I believe that from their ranks there will come boys so clearly and definitely started in the right way that many of them will develop into respectable citizens, if not even successful men. The majority of the boys, altho averaging thirteen years of age, were absolutely unfitted for intellectual work of any kind. Some could not write their names; some could not work the simplest examples; most were chronic truants; almost all were cigarette-smokers and crap-shooters; most were liars; many were known to be thieves; profanity rolled from almost every pair of lips. One feeling, however, was strong within me: that whatever might be the effect upon the boys, the teachers, or the principal of this school, the effect upon the regular schools, brought about by the removal of this element, must be tremendously helpful.

Every incentive was offered to make the school attractive. Academic requirements were kept in the background, until respect for the teacher, respect for authority, and self-respect had been, in part at least, developed. The school was a boon to those boys: boys who had been driven from pillar to post; boys who had been the disturbing influence in their classes; boys who had been beaten by their parents with or without cause; boys who had been run down by the police—the veritable pariahs of school life. Have you any idea what it means to such a boy suddenly to find himself under an influence so directed that he discovers that he is of interest to somebody; that someone cares for him; that when he tries, someone is pleased; that when he backslides, someone is grieved. This is what many of those boys found for the first time; and, under the sunshine of friendly interest and thoughtful care, some of the hardness that had grown about the tender spot which can be found in almost every boy's heart began to soften and to melt; as the soft spot showed its presence, the skillful teacher, tenderly, carefully, prayerfully, kept on melting the hard outer crust and giving the warm spot encouragement to develop; and as the heart grew warm, something in the face changed. The hard, sullen, rebellious look disappears at times; occasionally there is the light of hope on the face; in a few cases the old look has entirely disappeared. Some day some of these boys, who but for this influence in their lives would have found their way into the House of Refuge, and into other hotbeds of vice and iniquity, will be able to hold up their heads as honest, decent, law-abiding citizens. Can any greater reward come to the teacher than the knowledge that he or she has achieved this?

Success has not come in every case. One boy has already had to be given up as hopeless, not only because he would not lend himself to any of the good influences at work, but because his influence over the other boys was so terribly demoralizing that for their sakes he had to be removed. His case was referred to the Children's Society. Another boy had to be sent to an asylum for mental defectives. Five or six have been lost to us because

of criminal conduct outside of school, which led to their arrest and commitment by the court. Some were sent back to the regular schools at the beginning of the February term, pronounced absolutely cured by their teachers and principal. Several were carefully prepared to meet the academic requirements of the child-labor law, and they have gone out to work now properly qualified and properly certificated. In some of these cases the boys were carried forward thru the essentials of three or four regular grades. Many of them had keen minds and needed merely to be shown how, and to be encouraged, to enable them to make astonishing progress. The boys are proud of their school, and in most cases a class pride has enabled them to make effort that was impossible to the individual child.

Considerable attention has been given to physical training and athletic development. One of the most astonishing phases of this work was disclosed when these boys, who had lived their lives on the street, were found to be absolutely unable to do regular physical exercises. They seemed to be utterly without muscular development; the simplest physical tasks seemed beyond them. They were awkward, unwieldy, and heavy-footed. The change in this direction has been marked. A basket-ball team was organized soon after the opening of the school, and the boys have learned how to do creditable team work. Their team had been practicing less than six weeks when they asked permission to compete in an interschool contest in the district. They were of course beaten, because the other teams had been in practice for many months. They took their defeat amiably, but demanded that they should be taught a school cry of their own, because the winning team had its school cry.

Many incidents might be here recorded, but for lack of time I shall narrate only one.

Philip, thirteen years of age, was placed high upon the eligible list at the time that the school was opened. He was a chronic truant, and at the time of his transfer was a vagrant, not having slept at home for some time. It took two attendance officers and two teachers three weeks to find the boy and bring him into school. He remained about two hours and then ran out, and was gone for another week. Finally he was brought back again, and this time he remained. About four weeks later, during which time he had not once played truant, and in several other ways had shown a desire to do well, he went into the principal's office, where the following conversation took place:

Boy: Say, Miss Jones, there's two fellers on my street what don't go ter school. If I make 'em come, will yer take 'em in?

Principal: Why don't they go to school?

Boy: They ain't been in no school for a long while.

Principal: Where did they use to go to school?

Boy: They didn't go ter no public, they went ter de Brudder's. Say, Miss Jones, won't yer take 'em in if I make 'em come?

Principal: You can't make them come.

Boy: Now, never yer mind what I can do. Will yer take 'em in if I make 'em come?

Principal: I'll take them.

And he went off. Next morning he came into Miss Jones' office and literally threw two boys at her, having brought them into the school holding each by the collar. Their

home was fully half a mile from the school. "Here's them two fellers. Didn't I tell yer I could bring 'em?" And he had. The two boys in question, upon investigation, were found to have been away from school for seven months, spending their entire time upon the street. They were at first irregular in attendance, but two or three visits to the home of the grandmother, with whom they lived, and a rather sharp letter to the father, brought about reform in this direction, and they are now attending regularly.

I leave it to the psychologist to discover what was Philip's motive in bringing these two boys into the fold. In my optimistic moods I like to believe that, having felt the good influence of the school, he wished his friends to share that influence; but there are other times when I think a feeling of envy that these boys could be on the street while he was at work may have been the dominating force. However, this is not the time to analyze motives. Three chronic truants are now attending regularly, and that in itself is justification enough for the existence of such a school as the one I have described.

One of the teachers in this special school told me that he never hesitated to talk to the boys about their bad reputation:

They knew that they were bad boys, and they knew that I knew it. By comparing the results of honest life and earnest work with the results of dishonesty and idleness, I aroused a slight spirit of shame and hurt pride, and, I believe, created a little desire to do right. I appealed at first to the material side of every question of right and wrong. I talked dollars and cents as the result of work, and the lack of them as a consequence of neglect. The response was astonishing. Later, after I had gained a fair control of the class and developed some spirit of right-doing by simple talks, I tried to get the boys to do right because they wished to do so. Having grown up in New York streets myself, I am "wise" to everything they do. I astonish them a little by a few stories about the street, and make them understand that they are wasting time when they try to lie to me. In consequence they have stopped lying, and now only exaggerate. The gymnasium and shop raised high hopes of having a fine time. These hopes were turned to use, and the boys were led to accomplishing set tasks. Their predominating characteristics are personal pride and a supersensitive feeling of injustice to themselves. By appealing to class pride I have had an almost perfect attendance for many weeks. A boy played truant one morning; about half-past ten he came in, confessed he had been "on the hook," felt ashamed of having spoiled the class record, and so came in willing to accept his punishment. I have appealed to individual pride, wherever possible, by praising every time I could find the slightest chance. Praising one boy publicly for something that others had failed to do has a good effect upon the boys who fail. They recognize the point quickly, and a rivalry for obtaining this praise is easily aroused. One boy punched another in the eye, because that other had received from me more praise than the puncher thought he deserved. Among these boys the will is exceedingly strong. In most cases it is perverted. The great difficulty is to overcome this perversion. The only way clear to me is to develop feeling instead. Sympathy toward them is an absolute necessity. They are quick as Topsy to notice any aversion. The teacher's reward for effort comes mainly from their ready response to personal kindness. The teaching of book knowledge is a difficult matter. The boys have a strong aversion to work at set tasks. To overcome this, all possible interest must be aroused. Here, also, the material side of life must be used as an argument. I reminded them of good jobs, fine positions, liberal salaries obtained by others because they could do just such work as I was attempting to teach. The response was astonishing. In dealing with these boys the teacher's patience must be inexhaustible. Lack of attention and lack of application are very strong habits in the bad boy. The hope of reward proves a stronger incentive than to

ordinary boys. They are born "grafters," and will work for prizes or pay, when work for work's sake is impossible. Because of the hope of reward and some form of praise, I have seen my class, as a whole, steadily working at one set task for a full hour. That alone, in my opinion, was a victory over them; that alone showed the worth of just such special treatment as we are now giving them. It is possible to make these boys worth much, altho the process is long, tedious, and at times very discouraging. They do not retain well anything that is taught them, except possibly arithmetic. This, however, should not prove discouraging, because there is enough victory for the teacher if these boys can be induced to attend regularly, obey willingly, and apply themselves to work. A premium should be placed upon effort, not knowledge. This causes the boy to try. Our work here has been difficult; but all of us feel that the school has met a great neighborhood need, and that it is achieving an immeasurable amount of good.

From all the teachers I have reports on individual progress. Every case is worthy of record. The limitations of a single address make it impossible to do more than quote one typical case.

S., age fourteen, was both a truant and incorrigible. For the first few weeks he persisted in leaving his seat, walking about the room, and talking every minute of the time except when fighting his neighbor. His main purpose seemed to be saucy to his teacher and to let everybody know he had no fear of punishment. He knew absolutely nothing. He could not read and would not attempt to read. He would grow ugly if I made the mistake of asking him to do so. I found out that he liked arithmetic because he knew a little more about such work. I gave him twice as many examples as the others, assuring him that I knew he could do double the work that any other boy could do in the same time. Later I informed him that, if he could read as well as he could cipher, he might stand highest in the class. He waited after school every day for private help. I began with the blackboard and a first reader; later a second reader. In six or seven weeks he had mastered the subject. Today he will read any book he can lay a hand on. I consider this boy one of the best cases of reform in the school. The other day he handed me an old blankbook and said: "Please write in here the things you said about me. My father doesn't think it's true that I am a good boy." Recently he changed his seat to get next to a friend. Foreseeing the result, I said: "S., you may, if you wish to, sit there; but I should like to see you sitting just where I can look at you and where I always know I can find you." A smile came over that face, and the reply was: "I don't care much for myself; it is just as you want me." Within a month this boy will be able to take out his employment certificate, and will carry with him into life respect for every individual in authority. How can I help calling this a case of complete reform?

The following table is a fair, accurate statement of the condition of the special school on February 1:

Total number admitted to date	140
Sent back to regular schools cured	5
Received employment certificates (3 more to go soon)	4
Went to work at sixteenth birthday	6
Mentally not responsible	*12
Mentally lacking (not so pronounced as former)	*6
Arrested and committed by court since admitted to Public School No. 120	6
Arrested and paroled—ditto	7
Chronic truants before attending Public School No. 120	118
Number of these absolutely cured of truancy	100
(Those not yet reformed are mainly pupils lately admitted)	
Number thoroly reformed on all charges	33
(Of these 5 will always need special care)	
Number improving steadily	42

* Soon to be placed in a special class for defectives.

Number improving spasmodically 32
Number improving but very slightly 10
Number showing no improvement at all 20

(This last item includes 6 arrested and committed, and 6 not yet attending a month)

Surely, no further evidence is needed to convince even the most skeptical that a school of this kind would be a benefit to any community. But such schools would not be so imperatively needed, had proper measures always been applied in our regular schools and classes. If the true history of each one of these boys were written, it would be shown that many sins of commission, as well as of omission, on the part of teachers, principals, and superintendents, helped to make these delinquents what they were.

I referred some time ago to the special classes for children over age. This question needs attention. The special class appeals strongly to the backward child, who has often been troublesome because he was not interested in the work of his class. An appeal to his good sense brings about a co-operation with the teacher in her efforts to carry him thru two or more grades of school work in one term. I have on hand many records which read as follows:

L V., age twelve, went from 1B to 4A in five months. Extreme discipline problem before being put into special class; now an earnest worker.

L. R., age fifteen, from 2A to 4B in five months. Bad boy before being placed in special class; now good and industrious.

J. S., age thirteen, from 3A through 5A in seven months. Had been very troublesome; now obedient and industrious.

H. S., age twelve, 3A to 5A in seven months. Very disorderly before being placed in special class; thoroly reformed.

The foregoing were all boys.

L. S., a girl, age twelve, from 1B to 3B in five months. Previously known as a bad girl.

S. K., age eleven, 1B to 3B in two months. Previously known as a bad girl.

R. F., age twelve, from 2B to 4A in seven months. Troublesome and difficult to handle before being placed in special class; now gives no trouble.

And so the records run.

Is there anything that can be done for the incorrigible child, where conditions are not favorable for organized reform along the lines of special classes or special schools? Have you ever seen a number of children playing the game called "Follow Master"? The leader is chosen, or chooses himself, and the laws of the game require all that follow him to imitate exactly whatever he does or says. No matter how absurd, no matter how ridiculous, no matter how foolish, no matter how dangerous his movements may be, the game demands from all the others blind, unthinking imitation. We, at the top of our profession, are leading our principals and teachers in a great game of "follow master." Are we possibly leading our followers to do what is absurd, or ridiculous, or foolish, or even dangerous? There is something pathetic in the way principals and teachers try to do those things which they believe the superintendent desires them to do. Are we superintendents always leading wisely in this great game? Is it not possible that while we have been

leading toward penmanship of a certain character and style; reading according to this, that, or the other method; brilliant, immediate results in arithmetic or technical grammar; marvels in the production of juvenile compositions; wonderful exhibits of manual and constructive work; high averages for promotion or graduation; or the other details which to us seem pedagogically important, we may have forgotten to lead along those lines which would have helped the incorrigible child and prevented some others from joining the ranks of the incorrigible? Do you not feel, in this blessed privilege of leadership that has been given to us, that if we had made it clear to those who follow that character means more than knowledge; that effort in the right direction means more than tabulated results; that the rescue of the soul of one child is a greater achievement for any teacher than the promotion or graduation of 90 per cent. of his class, possibly more might have been done for the incorrigible child? Is it not time that all superintendents should declare: "It is not what your children do, but what they are, that is the measure of your success; it is not the number of questions your children can successfully answer, but it is the number of temptations that they can successfully resist, that proves you to have been a successful or an unsuccessful teacher"?

Our poor teachers! They work so hard; they work so incessantly; and the pity of it is that so much of their energy is misdirected. Why? Chiefly because from time immemorial we have placed the shadow above the substance. We have prided ourselves on what has been done for the child who survives. We have never recorded what has become of the child who fell by the way. Is it not time that a higher standard be imposed? Does not this country need character more than it needs knowledge of facts? Understand, I know full well that all good teachers and good principals constantly hold before the children standards of right living and of true worth, and that many a child is benefited thereby; but this has not prevented thousands of children from going thru school and out into life with a lack of character that is a reflection upon any school system, and that tends to lower the standards of citizenship thruout our land. We are expected, in communities largely made up of foreigners, to give correct American standards of living to the children of the alien. Are the standards of living in American communities wholly creditable? Would the general corruption in municipal government, would the general unethical basis of the commercial world, be possible, if correct ethical standards had been given to the men who control the affairs of the world today, at the time we had them as little boys in school? But, as Kipling says, "that is another story;" so let us get back to the incorrigible child.

There are home conditions of poverty and of degradation, or of indulgence and bad judgment, which send even the little child to us, morally, if not intellectually handicapped. It is the sacred obligation of the teacher in whose class this child is first placed to find out something of his home conditions,

and by a deeper interest, a sweeter patience, an infinite tact, to make good to that child what it failed to get by the accident of birth. Under such treatment, what do you think would be the response from the child? Do you think that the baby under this special sympathetic treatment would develop the germs of incorrigibility? Pass him on to the next class, and let the teacher who sends him on pass on a word of enlightenment to the next teacher, so that she too may take the little fellow into her heart and smooth out the path for him; and so on term after term. Is this utopian? I think not. But it is impossible when the teacher lacks tact, patience, and warmth of sympathy. "The teacher who hollers at you for every little thing" is the dispenser of as much poison as is the hospital nurse who mistakes a bottle of carbolic for a sedative! We have reached that stage of civilization and enlightenment in municipal affairs where the first indication of contagious physical disease is detected, and the patient is removed for the protection of the rest and for the improvement of its own condition. Is it not time then for us to begin to train teachers to look for and detect the first symptoms of contagious discipline disease, and to compel them to take proper means to insure, not only the safety of others, but the improvement of the child in whom these symptoms have been detected? The first symptoms of contagious discipline disease—what are they? Were one to ask our teachers to answer that question honestly, I believe that a majority of the replies would give evidence that they are laying too much stress upon unimportant things. To require children to sit perfectly still, in furniture often physically uncomfortable, is, I think, the root of many of our discipline problems. To keep them at tasks lacking every element of interest increases the evil. The energy, the time, and the nervous strain expended to make children do what is not worth the doing is appalling. I remember well in my early teaching days when, in every penmanship lesson, tremendous emphasis was laid upon the proper crossing of the *t* and the accurate dotting of the *i*. Most of us have repented in sackcloth and ashes for our folly in this direction, and realize now that, if penmanship be free, rapid, and legible, it makes no difference where the *t* is crossed or where the *i* is dotted; but in those days we made so much of the crossing of the *t* and the dotting of the *i* that we lost sight of the importance of freedom and speed. Are we not living thru a similar crisis in our discipline problems? Do not some of the things that teachers demand (and, remember, teachers and principals are playing the game of "Follow Master," and, as a rule, demand what they think the superintendent desires)—do not some of these things bear the same relation to true discipline that the crossing of the *t* and the dotting of the *i* bear to real penmanship? What we need is clearer vision for ourselves. A vibrating enthusiasm for any great move can be aroused in any teaching body, provided enough enthusiasm goes out from the leader to set in motion the vibrations in the mass. If we feel this to be true and translate our feeling into our utterances, both spoken and written, can we not thereby create a public opinion that will force its way

thru our utterances to the attention of the living, acting community? If, on the other hand, we feel that our official duty is discharged by the occasional commitment of an incorrigible child, instead of tracing incorrigibility to its causes, and trying to remove those causes, do we not show ourselves unfit for the responsibility of leadership? It is too late to solve discipline problems when the extreme case is brought to official notice. We must begin lower down, and we must begin at once. For a time the present trouble must last, because lawlessness has been so steadily on the increase among our boys that remedial measures will be required for some time; but this same lawlessness will increase at an appalling rate unless we capture the little ones now and remove from their lives those influences which have made the bad boy of today what he is. Boys already so defiant of all authority, so willful and disrespectful, as was the material out of which my special school was constructed, must be removed and placed in small classes under specially chosen teachers.

But that is not enough. Permanent preventive work can come only from taking measures to change the standards of discipline in the entire teaching body. We must watch closely every teacher in whose class truancy and other violations of the law are most frequent; and if lack of sympathy, lack of tact, or bad temper on the part of the individual teacher is found to be responsible, in whole or in part, for these troubles, we must have the courage to prefer charges against such a teacher, and remove him or her before further damage results. Drastic measures in removing two or three of the worst offenders would insure an improvement on the part of others who by their harshness, injustice, and unkindness are helping to embitter the school life of many a child. Emmy Lou's "Ogress" must disappear from our schools; Emmy Lou's "Dear Teacher" is needed in every room. We hear very little about the incorrigible child from "Dear Teacher." If, however, the fault does not lie with the teacher, there must be something inherently wrong in the troublesome child, or something in his environment that tends to militate against the best influences of the school. Some plan must be devised to make special provision for the proper training of such children. Children who cannot, or will not, obey the laws of a school, as administered by a sane, tactful, sympathetic teacher, must be treated as diseased, and must be isolated for their own good and for the protection of others. We dare not wait until the child infected has advanced in years, with ever-increasing disrespect for authority. The disease must be treated in its incipiency. Physicians have proved beyond question that a cure is possible in every case of incipient tuberculosis, if properly treated. Beyond the incipient stage recovery is less frequent, and the danger of infection to others immeasurably greater. So, too, with our discipline problems. In the incipient stage, under proper treatment, all, or practically all, can be cured. Once allow a child to get well beyond the incipient stage of lawlessness, and recovery is not only doubtful, but the spread of the disease is a natural sequence.

It has taken years to educate the public to a proper conception of the duty of every individual toward checking the spread of the white plague. It must now become our duty to educate teachers, parents, and public opinion generally to the fact that defiance to authority presents a greater menace to our country than does tuberculosis. The spread of moral disease is infinitely more far-reaching in its influence for evil than the spread of physical disease. If, then, it be essential for the public to help physicians stamp out incipient tuberculosis, how much more necessary is it that the same public should be appealed to, to help teachers stamp out incipient lawlessness? Let me continue the comparison. What would be thought in medical circles of physicians and nurses, charged with the care of tuberculous patients, who recklessly scatter the germs of disease instead of carefully destroying the same? What, then, must be thought of the teacher or principal whose prime function is to train the child of today for future citizenship, if he recklessly scatters the germs of incipient lawlessness so that the spread of the evil is bound to follow? Such germs must be exterminated; proper preventive measures must be applied to the control of the contagion. The teacher, under the influence of nervous excitement and irritability, due to conflict with the troublesome child, is recklessly scattering these germs, so that others in her class not yet contaminated are in the greatest danger. Tact, courage, sympathy, and infinite patience on the part of the teacher are the only remedies for incipient lawlessness. Teachers must learn that, if the strong will of a child is set up in opposition to the teacher's mandate, insistence upon immediate surrender to the teacher's will is bound to carry with it humiliating consequences. It is far better to ignore such an outbreak, to take no notice of the child at that particular moment, and to wait for the right opportunity in which to gain the disputed point. This point is rarely gained by forcing the issue at the moment that the child is controlled by stubbornness, and the teacher by temper. Many a boy has grown hard and ugly as a result of battles of this kind, when at the moment of rebellion the display of sympathy, tact, and judgment on the teacher's part would have resulted in future control, not only of the teacher over the child, but possibly of the child over himself.

Here, then, is one line of thought for the teacher who is tormented by an unruly boy. Possess your soul in patience and await your opportunity. How can you expect to teach a willful child self-control, when you cannot control your own mood under provocation? A contest with an angry child, or with a sullen child, is bound to spread the germs of disease. Treat the case scientifically, and remember that even germs cannot always be destroyed on the spot. One must carefully gather them together, and carry them, as opportunity offers, to those places where their destruction is assured. If only we could learn to treat lawlessness as we treat tuberculosis!

Our poor teachers! The whole world sympathizes with their struggles. Paradoxical tho it may seem, I reserve the term "poor teacher" for only the

good teacher. The really poor teacher does not deserve much sympathy. If the recording angel is doing his duty, there will be a long account for the poor teacher to settle, some day; and when that day comes, may God help her! Fifty years hence what difference will it make if the present official school record of any teacher be good or poor? But think of the difference if the record in the Great Beyond be a poor one! Some day each of us will stand before the Great Judge. How shall we then answer such questions as these: "What did you do with all those little children intrusted to your guidance? How many young, erring souls did you save from destruction?" These are serious thoughts; but does not the very sacredness of our work make it necessary for us to think seriously? Is there not something more to teaching than the mere assigning of tasks, the hearing of lessons, the making of records, the promoting of children, and the doing of the thousand and one things that now seem of such great importance? Is there not something higher to be aimed for? Cannot teachers be led to feel that the final aim in teaching is the directing and organizing of the entire educational process, so that every child shall find self-realization in a happy and useful manhood or womanhood? Is a happy and useful manhood or womanhood possible for the incorrigible child? Yes, but on one condition only: all traces of incorrigibility must be removed from his character before the influence of the school is taken out of his life. This can be done; this must be done. "If it were well done when 'tis done, then 'twere well it were done quickly."

We who are in the official position to change or dictate school policies, to shape school legislation, to guide and direct teachers, must assume our share of the responsibility, and assume it quickly. It is we who must see that every child gets tasks according to his age and needs. It is we who must see that special schools or special classes, under most carefully chosen teachers, are provided for all children who are defiant toward authority. It is we who must train teachers to give to all cases of incipient lawlessness the scientific treatment accorded to physical disease. It is we who must, if necessary, remove, or cause to have removed, all teachers who, because of temperamental defects, by their impatience and unreasonableness, are driving children into truancy and defiance. It is we who must lead all teachers to see that the development of proper character in the child transcends all else in importance, and that a teacher's highest duty lies in saving the soul of the child who otherwise might fall by the way.

There must be a change in the special attitude of the teacher toward misdemeanors and misdemeanants. On the teacher's part there must be the yearning and eager activity to save and redeem. This activity is bound to react upon the child until it is fair to expect him to repent, or to cause him to feel the need of repentance. The child who repents can easily be saved. The proper attitude toward the misdemeanant demands that the teacher consider his obligation as a labor of pity and love. Instead of threats and condemnation, the teacher must give the chance for hope, admiration, and

love to work their wonders. Even in a hardened sinner a part of the soul often remains untainted. Think, then, what evil must result when a teacher refuses to look for and nourish the untainted part of the soul of a child. No labor of love and pity is ever wasted.

> "Talk not of wasted affection, affection never was wasted;
> If it enrich not the heart of another, its waters, returning
> Back to their springs, like the rain, shall fill them full of refreshment."

It is this refreshment that will be the salvation of the teacher and of the incorrigible child. Affection and not condemnation must be the teacher's attitude. No child is so hardened that it will not respond to so gentle an emotion; no child's life so spoiled that the untainted part is beyond redemption; no child's habits so formed that a change in aim and achievement cannot be brought about. Teach every child that success cannot come to all; but that, if he cannot reach success, he may still win life's first prize—character. Some day, perhaps, every teacher may learn that his or her truest mission lies in giving to the child inspiration and stimulus for right living and for the formation of true character; some day, perhaps, every child may learn that no success, that no achievement, can be compared in worth to true character. When *that* day comes, there will be few or no discipline problems; when that *day* comes, pessimism will give way to optimism; when that day *comes*, the teacher's heaviest burden will disappear; *when* that day comes, there will be no incorrigible child.

THE EXAMINATION OF THE EYES OF SCHOOL CHILDREN

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The development of the mental faculties depends largely, if not entirely, upon the functions of perception, and these should therefore receive critical attention during childhood. Professor Tait, of the University of Edinburgh, Scotland, in his treatise on light says: "All our other senses together, except under very special conditions, do not give us one tithe of the information obtained at a single glance, and sight is also that one of our senses which we are able most effectively and extensively to assist by proper apparatus.

The phonograph, reproducing the falsely pitched voice and nerve-racking discords of a distempered piano, graphically demonstrates the undulatory theory of sound; nor can we criticise the faithful reproductions of these sound photographs.

Sight is purely a mental phenomenon, for the image of external objects reflected upon the inner wall of the eye is transmitted over the million nerve fibers composing this wall to the innermost recesses of the brain, where consciousness of vision is born and where also, phonograph-like, mental impressions are recorded, which, even after the lapse of years, will enable the mind's eye to pass in review that which caused them.

In the phonograph we know the accuracy of construction and delicacy of

adjustment essential to its satisfactory operation. We should certainly be equally critical in dealing with that choicest of possessions—the eye.

Environment largely influences the mind for good or evil. The deformed eye therefore, which constantly transmits to the brain distorted images, must undoubtedly have a demoralizing influence upon the mentality. That this is true is evidenced by the statistics of our reformatories, homes for the feeble, minded, inebriate retreats, and insane asylums, showing, as they invariably do large percentages of visual defects in the inmates.

Allen Greenwood, M.D., in an address before the Boston Medical Society, recently urged that municipalities take up the investigation of the eyes of school children, emphasizing the fact that alarmingly large percentages of backward and feeble-minded children examined had been found to be afflicted with deformities of the eyes impairing vision, all of whom evidenced marked improvement mentally and physically when defects of sight had been corrected.

The *Medical Review of Reviews* quotes the results of investigations conducted by Dr. Theodor Gelpe, of Vienna, in which he states that 72 per cent. of feeble-minded children examined had been found possessed of extremely defective eyes, largely of a congenital character, capable of marked improvement by properly adapted glasses.

Dr. John J. Cronin, chief of division of school inspectors of New York City, reports that out of 7,166 pupils examined 33 per cent. were found to have defective sight; whereas in Philadelphia the health board recently recommended that the authorities provide funds for supplying suitable examinations and glasses to the large numbers of poor school children in need of them.

One of the frequently encountered defects is a marked deformity or subdevelopment of one eye, which, owing to the resultant low vision and consequent non-use, leads either to its total loss, a condition of cross-eye, or the various phases of nerve-suffering and mental degeneration herein referred to.

During childhood, when development is as yet incomplete, nature sends to each function blood and nerve supply, not only for the purpose of enabling it to perform its work, but also to contribute to its growth. If, therefore, owing to a deformity or faulty development, an excessive activity is involved, a correspondingly excessive expenditure of nutrition and energy will result, depleting the part and interfering with its development.

The question presenting itself is, therefore: Can an effective and feasible means be provided by which these cases can be discovered? It has been found impracticable to accomplish this by means of specialists, as the task, owing to the large numbers involved, is a difficult, if not an impossible, one. Several years ago the speaker suggested a plan which, if carried into effect, would result in the discovery of at least many such afflicted pupils.

For this purpose the regular wall test-chart is used. As many pupils as possible are seated in two rows facing the wall, and about twenty feet away. The rest of the pupils leave the room. Each of these pupils is provided with a sheet of paper on which to write his name.

The pupils are now requested to cover one eye with a handkerchief (or strips of muslin can be used), the teacher displays the test-chart on the wall, and the pupils are instructed to copy the test-letters thereon, holding up their hands when completed. Some will accomplish this task quickly, while others will hesitate, and after considerable effort abandon the attempt. (The teacher can here obtain considerable information of their acuteness of vision.) When sufficient time has been allowed, the chart is removed, and the pupils are required to cover the other eye, when the reverse side of the chart, containing other letters, is displayed and copied in a similar manner. These papers will at once indicate the acuteness and accuracy of vision of each eye, those showing unsatisfactory results being later again submitted to the test.

Where one or the other eye is very deficient, the result will at once indicate it, and parents can be notified. The principal should always have this chart at hand for the purpose of investigating the eyes of the dull, non-studious, unruly, or truant scholar, which may frequently furnish evidence of inestimable value.

Experience has demonstrated that marked deformities of the eye are frequently due to malformations of the skull, which the analytical observer readily learns to recognize, whereas those pupils having deeply wrinkled foreheads, or those complaining of periodical headaches, should always be suspected as being possessed of eye-defects, and be subjected to examination.

The following cases are typical and demonstrate possibilities: Two years ago a boy thirteen years of age was brought to me. His vision was stated to be satisfactory, but nerve disturbances, which had evidenced themselves since his first school year, had gradually become more marked, until they had developed into a well-defined condition of epilepsy, the boy having had several attacks of falling fits monthly. He had been under treatment for four years, without relief, whereas recently attacks had become more severe and frequent. Examination revealed an extreme distortion of the left eyeball, with vision in this eye very imperfect and accomplished at the cost of great strain, leading to acute headaches if the eyes were used for any length of time. The correction of the defect by the requisite glass, and the enforced activity of the defective eye, gradually not only brought vision in this eye up to the normal, but has contributed to such an extent to improved physical conditions that for the past eighteen months he has attended school regularly, which he had not been able to do for several years prior to this time, and nerve disturbances have entirely disappeared, the boy not having had an attack in over a year, whereas his school percentages show a marked advance.

The second case was that of a boy of twelve brought me by one of our principals. He was the son of extremely poor parents, who ridiculed the idea of glasses. He was given to truancy, was difficult to control, was non-studious, and apparently was mentally deficient. The correction of an extreme anatomical deformity of both eyeballs by suitable glasses not only developed vision where he had been to all intents blind, so far as objects beyond ten feet

were concerned, but his vicious tendencies disappeared, and he became fond of his studies as evidenced by the marked change in his percentages. He is now working after school hours, and his employers commend him and are interested in him, and I am firmly convinced that the boy's future has been largely influenced for good.

The third case was that of a young girl, age sixteen, who since her eighth year had suffered from periodical attacks of headache, which in recent years had been accompanied by digestive disturbances, evidencing themselves by acute nausea, which had defied medical treatment. An examination revealed the fact that, while the left eye was normal, the right was so defective in formation that well-defined vision was an impossibility. Upon being questioned, she insisted that her vision was perfect, she being able to see test-letters either on the wall chart or at reading distance. Upon being requested to hold her hand over the left eye, she for the first time realized that she had no vision in the right beyond the ability to perceive light. With the proper glass before this eye she could with difficulty vaguely discern letters one-half inch in size when brought to within six inches of the eye, and these for only a minute, when they became blurred and then faded away. Why? Because, owing to the existing deformity and consequent non-use, the visual functions in this eye had not developed. Spectacles containing an opaque glass before the normal eye, and the corrective lens before the deformed eye, were prescribed for exercise use. By this means the dormant eye was forced into activity for short periods at first, as exhaustion speedily evidenced itself. After the first week improvement was marked, and the eye could now read headlines in a paper for ten minutes. At the end of the second month the eye was able to read regular newspaper print for half an hour. At this time clear glass was placed before the good eye, and glasses have since been worn constantly. Recent examinations reveal vision to be normal in the deformed eye thru the corrective lens, but, what is most significant, headaches, and nerve and stomach disturbances, have disappeared, and the general health is vastly improved.

This case would undoubtedly have been discovered by the test suggested, because the girl could not see even the largest letters on the test-chart with the defective eye, whereas a study of facial proportions at once revealed a marked distortion of the right side of the face, due to a cranial deformity.

The query constantly propounded by the public is: "What has caused conditions necessitating the extensive use of glasses by the young?" Statistics dating back to the early part of the last century show that in the university centers of the Old World the percentage of defective sight among students was very large, and scientists now generally concede that, at least so far as that condition known as myopia or near-sightedness is concerned, deficient light, and the consequent tendency on the part of the pupil to approach abnormally close to his books, is, in a manner, responsible; whereas many maintain that, in view of the fact that the human eye in early childhood is mark-

edly subnormal in development, whereas the demands upon it are constantly increasing, every effort should be made to assist it by proper apparatus during this period, wherever such are found acceptable. But, what of the conditions here so briefly described? Anatomists are agreed that the violation of nature's laws, attending the demands of modern fashion, has to such an extent modified certain portions of the female anatomy as to make motherhood extremely difficult, necessitating in a constantly increasing percentage of cases the aid of mechanical adjuncts, to the use of which the cranial deformities referred to can, in a large measure, be traced.

Can we contemplate these possibilities unmoved? How many children may be struggling on under your very eyes, condemned to live within a circumscribed mental as well as visual horizon, to whom science might give invaluable service were she but appealed to?

Cultivate the ability to read aright the hieroglyphics graven by suffering upon the faces of the young. Note the faulty position assumed by some students, the extreme tilting to one side of the head, a disposition to squint until the eye is scarcely visible. Add to this the simple visual test suggested, and you will encounter, where you least suspect them, visual deficiencies, the correction of which will not only be of great value to the ones afflicted, but will prove a fascinating and grateful field of research, and lead to the discovery of new truths.

WHAT SHOULD BE THE BASIS FOR THE PROMOTION OF TEACHERS AND THE INCREASE OF TEACHERS' SALARIES?

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By "promotion of teachers" I understand advance to positions of greater responsibility or authority, as, for example, head of department, first assistant, vice-principal—positions in which a higher order of executive ability is required than is essential in work limited to a single class-room. The kind of executive ability required in a given position must be discovered chiefly by observing the individual's way of doing things, his judgment displayed in meeting difficult situations, and his skill and tact in preventing difficulties from arising. An examination serves this purpose but little, except in so far as it widens the area of choice of candidates by inviting competition from beyond the home locality. An examination may, however, serve to disclose weaknesses that were not even suspected; and, when this is the case, its negative value is very great.

In the twenty minutes allotted to me I prefer to consider the second part of the topic, "the basis for increase of teachers' salaries," as I believe this to be the more vital of the two phases of the subject at the present time.

Salary should not depend upon grade taught.

I do not here refer to extra compensation given in certain grades for

teaching special subjects, as Latin or a modern language; nor to the higher salary which in some places is given to male assistants, teachers of ungraded classes, or such special positions; but to regular salary schedules. To make increase in salary depend upon assignment to a higher grade is to cause teachers to regard their present work as temporary and of relatively small importance, and to divert their attention from the finer problems of the work with the group of children immediately in their charge. This policy in school management tends to lessen the efficiency of service in the grades from which transfer is sought. For the sake of the children for whom the schools exist, therefore, teachers should be able to secure advance of salary *in* present work, not exclusively *away* from it; at least they should not be forced by considerations of salary to bend their efforts toward getting away from present work. Taste and aptitude should govern in such adjustments. To place a higher money value on teaching in the upper grades would imply that these grades require more of the teacher in education, training, skill, and effort than is required for thoroly good work in lower and intermediate grades. Really good work anywhere costs effort. Poor work is no more to be tolerated in the intermediate grades than in those above. If the authorities fix a higher salary for upper-grade work, teachers not well adapted to it will seek it solely on account of the financial inducement offered. It is to be expected that they will magnify the value of the work that carries the higher salary, and to a proportionate extent belittle the value of service in lower grades.

Teachers whose powers and aptitudes point to seventh- and eighth-grade assignment as most appropriate are not, as a rule, found averse to taking such assignments even where no salary inducement exists; furthermore, when a mistake is made in assigning a teacher, it is much easier to correct that mistake when such correction involves no loss of salary. From various points of view, therefore, it seems to me unnecessary and unwise to offer financial inducement to teachers to take upper-grade work. It may immediately be asked, then: Why pay high-school teachers more than elementary-school teachers? We demand of all who teach in elementary schools the academic attainments evidenced by the high-school diploma; from those who are to teach in our high schools, the attainments evidenced by the college diploma or its equivalent. At the point where we establish the higher educational requirement we may admit the force of the argument for a different schedule of salaries based on the added cost of collegiate education.

Even tho we grant that a teacher *can* do business after a fashion in the lower grades on a smaller capital of knowledge than would be required to avert failure in the upper grades of the elementary school, we find that our recognized national standards do not set up a lower educational demand for lower-grade work. For the elementary-school teacher, both in primary and grammar grades, the recognized standard on the academic side is high-school graduation. We do not willingly accept less even from those who are to teach in our kindergartens.

When advance in salary comes from good work in any grade, teachers seek assignment to the grade for which they are best fitted by disposition and attainments, whether that grade be high or low; not so when increase in salary depends upon transfer to a higher grade. For the sake of teachers and children, the superintendent should have the greatest possible freedom in fixing and changing grade assignment. This can be had only by eliminating *grade taught* as a factor in salary advance. The same principle should hold also in the high schools: highest salaries should not be given exclusively to teachers conducting the most advanced work; first-year pupils should share with advanced pupils the best instruction that the school affords.

Salary advance beyond a certain point should not be based on years of service.

For a time, the period differing in individual cases, there comes increased efficiency with increased experience. This is likely, however, after the first few years to be limited to ease of control, with small increase in teaching skill. There is a tendency—a very strong one, too—to fall into a lifeless routine; to lose the early interest in the work itself; to perform the daily duties as a task rather than as a vitally interesting piece of the world's work. Tho this tendency may not appear in the "born teacher," yet the great army of teachers, like the great army of people earning their daily bread in other occupations, begin their work without any heaven-sent call. They must be trained. In these days, when salary advance is in the air, we owe it to our calling—which we hope, if not now, then at an early day, to call a profession—we owe it to our profession to see to it that, in the words of the Committee on Taxation of our Association, "we can point to a dollar of value in service for every dollar added to the tax budget;" or, as I prefer to say, we can point to the best possible teaching that the money of the taxpayers will secure.

This has seemed to me to be the consideration that would guide the owner of a large private business in employing the members of his force and in fixing their salaries. To test this, I addressed ten letters of inquiry to as many representative men in my city, each interested in the management of a business involving large capital, and employing many subordinates. The questions were as follows:

1. Do you pay level salaries in a given department?
2. To what extent, if any, do years of service count in fixing salaries or in making promotions?
3. To what extent ability shown or quality of service rendered?
4. What provision is made for the aged employee the value of whose service is diminishing year by year?

One writes:

1. We do not pay level salaries in any department, altho we are paying skilled labor a minimum rate fixed by labor unions, as we employ all union labor. (The more capable workmen receive more than the minimum rate.)
2. Years of service do not count in fixing salaries or making promotions.

3. Ability and quality of service only are recognized in fixing salaries.

4. To the extent of our ability, we find sinecure positions for aged employees who have been in our service for a number of years, but, as we have an average of a couple of thousand employees, we cannot make an arbitrary application of this rule.

Another writes:

In response to your favor, I think the question of merit prevails almost universally in all commercial houses, promotion of employees being dependent upon their usefulness and ability, and it is frequently the case that employees are promoted above those who have been very much longer in service.

We do not pay level salaries in a given department, but there are some positions that would naturally carry a maximum salary, and the maximum salary is obtained and retained by those showing efficiency, while inefficient persons do not retain those positions for any long period.

From our experience, it is the exception and not the rule to pension employees who have been long in service, but in special cases this is done.

In closing one makes this remark:

Permit me to say that I fully agree with your idea that the same considerations should obtain in the management of public business and public money as in private, and I hope the time will come when Baltimore will be managed as economically and efficiently as are the cities of Great Britain and Germany, and especially that our schools may be conducted on broad lines solely for the greatest good to our children.

These letters are typical of all. No employer pays level salaries. No employer makes salary dependent chiefly on years of service. All make the chief consideration ability shown and quality of service rendered.

Why do not such considerations prevail more generally in public-school work? Are public funds to be used with less regard to returns than private funds? The business man does not hesitate to estimate the value of service and arrange his salary schedule accordingly. He has standards of efficiency, and he applies them. We may differ as to the particular merit plan we adopt; but as professional men and women it seems to me that we cannot stand for level salaries regardless of the value of the service rendered, so long as it ranks above failure. I believe, further, that the merit system is full of encouragement to those who expect to become teachers. Under such a system trained and efficient teachers are not put at a disadvantage in competition with those poorly prepared for their work.

In speaking of the considerations that should govern in salary increase, I quote with full approval a paragraph from the last report of the superintendent of schools of Chicago.

If the welfare of the children in the schools is the fundamental consideration, we must be governed in fixing teachers' salaries by an estimate of the value of the services rendered by the teacher. Any consideration is invalid, except in so far as it affects efficiency. Any increase of salary based upon length of service can be defended only in so far as it can be shown that length of service conduces to greater efficiency in the work of the schoolroom. Difference of salary based upon sex can be defended only by showing that sex is a factor that must be considered in estimating the efficiency of the teacher. Increase of salary based upon zeal, student-like habits, and scholarship must alike be tested by this criterion of efficiency.

By way of illustrating the application of these principles to actual practice, I may be permitted to tell of what we are now doing in Baltimore. On the first of January, 1906, rules went into operation in our city that will in the near future raise the salary level in the elementary schools 40 per cent. The immediate increase amounts to fully 20 per cent. These rules represent the outgrowth and completion of a promotion plan inaugurated on a small scale three years ago. The operation of the plan requires an estimate of each teacher's efficiency in the terms "excellent," "good," "fair," or "poor." The estimate is made by the principal, but is subject to correction by the superintendent, and the superintendent undertakes personally to investigate doubtful cases. Appointment to the service is for one year on trial after one year or more spent in substitute work. Prior to this the candidate must have completed a high-school course and have spent two years at our teachers' training school. During the trial year the young teacher is supervised by the training-school teacher known as the director of practice.

The trial year over, advance in salary is automatic for three years, when to secure further increase the record of efficiency must be at or above the point denominated "good." This record having been secured, an advance in salary of $200 in installments averaging $40 a year may be secured by passing a promotional examination which includes the record mentioned above.

The examination is in two parts. The first part may be taken during the third year of service, and the second part two years later. In our book of rules the promotional examination is thus defined:

> The Promotional Examination, Part I, shall consist of: (*a*) the teacher's efficiency record, which must not be lower than "good," as determined by inspection of regular class work by the respective principals and the superintendent; together with (*b*) an impersonal test of the correct and effective use and interpretation of English.
>
> The Promotional Examination, Part II, shall consist of: (*a*) a written report of the working-out of some problem of teaching, or of the study of a particular group of children; (*b*) such a defense of the report as will evince familiarity with educational literature bearing on the problem or study; and when required (*c*) a class-room demonstration.

These tests are not necessarily difficult, but they will readily lend themselves to gradually advancing standards. Take the test in English, for instance: mere correctness may go along with woodenness or emptiness; for this reason the word "effective" is added. The writer must have something to say, and then say it in such a way as to make a definite impression. Furthermore, to interpret to a child is one thing, to an adult another thing. Effective interpretation must regard the audience as well as the piece of literature to be interpreted. We select English for this examination because it is the universal subject. It occupies approximately one-third of each day on our school programs in one form or another, besides being the vehicle of instruction in all other subjects. If, then, any one study should engage the attention of a young teacher on her way up to the first regular salary level, that study is English. It is a good thing for the teacher during her

first three years of service to be preparing to meet the English test—a good thing for the teacher, and a good thing for the children she teaches. Study carried on with a view to such an examination in English will be directed along lines helpful to the schools. This is our purpose—to strengthen the language side of our work.

As to Part II of the promotional examination, a teacher may take it after the fifth year of service, if she has been promoted under the rules governing Part I. By this time she should have developed some independence and considerable professional skill. The test imposed for eligibility to the maximum salary is one in the power to discover problems in the daily class work. It is a test in thoughtfulness—not in memory. It is a highly professional test. Its tendency cannot fail to be toward greater sympathy with children, closer observation of their individual characteristics, their home environment, and the many things which the true teacher needs to take into consideration, if she would reach a high level of efficiency.

It may be objected that the so-called cultural studies are too little in evidence in this examination. This will hardly be charged of Part I, the test in English. As to Part II (the discovery of a problem and the preparation of a report upon it), such a defense of the report is required as will evince familiarity with the educational literature bearing on the problem studied. To some extent, surely, this is cultural; if not sufficiently so, we can easily improve it in this respect when we are able to add another $100 to the annual salary, not now very high. The two tests have the merit of being progressive. The second is in no particular a repetition of the first, either in substance or method of management. An examination conducted on the plan of the thesis and its defense attains a dignity that the ordinary examination lacks, and it affords the examiners an opportunity to know more fully the professional equipment of a teacher than it would be possible to learn by the observation of schoolroom work alone or by the ordinary written examination. Each teacher who submits a report must be able to explain it fully, and defend it by reference to recognized authorities and to actual conditions in her own schoolroom. In order to do this well, it is necessary to make thoro preparation. To one well prepared the ordeal seems easy enough, and so it should be; but to one who so underestimates its searching character as to slight in any way the preliminary work, or to adopt any fine-sounding pedagogical phrases not clearly understood, the examination seems, as it should, severe indeed. Both parts of the examination—Part I and Part II—have the merit of directing the attention of the teacher to the regular daily work, and to the children she is to teach.

In order to retain the maximum salary, a teacher must continue to render acceptable service; the advance is not, therefore, to be regarded as necessarily permanent.

Altho it does not come exactly under the topic of this paper, I venture to mention another problem taken up by the Baltimore board—it is the problem

of the teacher who has served the city many years, but who, thru advancing age or other causes, is no longer efficient. A school system as extensive as ours requires a large number of substitute teachers to take temporarily the classes of regular teachers who are visiting other schools or are absent on account of illness. It is the opinion of the board that teachers no longer fully efficient, but who have given their best days to the schools at a salary out of which they have been able to lay up little or nothing, may, with entire justice to the taxpayers, be allowed to do as much of this occasional substitute work as they are able to do, and such clerical work as all large schools afford. For three years a rule has been in existence which allows such teachers, upon their application, to be placed upon a list of special substitutes at a salary of $360 per year. Our city has as yet no fund for pensioning teachers. The state pension is only $200 per year. Our special substitute list is, therefore, a welcome half-way station for worthy teachers who can no longer do full work.

It is not difficult to establish new rules for new teachers; but when the new rules operate to stop the unconditional advance of the less meritorious teachers of the regular force along the new salary schedule, a situation arises that must be met with firmness, and yet with kindness and consideration.

The care now exercised in training our teachers, the freedom from interference which we enjoy in sifting out the unpromising, and the encouragement offered to teachers while in service to become highly efficient, should in future enable us to eliminate to a great extent the problem of the inefficient teacher.

THE NEXT STEP IN THE SALARY CAMPAIGN

DAVID FELMLEY, PRESIDENT OF STATE NORMAL UNIVERSITY, NORMAL, ILL.

The discussion of this topic as a question of national scope is rendered somewhat difficult by the fact that teachers are selected and their salaries determined by local authorities, limited only by state regulations regarding revenue and teachers' qualifications. In some communities in every state an intelligent and insistent public opinion demands that salaries be high enough to secure and retain teachers of personal worth and adequate training. In some states where the educational forces have been so fortunate as to secure wise and capable leadership, ample revenue, a high standard of qualifications, and a living salary have been secured by legislation. The splendid advance in the neighboring state of Indiana made during the last four years, under the leadership of your president is a case in point.

Hence any detailed discussion of this topic must deal with the conditions in particular states; the conclusions reached may be of interest so far as like conditions are found elsewhere. I offer this apology for my frequent reference to conditions in Illinois. A further justification may be found in the fact that the Illinois school system is almost completely decentralized, permissive

rather than mandatory in its legislative provisions; hence, in spite of the effective work done in Chicago and a few other communities, it stands well to the rear in organized effort to better the salary situation thruout the entire state.

The statement of the question by your president assumes that at least one substantial step has already been taken. He, doubtless, has in mind the exhaustive investigation of teachers' salaries made during the past two years by a committee of the National Educational Association, under the chairmanship of Carroll D. Wright. The report of this committee, along with the authoritative data collected under state auspices, makes clear that, while in many of our larger cities teachers are fairly well paid, yet in the majority of our smaller cities and villages, and almost everywhere in rural districts, the scale of wages is entirely too low to maintain the schools even at their present level of efficiency.

It is not necessary to marshal statistics to demonstrate this proposition. It is proved by the prevailing scarcity of teachers. I assume that this scarcity is a matter of common knowledge. It is certainly known to superintendents charged with the selection of teachers. In more than one county in every state in the Middle West schoolhouses are standing empty because a suitable teacher cannot be found. County superintendents and boards of examiners have been obliged to lower their standard of requirements for admission to the profession, to reject fewer applications for certificates. One county superintendent reports that last year he rejected only two, while two years before he turned away forty-three. Under such conditions the children must suffer. The schools must be supplied with teachers. All who can pass muster with the county superintendent are reasonably sure of employment, while he in turn must level his requirements to the ability of the available candidates.

An examination of the roll in any particular county will show that many of the best teachers are leaving the work; the men to farm, to study law or medicine, to become insurance agents and traveling salesmen, or to enter the government service; the women to marry, to become trained nurses, stenographers, responsible bookkeepers, and saleswomen. There has always been this outflow from the profession; but just now it is greater than before; fewer young people are ready to fill the vacant places; and I think we must all agree that, in view of the needs and responsibilities of modern education, too few are looking seriously to a career in this profession and making adequate preparation for it.

Why are teachers scarce? The economic law is that labor drifts from one occupation to another according to the relative inducements offered in each. At all times teachers have been drawn to their vocation by a variety of considerations. The social position and public respect accorded to worthy teachers are no mean inducement. People who love knowledge for its own sake, not merely for the uses to which it may be put, usually find delight in sharing their treasures with others. Many, too, are attracted to the schoolroom by a genuine love of children. To most of us, I take it, teaching is more than an occupation;

it is a veritable calling; there has been something of a spiritual summons; an ideal of bettering the world thru the ministrations of the school. Along with these inducements has been the salary, which we have valued nearly as much as a mark of the public respect accorded us as for the material comforts that it commands.

Now, as compared with other occupations, it seems to me that the moral or spiritual inducements to become a teacher are as potent as ever. But the question of salary is becoming in every sphere of activity a larger consideration than it has been in the past. The cause is fundamentally in the industrial changes that have removed the domestic industries from home and farm to factory and shop. Our pioneer forefathers produced with their own hands nearly everything in and about their homes. They saw little of the wares of the merchant. Their luxuries and personal adornments were largely the product of their own taste and skill. Now the world buys and sells relatively five times as much as a century ago. We serve others, and are served by them in turn. The measure of comforts that we shall enjoy depends very largely upon our command of the market. The standard of living is determined by these changed conditions. In spite of all the moralists may say in praise of the simple life, teachers know that, to retain a due measure of respect in the eyes of the public, if not in their own, they must in dress, in style of living, pay some regard to prevailing standards. The teacher, therefore, is not to be upbraided because he sometimes turns from his work to consider the question of pay. It is true that, whether his salary be great or small, he owes all that he can give to the children under his care; but when the day for signing a contract has arrived, it is his privilege to make the best possible bargain.

Teachers' salaries, as a whole, have undoubtedly made a great gain in the last thirty years. Thus in Illinois the average for men has risen from $48.19 to $67.33 per month. Women's average monthly wages have risen from $33.46 to $57.95. This is for the entire state. The increase, however has been mainly in Cook County, employing one-fourth of the teachers, and in a few large cities outside. In 62 counties out of the 102 the average salary of women teachers is less than $40 per month; in 4 it is less than $30. In 10, men are paid an average salary of less than $40 per month. The 10,000 teachers in our rural schools average less than $300 per year. From the report of your committee it is evident that similar conditions exist in every northern state east of the Missouri River, with the exception of Massachusetts, Rhode Island, New Jersey, and Indiana. In 36 Illinois counties the average monthly wages of men teachers are lower than thirty years ago. In 18, women are paid less.

In the meantime the population of the country has doubled; its wealth has trebled. Land and all products of the land have risen in value. Wages for every other species of service demanding skill and fidelity have risen. Even where teachers are most liberally paid, all skilled mechanics—bricklayers, machinists, molders—enjoy a larger annual income, while the common

laborers on the streets and sewers are better paid than the lowest teacher in these same cities.

In 1902, the last year for which we have complete statistics, the average annual earnings of all the workers—men, women, and children—in fifty-five leading manufacturing industries in Illinois was $502.92. The average annual earnings of men teachers the same year was only $490.69.

It is not necessary to multiply evidence upon this point. It is a matter of common knowledge that the country schoolmaster is fortunate whose net earnings are better than those of a good farm hand. Many good teachers earn less than stenographers, seamstresses, and cooks. Our wages have remained practically stationary, while the cost of living has advanced nearly 20 per cent. Moreover, the demands upon teachers have multiplied. Institutes, books, periodicals, and summer schools have brought home to them the need of professsional preparation. When this need is realized, the conscientious teacher feels that he must obtain the preparation or quit the ranks. I believe today that the demand for this preparation is stronger among teachers than among employers. I have personally known several promising teachers who have left the work because they keenly felt this need, but could not realize from present salaries enough to make the necessary expenditure.

The inadequate compensation is not because our people as a whole do not believe in education, nor spend money generously for its support. During the past twenty-five years the cost of public education in Illinois has increased 175 per cent., while the population has increased only 70 per cent.; but the enlarged expenditures have been for fine buildings, for equipment, apparatus, libraries, and especially for developing the somewhat expensive high schools in our cities and towns. Salaries in the elementary schools have seen the least advance.

A fine school building especially appeals to the American spirit. It is the pride of the town to be exhibited to the prospective investor. It is regarded as a wise expenditure for advertising purposes. But teachers' wages are largely determined by custom. No organization or trades-union methods have been operative to force them up. Competition has been unrestricted. With unrestricted competition, wages are bound to sink to the lowest level at which laborers will consent to live. This level is reached in that large class of young women, fresh graduates from the public school, who, while living with their parents, are willing to accept any small salary sufficient for their personal expenses. Wherever school boards are willing to employ teachers with this standard of preparation, all discussion of the salary question is useless.

What wages should teachers receive? What wages should be paid for any service? The answer is: Society should provide for all its servants charged with any vital function the conditions and means essential to effective service. Teachers should be free to teach. The citizen teacher of the early days could teach in winter and farm in summer. Few teachers are content with the standard of excellence then possible. Excellence in the calling now involves professional training, books, magazines, summer schools and institutes, travel,

lectures, and concerts. A vacation outing is no extravagance if it buys vigor and inspiration for the schoolroom. The teacher's salary should be sufficient to reimburse him for his outlay for professional training, to maintain his professional growth, to enable him to live in the part of the town and dress in the style which the community demands, to bring up and educate his family, and lay by something for old age.

In the Indiana Report on Taxation and Teachers' Salaries the following recommendations are made:

For the rural schools, $400 to $600 per year.
For grade teachers in towns and villages, $480 to $650.
For grade teachers in cities of 25,000 inhabitants, $600 to $800.
For grade teachers in cities like Indianapolis, $750 to $1,000.
For principals of elementary schools in smaller cities, $900 to $1,000.
For such principals in larger cities, $1,200 to $1,800.
For high-school teachers, the same salaries as for ward principals.
For high-school principals salaries should be about 50 per cent. greater.

County superintendents should be put on a par with other county officers. City superintendents should be paid as well as the postmasters of the same cities. In Chicago and a few of its suburbs the superintendent of schools is better paid than that official. In the 220 Illinois cities paying their school superintendent $1,000 or more the postmaster's salary averages one-third larger. His responsibilities are surely no greater; the required standard of character, ability, knowledge, and culture, no higher.

Three remedies are proposed for the existing salary situation. The first is a sort of *laisser-faire* policy that would rely upon the methods that have hitherto bettered conditions in our progressive communities. It would say to teachers, in the words of Newton Bateman:

> The higher law by which teachers' salaries are graduated by the quality of service rendered, and the law of supply and demand, will not be set aside for their benefit; that law is unchangeable and inexorable; it is a cold, relentless, emotionless principle of political economy which has controlled the whole question of wages with a pitiless and despotic sway for centuries past. Hence the thing to do is to quit weeping and wailing over low wages and the non-recognition of the teachers' profession, so long the twin themes of unmanly lamentation, and go to work. There is plenty of room higher up. If you are willing to spend the time, thought, energy, perseverance, and money vital to the best preparation and service, the world will recognize you, appreciate you, reward you.

The trouble with this policy is that it presumes a larger measure of interest in education and knowledge of good teaching than school boards yet possess, or are likely to possess for a long time to come. Teaching is harder to judge than any other form of expert service. In most services requiring special knowledge or skill, if we cannot judge of the work while in progress, we can judge of the results. If the blacksmith is unskillful, the horse goes lame. If the builder is a botcher, his roof leaks, his doors sag, his paint scales, or his plaster falls. The poor lawyer loses his case; the physician, his patient. But for poor teaching there is no prompt or ready test. In fact, most otherwise intelligent people have very hazy notions of what the school ought to bring to

pass. Our people believe in "education," without knowing exactly what the word means.

Suffice it to say that from a good school the youth should come forth with a body sound, healthy, graceful; with a mind furnished with a goodly stock of knowledge of the sciences that underlie our civilization, and of the best literature in which its ideals and spirit are expressed. It will have trained his powers of perception and reasoning; it will have established that scientific spirit that does not believe and take for granted, but weighs and considers; it will have secured reasonable proficiency in reading, writing, drawing, computing, singing, speaking, and the art of good behavior.

The daily administration of the school will have established habits of punctuality, order, industry, courtesy, and self-control, of fidelity to obligations, and a due sense of responsibility. It will have implanted high ideals of life, the love of excellence, a passion for justice, a chivalrous sense of honor. In brief, the school should turn out—to adapt the words of Milton—honest, honorable, high-minded men and women able to discharge justly, skillfully, and magnanimously all the duties of public and private life.

Now, the best teaching will not always bring this to pass. It may be nullified by the influence of home and street, of press and stage. The point is that few employers know what to expect from the schools; fewer still can separate the mingled currents in adult knowledge and character, and trace each to its source. In any case, to judge of today's schools by results, we must wait a generation. Evidently, then, those charged with the employment and supervision of teachers must be able to know good teaching when they see it.

Now, the average layman asks only two questions: "Do the children like the teacher?" "Does he keep order?" Both are good tests, as far as they go; yet this audience knows that the affection of children is easily won—quite as easily by him who entertains as by him who instructs. The value of order in the schoolroom depends very much upon whether it is secured by threats and bribes, by appeals to fear or selfishness, or whether it is secured thru the preoccupation of the children in interesting and profitable work. What we call the atmosphere of the schoolroom is not a decisive test. Often school exercises that seem skillful or even beautiful are, when judged by standards of ultimate educational value, useless or worse.

I cannot argue this point further. I submit the proposition to your serious judgment that in no other form of service is the difference between true excellence and mediocrity harder to detect. This fact puts trained and worthy teachers at a serious disadvantage in competition with relatives of the board, with "deserving girls" from the "home school," and the general pressure of "economy." So long as teachers are everywhere employed by local boards, and are licensed by a county superintendent elected by popular vote, the silent plea of effective service will not alone bring the salary deserved.

The second remedy is the policy that has been so effective in raising wages

in the skilled trades and in enhancing the prices of hundreds of staple commodities of commerce organization.

In the country where I live a lawyer in good standing must have his $25 to handle the most trivial case before the circuit court; the physician, $2 per visit; the plumber, 60 cents an hour. These prices are fixed by "an understanding among gentlemen," by a resolution of the county medical society, or by the union scale. The person employed fixes the price for his services; if I need the service, I must pay the price or go without the service. But teachers' salaries are usually fixed by employers. Yet under our school laws, especially where the bulk of teachers' licenses are issued by the county superintendents, teachers may, with the help of that official, obtain almost any reasonable increase in salary. This has been effectively demonstrated by the teachers of one Illinois county. In February, 1904, the Saline County Teachers' Association appointed a committee on the state of teachers' salaries. The committee examined the assessment records in the office of the county clerk, considered the number of pupils enrolled in the various schools, and prepared a schedule of minimum salaries carrying from $25 to $100 per month for the various positions in the county. This schedule was mailed to every teacher in the county, with a request that he stand by the committee's schedule. Many of the directors complained bitterly of the proposed increase, when they found that every applicant for a particular school demanded the same salary; but the best sentiment of the county supported the teachers. Only fifteen of the 125 teachers accepted positions at less than the scheduled rate, while some boards paid $10 or $15 above the scheduled minimum. Several superior teachers were attracted from neighboring counties. There has been a revival of educational sentiment in the community, and of professional spirit among the teachers. The average monthly salary of men is now $45; of women, $40. The average three years ago was for men, $34.77; for women, $28.87.

Teachers know that, when they go into the market with their earnings to buy the services of others or the goods of manufacturers, they find in nearly every case the price of such services or goods enhanced by combinations formed to resist or control competition; they know that in all other callings demanding special knowledge or skill, organization may go on unrestrained, while their own salaries are subject to the free play of competition: The temptation to use the weapon to secure just competition is very great; yet most of us do not take kindly to this idea of organization to enforce our demands. Our coal industry now presents the spectacle of two armed camps—one of stockholders and investors, the other of wage earners—whose officers occasionally meet under a flag of truce to settle the terms upon which the armistice may continue for another year. Under modern industrial conditions has almost entirely disappeared the human sympathy that under an earlier system bound together master and man in a common interest. Who would teach if the same spirit of antagonism is to reign in the relations of teachers and the community which they serve? So, I take it, we shall resort to no trades-union methods.

We shall continue to present our claims with dignity and moderation, confident that the sense of justice and the generous disposition of the American people will give them due recognition.

The third remedy is legislative action prescribing the minimum salary that may be paid. Five states have recently enacted such laws. Pennsylvania makes the minimum salary $35 for at least seven months. Maryland makes it $300 for the year. West Virginia provides minimum monthly salaries of $40, $35, $28, respectively, for the three grades of teachers' licenses. South Dakota provides a minimum of $45 for the better grade teachers. The Indiana law enacted in 1903 provides that in the case of beginning teachers the daily wages shall not be less than 2¼ cents multiplied by the scholarship grade on his license. After the first term of teaching the multiplicand is 2½ cents; after three years, 2¾ cents. The multiplier is increased for attendance upon the annual institute and for professional ability or schoolroom success.

The examinations for teachers licenses are uniform thruout the state; 85 per cent. is the minimum grade upon which a license can be issued. Under the provision of this law, the poorest teacher in Indiana cannot be paid so little as $40 per month. In three years the law has effected an average rise in teachers' wages of 36 per cent. The increase has been all along the line, but greatest in the salaries of women teachers in rural schools, who now receive in Indiana an average monthly salary of $49.77, while in sixty-two counties in Illinois the average salary of all women teachers is less than $40 per month of twenty-one days teaching.

There can be, I think, no valid objection to such legislation. Teachers are public employees. The salaries and fees of many public officers in minor political divisions are prescribed by statute. In most of the states the legislature has made only general provisions for schools, leaving to the discretion of the various districts the amount of money to be raised, the salaries paid, the length of the term, the branches to be taught, and the selection of the teacher. In experience it has been found that the intelligence and public spirit of some communities are not sufficient adequately to execute the educational purpose of the state. The legislature has been obliged to play the schoolmaster by requiring a certain length of school year and prescribing the qualifications of teachers. A minimum-salary law is only another step in the same direction. It recognizes that the education of the children of the state is the concern of the entire state, and not merely of families or neighborhoods. It brings the intelligence and the authority of the commonwealth to the support and assistance of localities where educational sentiment is weak.

The fear is sometimes expressed that the passage of such a law tends to create the sentiment that the prescribed minimum salary is sufficient. I have yet to learn of any such law's working that way.

Prior to 1884 the salaries of county superintendents of schools in Illinois were fixed by county boards. Thirty-eight of them in that year received $400

or less; only 16 received as much as $1,000. The next year the legislature established minimum salaries of $600, $800, and $1,000, according to the number of schools in the county, and a maximum of $1,252. After twenty years these results appear:

The maximum salary is paid in 84 counties, altho required by law in but 60 counties.

The limitation, while possible in 42 counties, is applied in only 18.

In no county is the salary held down to the limit permitted to the county board.

At a convention of school officers I heard one say: "I believe we are all agreed that salaries in this county ought to run ten dollars a month higher than they do; and I believe we are also agreed that the present teachers are not worth more than they are getting." For such a condition a law providing a decent minimum is a remedy. Surely better teachers will not appear until salaries are improved. High salaries attract and retain superior teachers, and make it possible to raise the standard of qualifications. If paid for a year or two to the present poorly qualified force, they are enabled to qualify themselves by further schooling for meeting the advancing requirements.

In many states a minimum-salary law will not be effective unless supplemented by suitable means for securing a high standard of qualifications. This will not always result automatically from better pay. Some rural districts and most villages are scarcely able to raise revenue enough to pay liberal salaries under the revenue laws of many states. The number of such rural districts is not great. A minimum-salary law might impel small and weak districts to consolidate. In the states where schools are supported mainly by local taxation, there should be provided a state school tax supplying one-third of the total school revenue, to be distributed in such a manner as shall especially encourage backward districts. In our great cities the wealth on the avenues helps to educate the children in the slums. No argument is needed here for the wisdom of such policy. In the same way the wealth of all the state should stand pledged for the schooling of all the children in the state, no matter where the children may happen to reside. The bulk of the funds should still be raised by local taxation to stimulate in the people local pride in *their* school, and at the same time promote a due economy in expenditure.

I believe, Mr. President, that the next step in the salary campaign should be to secure the enactment of minimum-salary laws in the various states, supplemented by such other legislation as may be needed to make them effective. There seems to be no way to overcome the inertia of our village and rural communities. As a great body of public servants charged with a function most vital to the prosperity and perpetuity of the commonwealth, we may with dignity and self-respect ask from our legislatures such compensation as will enable us to do the work whereunto we are called.

DISCUSSION

Miss Adelaide S. Baylor, superintendent of schools, Wabash, Ind.—I agree with all that President Felmley has said concerning legislation. But it seems to me that the next step is to find what can be done to raise the standard of teaching. With the question of salaries, let us also consider what are the requirements for admitting people to the profession of teaching, and what we are doing for the growth of those already in the profession. I ask this with the greatest respect for those who are teaching. I know however, that there are those in the profession thoroly incompetent both by nature and by training. About three weeks ago a young lady in my own city came to me and said: "I should like to enter the training school." I remembered her as a young girl in the high school, being without any special qualifications for teaching—sensitive, not self-assertive, not especially popular among the students, and not very sympathetic. I had a long and earnest talk with her, and she left saying she would consider it. I asked her mother a few days later as to her daughter's plans, and was told that she had plenty to do at home, but the folks at home thought that it would be a nice little experience for her to teach a year or two. I wondered what would be the experience of the children for the year or two under her teaching.

Three years ago a principal was taking me past one of the rooms, and when I proposed to go in, she said: "We do not often take visitors in there." Recently I asked that principal how the teacher of that room was getting along. The report was that she was still doing poor work. I have wondered whether it would not be wise to appoint a committee to investigate these conditions and make such report as would aid school boards in dealing with such conditions. Our courses of study have been revised thru the recommendations of N. E. A. committees of investigation. We ask a teacher: "What are you doing in history or in English?" and the reply is: "I am following out the recommendation of the Committee of the National Educational Association." Book-publishers are preparing books in accordance with the recommendations of the Committee of Ten. We hear constantly of the Committee of Ten, or Committee of Twelve, or Committee of Fifteen. If these reports can produce results so general, if a Report on Taxation is helpful in shaping plans for taxation, I think a report on standards of teaching would be advisable. The work of such a committee should consist of a systematic investigation of standards thruout the country. In at least ten large cities in the country, standards have been established for the placing and promotion of teachers, and in many smaller cities there are such merit systems. Such systems of promotion for teachers should be known thruout the country. I think, therefore that the next step in the salary campaign should be in this direction, and recommendations resulting from such investigation will put backbone into school boards and superintendents in the selection of teachers, and when proper efficiency is secured much of the salary problem will be solved.

THE NEW PHONETIC ALPHABET

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There are three movements on foot at present, which are more or less related, and therefore likely to be confounded. These are: (1) the movement for the reform, or at least the simplification, of English spelling;[1] (2) the movement aiming at the establishment of a uniform phonetic alphabet designed to indicate English pronunciation in dictionaries, spellers, readers, etc.; (3) the movement that looks to the establishment of such a uniform

[1] Address for information: The Simplified Spelling Board, 1 Madison Avenue, New York City.

phonetic alphabet, not only for English, but for all the most important modern languages.[1]

Whatever the interrelations of these movements, no one of them is dependent upon the other two; and any man may favor and advocate one and be indifferent or hostile to the others. It is therefore necessary to be careful not to transfer thoughtlessly to the others such unfriendly feeling as one may chance to entertain for one of them. For example, many a person who is averse to spelling reform will, on consideration, find much to enlist his sympathies for the movement that aims to furnish a uniform system of representing English sounds and groups of sounds. It is this latter movement about which I wish to say a few words this morning. I shall limit myself to stating what is aimed at, and to pointing out the chief advantages of the project.

The movement originated in the minds of members of this Association and in response to a great need felt by practical teachers. No one or two dictionaries now hold the field and wield authority. The growth of scholarship and the development of the English-speaking world have demanded and made possible the preparation and sale of many good dictionaries. These have different systems of indicating pronunciation. When it is necessary to look up a word and compare authorities, the searcher is at once confronted by the task of deciphering and interpreting the various letters and diacritic marks employed, and these are so different and so differently used in the various dictionaries that it is often almost impossible to find out and remember what the authorities have to say on the subject. If teachers and other adult users of dictionaries find this process beset with difficulty, what must it be to the children in our schools? How serious this matter is and how real the trouble, one may estimate when he learns that practical dictionary workers, the men who make dictionaries and are daily employed upon them, and who are supposed to know the different systems thoroly, constantly find themselves misinterpreting and confusing the signs employed.

I may cite one or two cases in illustration of the difficulty that confronts the users of our dictionaries. The pronunciation of *either* is given in most dictionaries as *ē* or *ī*, in the Oxford dictionary as *ī* or *əi*, in the Standard as *î*. Now, all these mean the same, except that the Standard does not care to recognize the younger pronunciation. But who will blame the boy who comes back from a search of the dictionaries and says that the Oxford Dictionary favors the pronunciation with *ei* sounded like *eye* and that the Standard allows only this? When one finds the pronunciation of *mustache*, or *moustache*, given as follows, what is he to make out of it? Cassell *u̇a*, Century *u ȧ*, Imperial *u̯.a*, Student's Imperial, *o͞o ȧ*, International *o͞o ȧ*, Standard ʊ g̱, Shormonth *o͡o ȧ*, Webster's Collegiate *u̇ ȧ*. The markings represent five different pronunciations, but, of course, it will not do to associate these with the differences in marking, for the same sound has one sign in one dictionary and another in another, and the same sign has different values in different

[1] For information address: Professor J. Geddes, Jr., Boston University, Boston, Mass.

dictionaries. Indeed, the same dictionary often uses different signs for the same sound. Thus Webster's Collegiate and the International respell *soon* with *oo*, and *true* with *u̇*, and Cassell's prints *oô* in *soon* and *ûe* in *true*. The pronunciation of the two last letters in *bring* and *brink* is represented as follows:

International	Standard	Cassell	Century, etc.	Oxford
bring	*bring*	*briṅg*	*bring*	*briŋ*
briṅk	*briṅk*	*briṅk*	*bringk*	*briŋk*

All these markings mean exactly the same thing, but what child could be expected to find that out? Further examples would make the absurdity of the usual systems even more evident, but this is unnecessary.[1]

It is clear that we must do one of three things: (1) Let the matter go, and permit our pupils to continue to wander in a maze of confusion and uncertainty. (2) Banish all but one dictionary from the school-room, and suffer the consequent limitation of knowledge. (3) Establish a uniform phonetic alphabet. Fortunately, it was the last of these that was decided upon. The initiative was taken at the meeting of the Department of Superintendence in February, 1903, when a committee representing the National Educational Association was appointed to confer with like committees of the Modern Language Association and the American Philological Association, and recommend a universal system of notation for indicating pronunciation, or at least a simple practical phonetic alphabet.[2]

At the conference held in Boston (July 9, 1903), Professor Calvin Thomas was made chairman and was instructed to appoint a joint committee of five, of which he should be chairman, to prepare a report to be submitted at a subsequent meeting of the joint conference. The other members of the Joint Committee were Professor O. F. Emerson, of Western Reserve University; Dr. C. P. G. Scott, of the Century Dictionary; Mr. E. O. Vail, then editor of *Intelligence*; and myself. This committee made a tentative report in the summer of 1904 and published it in the form of a pamphlet.[3] At the request of the representative of the National Educational Association, in order to facilitate progress, this report was presented by the representatives of the American Philological Association and the Modern Language Association directly to these associations at their next meetings.

At the meeting of the American Philological Association (St. Louis, September, 1904) it was voted[4] that the association entertained a serious interest in the deliberations and recommendations of the Joint Committee and requested those members of the committee that represented the association to continue in that capacity and to submit their final report when ready.

At the meeting of the Modern Language Association (Providence, Decem-

[1] A comparative table of the vowel-notations used in the more important dictionaries will be found in the Report of the Joint Committee. See p. 131, footnote, below.

[2] See the *Proceedings* of the National Educational Association for 1903, p. 140.

[3] *Report of a Joint Committee . . . . on the Subject of a Phonetic English Alphabet*, to be had of Professor Calvin Thomas, Columbia University, New York.

[4] *Proceedings* for September, 1904, p. xxvii.

ber, 1904) the report was presented by Professor Thomas. on whose motion the association resolved that the president of the association appoint a committee of five to examine the report and suggest what, if any, amendments are desirable before the alphabet proposed by the Joint Committee should be submitted to the association for final action.[1] This Revising Committee of the Modern Language Association consisted of Professor E. S. Sheldon, of Harvard, chairman; Professor James W. Bright, of the Johns Hopkins University; Professor C. H. Grandgent, of Harvard; Professor Raymond Weeks, of the University of Missouri; and myself. Its report[2] was presented to the Modern Language Association at its meeting at Haverford last December, and was unanimously adopted and ordered printed. The same report was presented to the American Philological Association at its meeting in Ithaca a day or two later, and was also unanimously adopted, the association voting that it sanction the alphabet and recommend its use to the makers of dictionaries, and that the report of the committee be printed in the *Proceedings*.

The phonetic alphabet that has thus received the sanction of these two national philological bodies is not a new invention. It is based upon the phonetic alphabets already in wide use in philological books in Europe and America, notably the alphabet of the International Phonetic Association,[3] the alphabet employed in the great Oxford English Dictionary,[4] and the alphabet sanctioned by the American Philological Association in 1877.[5] In many respects these alphabets are alike. Where they differ, choice was determined by certain important considerations. In general, the simplicity of the alphabet of the International Phonetic Association was aimed at. In the selection and the employment of individual characters, those of the Oxford Dictionary were, in most cases, preferred, that thus there might be no unnecessary deviation from the practice of what will for a long time remain the greatest English dictionary. But the two happy forms employed in the old alphabet of the American Philological Association for the vowels in *or* and *but* were preferred to the less suggestive and more awkward forms employed in the other alphabets.

It may be asked: What is the common basis of all these alphabets? It is the Roman, as adapted to English phonology by Henry Sweet.[6] For the English sounds that do not occur in Latin, variant forms of Latin and Old English letters are made use of. (For detailed information, see the Report of

[1] *Proceedings* for 1904, p. xii.

[2] *Report of the Committee of the Modern Language Association on the Proposed Phonetic Alphabet*, a pamphlet to be had of Professor E. S. Sheldon, Cambridge, Mass.

[3] See *Aims and Principles of the International Phonetic Association*, a pamphlet to be had of Professor Paul Passy, Bourg-la-Reine, Seine, France.

[4] *A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles* (*Oxford University Press, New York*).

[5] A modified form of this is employed in the *Standard Dictionary*.

[6] In his *Handbook of Phonetics* (out of print) and his *Primer of Phonetics* (Oxford University Press, New York).

the Committee of the Modern Language Association, p. 131.) No other basis has half the claim that the Roman has. The adoption of it simply means a return to what was the foundation of all western alphabets, our own included. Most European languages have departed but little from the Roman, hence a return to the general virtues of the original is not only natural and simple, but by far the most scientific and the most practical procedure. The inadequacy of the system now employed in most English dictionaries is betrayed by the many strange and inconsistent diacritic marks that must be used to eke them out. The new alphabet limits the use of diacritic marks to a minimum; and when it employs such a mark, it does so consistently—that is, the mark has the same value or meaning with whatever letter it is used.

A child that has learned the new phonetic alphabet in the primary school would require less than an hour's instruction in the pronunciation of Latin, while the task of learning the pronunciation of German and most other European languages would be reduced to a minimum. Instead of almost invariably doing the wrong thing when confronting a foreign word or name, the average English-speaking person would instinctively hit it right nine cases out of ten. What an immense gain this would be for the now isolated English-speaking peoples, it is easy to see. Of even greater importance is the immense saving of time, referred to above, for all those engaged in learning and teaching Latin, German, and other foreign languages.

But both of these may be regarded as minor matters compared with instruction in English itself. With the so-called English values of the letters, it is impossible to teach the truth as to English sounds. This is due in part to the great revolutions that have taken place in the English vowel system. The Old English long vowels have changed immensely while the short vowels have shifted but little, or not at all. In this way the former have long since parted company with the corresponding shorts, and the continued association is not only absurd, but very misleading. What we call "long *e*" now has nothing to do with what we call "short *e*," and so on thruout the list. Arranging the English vowels physiologically with our current spelling, in the most consistent form, we have:

fool feet
full fit
no fate
obey met
all nut fur there
or fat
far past

There could hardly be a greater mix-up of letters, and any attempt to comprehend the sounds and their relations on such a basis of representation is futile.

The various systems of phonetic representation current in most of our

dictionaries and school books are particularly defective in that they do not provide signs enough for the different sounds. They are thus forced to add letters—not to represent the sound they nominally stand for, but to indicate that an adjoining letter has a different sound from what it usually has! It is as tho a new settlement in the West, instead of getting a new name, should take the name *Chicago* and then attempt to indicate by the addition of the name *Detroit* that it was not Chicago that was meant, but a new place that hadn't any name of its own. Certainly as perverse a method of doing things as one can imagine. This is what we do when we write *th* or *dh*, *sh* or *zh*, *ch*, *ng*, etc. Such a spelling as *ch* gives no idea whatever of the sounds it represents. There are two sounds and two letters, but neither letter represents either sound! The first sound in the group is *t*, the second is the sound usually spelled *sh*. Thus *catch* and *chip* differ from *cash* and *ship* in having a *t* before the sibilant. This makes it very clear how *nature* has got its present sound. The first element of the group that we call "long *u*" has, under the influence of the preceding *t*, become the sibilant usually spelled *sh*—that is all. When we attempt to use *ch* as a phonetic spelling, the phonetic facts are concealed. Indeed, it is difficult to persuade most people that *chip* begins with *t*, tho they will admit it in *catch* because it is written there. Similarly, in the case of *ng* in *bring* above, and in *long*, etc. In *brink* and *longer* we observe that we have a pure *k* and a pure *g*, each preceded by a nasal that is not the *n* heard in *in*, which is made by raising the tip of the tongue, but a similar sound made by raising the back of the tongue. In phonetic spelling this sound is represented by an *n* with an extended leg, namely *ŋ*. Now, longer still has this *ŋ*+*g*, but *long*, while it still has *ŋ*, has lost the *g*. But the spelling *ng* so takes possession of the mind that it is very hard to make most people realize that there is no *g* at all in *long*, or that when a man says *walkin* for *walking* he is simply raising the tip of his tongue instead of the back of it, that is, using *n* for *ŋ*—and not "dropping the *g*," which was dropped long, long ago. If we use *ng* as a phonetic spelling for *ŋ*, we are forced to the absurdity of using *ngg* and *ngk* to represent *ŋg* and *ŋk*. Compare the spelling of *bring* and *brink* above.

We have considered the advantages of a phonetic spelling based on the Roman values of the letters (1) in the study of foreign languages and the learning of foreign proper names, and (2) in the study of English itself. There is still another situation in which it has importance. English is now spreading as no other language is. It is studied everywhere, and in many places it is crowding out the native language. In this we are all much interested, and we surely should do all we can to promote it. By presenting to these foreigners, if not a reformed English spelling, at least a phonetic respelling that will give them quickly and exactly the information they desire, we shall do not a little to teach good English to the inhabitants of our dependencies and to spread our mother-tongue thruout the world.

WHAT FORM OF INDUSTRIAL TRAINING IS MOST PRACTICAL AND BEST SUITED TO THE COUNTRY CHILD?

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It is to be regretted, perhaps, that we do not have a better term to express the thought of this afternoon's program. For a great many most excellent people today, moving along Educational Avenue leading up to the public school, shy and stop still at the sight of the word "industrial" as applied to the work of the school. Any attempt to lead them closer for a more careful inspection of this word proves unavailing. To their thinking industrial training means the elimination of "culture," whatever that may mean, and the substitution of the reform school or the trade school. For them the thought has not yet come that education should be for service as well as for sweetness and light; that the children in our schools should be able to do things as well as to know about things. And in the doing of things there is as great opportunity for culture as there is in studying about what men have said and done, as revealed by the printed page.

The distinction between higher education and industrial education has no real foundation upon which to rest. It is a survival of the aristocratic ideas of the Middle Ages. The thought is not original with the writer to claim that farming and blacksmithing are just as high as law and theology. Whether it is better to be a blacksmith than a minister depends. As has been well said recently: "It is better to pound an anvil and make a good horseshoe than to pound a pulpit and make a poor sermon."

Quoting further from this same writer:

> There is a real distinction between education for self-support and education for self-development; between culture and what the Germans call the bread-and-butter sciences. In order, if not in importance, the bread-and-butter sciences come first. The first duty every man owes to society is to support himself; therefore the first office of education is to enable the pupil to support himself.

And, as has been said above, industrial education, if carried on aright, contributes to self-culture as well as to self-support.

It is taken for granted that everyone present this afternoon believes that this body of superintendents and the National Educational Association stand for educational leadership. Their deliberations and printed reports should give the trend and tone to educational progress in our country. A student of industrial education for the country child cannot fail to express his deep obligation to one printed report which is in trend with this afternoon's consideration. This is the 1905 report of the National Educational Association on "Industrial Education in Schools for Country Communities." The committee which formulated that report was composed of expert students of this particular field, and there is no one better qualified to speak with authority than its chairman, Superintendent L. D. Harvey, of Wisconsin.

In view of its importance, it is not claiming too much to say that this report should be studied by every country-school teacher and school officer who has to do with the administration of the country school system. Some way should be provided to create a demand for this document. No better use can be made of a part of the surplus of the funds of the National Educational Association than to send a number of copies of this report to county superintendents, to distribute to thinking teachers, school officers, and patrons of country schools. Not all county boards are as liberal as the one which permitted its county superintendent to purchase 300 copies for distribution in his county. A free distribution of this report will tend to increase the prestige of the National Educational Association as respects leadership, and at the same time remove part of the nervousness on the part of its membership as to the safety of its ever-increasing surplus funds.

This paper will enter into no argument with respect to the why and how of industrial training for the country child. The report referred to does this in a most logical and admirable manner. A twenty-minute discussion will permit only an emphasis to be placed on a few practical and suitable things that can and should enter into the all-around symmetrical development of the country child in his training for service in the new age of country life.

My discussion calls for a consideration only of "What Form of Industrial Training is More Practical and Best Suited to the Country Child."

All those interests and activities that relate to agriculture in an elementary way—quite elementary for a while—are practical and suited for the training of the country child. The prosperity of this nation in its last analysis rests upon agriculture. A very great majority of the children enrolled in the country schools will remain on the farm, and the country school should help them to a better understanding of the new phases of agriculture. The number remaining on the farm will increase when right ideals prevail in the instruction with reference to the dignity, worth, and financial possibilities of the kind of farming that is "higher education."

To be specific, a study of soil by means of the school garden is practical to a certain extent in every country school. To be sure, a live teacher will get more out of it than a dead one who does not yet even know she is dead. But something is done and can be done. A start is being made. To wait till all the teaching force is ready is to do nothing.

Last year the Department of Agriculture at Washington surveyed over fifteen million acres of farm land. The state of Illinois is spending $25,000 annually in its soil survey and soil experiments. Thus far sixteen counties have been surveyed, and the expectation is to continue till the entire 102 counties are surveyed. Every type of soil as small as ten-acre lots is mapped and described. A various-colored map is published and put in bulletin form.

Here is a map of one county [showing] which gives you an idea of the work of the soil bureau. You see the different types of soil for this particular

county represented by different colors. The printed matter in connection with this map gives an accurate account of the early settlement, climate, physiography and geology, description of the types of soil, agricultural conditions, markets, transportation facilities, etc. Laying aside all thought of industrial training, and the so-called elimination of "culture," and the alleged "making farmers" of our country children by "putting agriculture" into the country school, just think how valuable this bulletin is simply for the study of home geography! Surely there is time for the study of geography in the average country school. A copy of this map and bulletin was put into the library of every country school of this county. The expense was nothing. And this map, so far as it goes, is far more valuable for the teaching of agriculture than the so-called agricultural charts for $40 which some school officers are buying of agents who are posing as apostles of agricultural instruction for the country school.

We are not quite accurate when we speak of "putting agriculture into the country school." Rather let us attempt to put the school into agriculture —into right relation to its environment.

A school garden is practical. True, it is in its experimental stage as yet. So was manual training for the city child, and is so to a certain extent today. But no one would eliminate manual training because teachers do not yet know all about matter and method. We do not know all about the school garden as a means of giving instruction with reference to soil and plant life. We can learn, however, and learn by doing, even if the doing is crude for a few years. The best way to have a garden in the country school is to have it, even if it is not larger than four feet square. A start can be made, and that is a great deal. To sit down and contemplate the difficulties is to remain seated.

School-garden work, manual training, and domestic arts for the country school will be put on a more intelligent and permanent basis when there can be trained supervisors for this work, such as many city schools now have. This will come when the county superintendent can change the ideals of the country people so that they will regard the office for educational leadership, and not subject to the exigencies of party politics. The job of changing the ideal in this respect is a fairly big one.

True, if we could have such gardens as the Macdonald gardens of Canada, better results would be obtained. If millionaires of this country would find it possible to do as this man is doing—doing something for the country child—a great educational uplift would come to all phases of country life. Here [showing] is a most interesting pamphlet describing the Macdonald gardens. There are special traveling instructors for these gardens, which are two acres in extent. One or two quotations are sufficient to reveal their character.

With reference to the place of the garden in school work:

> The work of the garden is recognized as a legitimate part of the school program, and is already interwoven with a considerable part of the other studies. The garden is

becoming the outer class-room of the school, and the plots are its blackboards. The garden is not an innovation, or an excresence, or an addendum, or a diversion. It is a happy field of expression, an organic part of the school in which boys and girls work among growing things, and grow themselves in body and mind and spiritual outlook.

Of the advantages the following summary only is given here:

1. Educationally it affords a release from the dull routine of the school-room and puts the pupil out into the fresh air and sunlight. It is a means of help by affording scope for motor activities that are natural to growing children. The garden work is correlated with much of the formal work of the school, as arithmetic, reading, composition, drawing, etc. It serves as an introduction to the development of literary appreciation, as the "ability to appreciate the charm of many of the best poems depends not a little on ability to form visual images of natural objects." In this respect, if the teacher in the country school is alert, the country child has the advantage over the city child. For "the urban eye of the town-bred child, who has never been interested in garden or field, must fail to catch the imagery of our best nature poems."

2. Economically the school garden teaches the composition and care of the soil, best conditions for plant life, value of fertilizers, seed selection.

3. Nationally the school garden develops an interest in the fundamental industry of the country. There develop the sense of ownership and respect for property.

In the care of their own plots the pupils fight common enemies, and learn that a bad weed in a neglected plot may make trouble for many others. The garden is a pleasant avenue of communication between the school and the home, relating them in a new and living way, and thereby strengthening the public interest in the school as a national institution.

A study of the development of plant life is practical and suited for the country child. For years we have had the thorobred horse, the pure-bred cow, and now comes the high-bred corn. Here is an ear [showing] of high-bred corn raised by the president of the Illinois Corn-Growers' Association. This was taken from a field that easily made one hundred bushels per acre. To be sure, to raise hundred-bushel corn there must not only be one-hundred-bushel seed, but also hundred-bushel soil and a hundred-bushel man. Our industrial training should teach the children in the country schools to strive for these three things, viz.: better seed, increasingly fertile soil, and more intelligent methods of operation. Here is an opportunity for the school to co-operate with the home and train the children to study corn on experimental plats at home.

Likewise some training with reference to farm animal life and a consideration of some of the elementary principles of the business end of farming is practical and suitable. Farm economics is practical arithmetic, and could well take the place of much text-book matter that is "taught at." Surely, the average country school has time to teach the arithmetic that the pupils must use after leaving school.

With the country high schools—that is, the village high schools—and the country consolidated school as centers, manual training for the country child should begin. From these schools this educational activity will spread into a large number of one-room country schools. This will be slow; for the average farmer does not yet distinguish between manual training and manual labor. If all the data could be collected, it would appear that quite a considerable amount of manual training, elementary in form, is now being carried on in the country schools.

Here is a great opportunity for the school to co-operate with the country home; and thru the inspiration and help of a live teacher a work-bench can be installed in the home workshop, if it seems impracticable to install one in the country schoolhouse. The boy at home, and the girl too, along home economy, can make a small collection of simple tools, and from the teacher receive instruction as to processes of work, etc. The country school and the country home should come closer together. The lines of industrial work suited to the farm and farm home offer an exceptionally fine opportunity for this closer union for a common purpose. Most of the old farm home activities have gone since the introduction of farm machinery of improved make. With this change have gone some elements in the training for the country child that must be supplied by the new country school and the new farm home, to meet the new conditions of country life in the age of telephones, trolley cars, daily delivery of mail, improved farm machinery, discoveries relating to the science of agriculture, and improved methods of farm operations.

For the boy this manual training will consist in a working knowledge of the care and use of simple tools for repair work on the farm, the elements of simple carpentry, farm mechanics, etc. With this will go a practical knowledge of materials.

For the girl there will be instruction in household economy and management, food materials and the preparation of food, sewing and a study of textiles, etc.

There need be no alarm that the country child will not receive culture along these lines. As has been well said:

> To teach a boy the mechanics of homekeeping, to teach a girl the chemistry of homekeeping, is as much self-culture as to teach either what kinds of homes the ancient Greeks and Romans possessed. Our present self development is too narrow. We need to broaden it. Manual training is necessary to make the "all-round" man.

We can take this culture to the country child, and in addition take to the country school good books, art, and music, and we need no longer be under the necessity of tearing up the farm home by its roots and taking the children to the city in order to secure the country child's right to partake of the best educational opportunities that the age has to offer.

FORMS OF INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION BEST ADAPTED TO CITY CHILDREN

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The traditional subjects of the school curriculum aim to train the child thru exercises whose perception basis is either visual or auditory, or both. The child's seeing and hearing alone, condition all his learning within the scope of the time-honored subjects. But manual training aims at the development of the individual thru the introduction of experiences based on other sense-perceptions than those of sight and hearing. Touch and muscular resistance are called into play because they furnish, independently and in conjunction with the other sense-avenues, experiences which react in the development of nervous centers and forces otherwise left practically impotent, so far as the training of the schools is concerned. In deciding what forms of manual training are especially valuable for the child of any determined environment, certain governing principles must be kept clearly in mind:

1. This training must develop capacity which is a new, additional positive contribution to the child's unconscious endeavor at self-realization, and the school's conscious endeavor to transform his possibilities into powers.

2. This training should furnish him experience which enlarges his capacity to adapt himself more easily and efficiently to his life-work and environment when school days are finished. He should begin to learn as a boy things he must do as a man.

3. This training should not neglect to furnish him some experiences lying entirely outside the field of his prospective life-activity, and especially some of that class of experiences which will enable him to understand and sympathize with the endeavor and aim of large groups of his fellow-men whose surroundings and occupations are decidedly unlike his own. He should begin to get the view-point as a boy of a position he will not occupy as a man, but which will be occupied by thousands of his fellow-men with whom the good of the commonwealth and the nation demands that he shall have intelligent sympathy.

4. This training is the resultant of exercises in which the pupil is making high endeavors at self-expression. His ideals of strength, utility, beauty, and honesty are modeled in the clay, cut and carved in the wood, bent and forged in the iron, braided and woven into the raffia and reeds which he manipulates.

With these principles in mind, and a recognition of the fact that the immediate direction of the manual-training work of the great majority of city children must be in the hands of the regular grade teacher, we may proceed to make some specific answers to the question: "What forms of industrial training are best suited to the child of any determined environment?"

Obedience to the first and fourth of these principles will eliminate some

of the common forms of manual training frequently used as pedagogical soothing syrup, under the name of "busy work," in many primary schools. It will do away with much of the work on hard and fast models, in which the pupil has little or no choice or initiative, and which admit of only a comparatively low order of self-expression.

So far as the life of any particular city or class of cities is distinctive, its conditions must guide us in applying the second and third principles, which chiefly determine the forms proposed for our discussion.

Recognition of the principle that in manual training and industrial education the pupil should be taught to know and do, as a boy, things which he will have to do as a man, is now widespread. We have ceased to apologize for any special form of manual training having educational value, because it gives a boy the skill of a craft in which he may later earn his living. We are no longer ashamed to acknowledge that many of our pupils are taught in our schools the very art or arts whose exercise in the business world gives them their support. This conclusion is the only justification for the large place that cooking and sewing have long enjoyed in the schools of our most progressive cities. Call it trade-school work if you will, but remember that all our girls must be trained for the vocation of homemaker, and be skilled either in practising these two arts or in the direction, supervision, and training of others in their exercise.

I may probably best indicate by illustration what I deem to be wise operation of the law that the special character of the business life of a city should affect the forms of industrial education in its schools. My own city (Hartford) is known thruout the business world as a banking, insurance, and manufacturing center. We employ thousands of clerks, accountants, copyists, bookkeepers, typists, and stenographers in these offices of our banks, insurance companies, and factories. The factories are devoted largely to the production of high-grade metal manufactures. Our guns and automobiles, our tires and bicycles, our typewriters and automatic machinery, go into every quarter of the world where efficiency is prized. In their production we employ thousands of machinists, pattern-makers, draftsmen, smiths, and other high-grade mechanics. The ranks of all these must be annually recruited from the boys trained in our public schools.

We recognize, accordingly, that penmanship has in our schools a place which it is not generally accorded or entitled to in many other cities. We deliberately teach it as an important manual art all thru the nine grades of the grammar schools, and in the high school as well. Similarly, work in wood and iron is begun as low as the fifth grade of the grammar schools and carried thru the high school. Drawing and design begin in the kindergarten, and are available thru every year to the end of the high-school course. Typewriting, stenography, and bookkeeping are taught in our high school. Our work in pattern-making, mechanical drawing, and machine-shop practice is more extended than might be justified in a city of different commercial life.

Our evening high school has not hesitated to undertake the training in its shops and drafting-rooms of ambitious young men from the factories. Without conscious formulation of the doctrine that the schools of the community should teach whatever the business of the community demands in a large way, we have accepted it in our practice.

Because of recognition of the principle that every man's vocation, as well as his location, puts limitations upon his life and thought, we have always deemed it necessary to teach pupils many things in history, literature, and language, largely for the purpose of enabling them to understand people far removed from them in time or territory. We know the moral value of the suggestion, "Put yourself in his place;" but we have not fully learned that due appreciation of the dignity of manual labor, and its possible intelligence and self-respect cannot be gained without doing this in some practical way. No amount of reading and study will do this for most of us as efficiently as a little experience with the life work of the class we would understand. How else can we account for the general attitude of the public toward manual and industrial education? We hear enough of its virtue, we read enough of the value of its contribution to the efficiency of the social and political life. But so long as only the neglected negro, the abused Indian, and the inmates of our reformatories and penitentiaries are made its chief beneficiaries, how can we avoid the conclusion that it is not truly understood?

Now no one will deny that it is highly important that the city boy, who as a man is to live in the city, help form public opinion of the city, and express that in his vote, should have a sympathetic interest in the work of the farmer, the horticulturist, and the gardener. The good of the commonwealth demands it. In my own state the gravest hindrance to progress in helpful legislation for both city and country is mutual misunderstanding of the city view-point and the country view-point. We in the city think the shortcoming and the duty of our farmer fellow-citizen are manifest; but is it not our duty to give our children, not only tuition, but industrial experience that will make it easier for them to co-operate more intelligently and sympathetically with the great agricultural class?

And not alone in manufacturing states like Connecticut, but thruout the Union, the city children need this opportunity to gain at least an elementary acquaintance with the life-endeavor of the great farming class. The best place to train our city boys and girls to this open-eyed and open-hearted co-operation with the millions of their farmer fellow-citizens is in the school garden. The school garden as an institution has, of course, large value as a nature-study laboratory. It may also prove a solution of the vexed problem lying between too many hours in school and too many hours on the street. But its chief value lies in the fact that it gives thru its experience the oral and intellectual sympathy which I have urged is so needed in the civic and political life.

It may be urged that the garden on any adequate scale is not available

in the city. It is not and will not be in the city on the day in which we do not insist on the minimum land interests of children. No man would undertake to rear a score of good Kentucky colts without ample grounds in which they might get their play and their training. To limit these would be to insure failure with the noblest quadruped the world has produced. But dozens of communities are essaying to rear a thousand American boys and train them on a school site but little larger than the building—a school site covered with a brick house, a concrete walk, and the grave of man-making play, above which rises the mournful epitaph: "Keep off the grass." Have we not reached the time when we know that blooming girls and bouncing boys are worth more than springing grass and budding bush? Whenever and wherever the physical rights of our youth are properly understood by the managers of our schools, we can trust the solution of the land question to the American father, whose prayer today is still that of the Grecian hero before the walls of Troy: "May this, my son, be greater than his father."

Again, let me illustrate by the example with which I came to be most familiar, and which involved all the type difficulties besetting the development of a city school garden. The Wadsworth Street School—the central school of the system for which I am responsible—is situated in the heart of a thickly populated district of our city. To it 1800 boys and girls went daily. The unoccupied portions of the site were barely adequate to the play purposes of the school. The proper appeal to the school committee in the name of the open-air rights of the children resulted in the purchase of the needed land contiguous to the school site. All was uninclosed, and to the committee it seemed desirable to keep open to the public certain walks thru the property by which thousands of citizens daily traveled to and from their homes. The land secured was enough to furnish garden opportunity for from 300 to 400 children in one year. It seemed desirable, then, to give the garden opportunity to the children of the youngest grades. The first year the gardens were given up exclusively to the children of six kindergartens, under the leadership of an enthusiastic kindergarten supervisor of limitless industry. Nearly all of the kindergartners and the great mass of their children caught the spirit of the work, and the gardens were a great success. The boys and girls of the neighborhood, without any invitation, took upon themselves, out of school hours and during vacation, the duty of protecting from trespassers and marauders. Remember the tract was unfenced and that from 5 P. M. to 6 A. M. no teacher or school official, not even a janitor, was on the premises. The morals of young and old in the neighborhood were equal to withstanding all, or nearly all, temptation. Remember too, that there were scores of children living within a few blocks of this garden who were pupils in private schools and had possibly never attended public schools. Bear in mind, further, that there was no special police protection given to this block more than to any others in the vicinity. When the watermelons approached maturity, and before the frost was on the pumpkins, the watering

of some juvenile mouths and the longing for Jack-o'-lanterns became too powerful, and we lost a good portion of these two crops. Otherwise flowers and vegetables were practically unmolested.

The next season four first primary grades were added to the garden squad. Their teachers brought added enthusiasm, energy, and thoughtful consideration to the managing and directing forces. We were fortunate in having in these departments teachers able to take up new problems intelligently, and ready to follow them up persistently. The gardens were now a pronounced success. The work was practically all done by the children and their teachers. The highly efficient teacher or kindergartner could be picked out as readily in the garden as in the school. We had answered the question: "Are the school hours too long for the primary children?" Too long always for the wrong kind of work; never too long in the school that has the intelligence to recognize, the courage to stand for, and the freedom to serve the true interests of the growing child.

Other cities of varying industrial life and environment may furnish varying specifications in their answer to the question we have discussed. The principles which we have endeavored to enunciate must, however, be followed by all. The best forms of industrial education for the children of any given city must result in the development of power not adequately developed in the traditional curriculum, must train for industrial efficiency in the city, and must give sympathetic understanding and respect for the life-work of the millions in the country.

ART AS RELATED TO MANUAL TRAINING

JAMES EDWIN ADDICOTT, PRINCIPAL OF ISIDORE NEWMAN MANUAL-TRAINING SCHOOL, NEW ORLEANS, LA.

It is my purpose today to make clear two points: first, that art and manual training, as expressed in private, municipal, and national life, are one and inseparable, and consequently should be so presented in the industrial-arts courses for our public schools; second, I shall attempt to show specifically what phases of art and manual training may be correlated naturally and advantageously.

This paper assumes that both art and manual training constitute essential branches in the courses of study of our elementary and secondary schools. The direct question before us is: Are they distinct branches having few points of contact, or are they fundamentally related?

The answer cannot be safely settled by referring to texts on the subject; neither should opinions of successful teachers of the individual subjects be wholly relied upon, unless perchance they aim far beyond the technique and organization of school work. Rather let us look out broadly upon the necessities of the industrial world and feel the pulsing need of American institutional life, if we would answer the question rationally.

To be more specific, it must be admitted that, on the one hand, there may

be a few individualistic artists whose work is so highly specialized as to go wholly unrelated to structural elements; and, on the other hand, there may be mechanics whose work does not and need not partake of any artistic feeling. It seems to me, however, that such specialists have no more right to expect that a technical preparation for their callings be given in the elementary schools than the lawyer has to expect a training sufficient to plead a case of criminality in the courts, or the surgeon that all pupils be qualified to treat a case of appendicitis, or the clergyman to request that each child be able to expound the doctrine of the Trinity.

In the past the manual-training movement in this country emphasized highly specialized technical and accuracy features as essentials of a preparation for a few specific forms of handicraft. Likewise much of art in the schools has been and still is a series of drawings arranged in such sequence as eventually after many years of effort to prepare the pupil for some specific phase of so-called "refined art." The teacher who hopes to guide educational thought today must feel the relation of his specific branch to the world's work. Admitting the narrow specializing aims of art and manual training in the past, it is but just to say that they approached the educational ideal as closely as other school branches: for we not only claimed, and could prove by the theories of the pioneer psychologists, that manual training and art trained all the faculties at one sweep, but we invented some new, artistic, and mechanical faculties which were developed simultaneously with the commonly accepted list.

With such narrow and undemocratic ideals, and with such an inadequate theory of the aim of education, it was impossible fully to comprehend the fundamental relations which naturally combined the arts and crafts into a broad and unifying educational movement.

Today the educational ideal has shifted. We look not so much to textbooks, not to the teacher, not to the rich heritage of the past; rather, we look to society, and to the great industrial and commercial enterprises, if we would know just what is best to teach.

The thoughts contained in texts, the ideas of the pedagog, and the ideals of past generations are to be accepted only as they serve to fulfill society's present plans for physical, intellectual, and religious attainments and needs.

From this broad social standpoint let us first consider the arts, then the crafts, and then their union as expressed in private and public needs; and lastly the relations of the two in school as a preparation for, and as a participation in, this private and public life.

In the past there has been an almost superstitious reverence for the highly specialized talents of the artist. Someone has described the artist as "heaven-taught;" for it is he that has led us to see and appreciate the beauties of ocean, of mountain, and of God's grandest works.

When the artist really does lead us thru his work to a nearer view, and a higher appreciation of the exquisite harmonies and beauties of nature, his work may indeed be styled heaven-taught, and even heavenly; and he may be given

credit for living up to his highest religious and educational ideals. Too often however, we see the painter of the picture glorified, rather than the works of the Creator which inspired the artist and thus made the painting possible. We have a suggestion here of the true nature and mission of art. Art fulfills its highest mission only when it leads us to a higher appreciation of the beauties of nature, whether they be inanimate, animate, or human. A taste for things beautiful in nature, a refined and delicate feeling of pleasure in the sunset, the woods, the mountain streams, and a sympathy for nature's creatures, are among the highest ideals of art instruction.

When fine art becomes separated from all other arts, when fine art ceases to be an integral part of the thoughts, actions, and inner being of the individual, its grace, charm, and effectiveness are lost.

Instruction in fine art is the creation of an atmosphere in which the student breathes, moves, and performs every detail of his life's work. Fine arts should affect our taste for nature, for literature, for music, for high companionship, and, in fact, for everything lovely and holy.

Art is not a subject to be isolated from all other subjects, and then subdivided into its various parts for special study and arrangement; but rather a charming appreciation of all things beautiful, at all times and in all places. Consider for a moment the broad influence of art in the modern home. Notice the simplicity of lines in the woodwork and furniture; notice the color scheme of carpets, rugs, tapestry, wall-paper, and decorations. While there are many things in one room, the harmonious blending of colors and of simple decorations impresses one with a unity and simplicity that are exquisitely pleasurable. The darker tones of the floor gradually lighten to the soft tints of the ceiling, producing a quietude in the individual similar to that felt when nature supplies the restful dark-green beneath, the woods and mountains in the foreground, and the light-blue sky above.

An attempt to separate clearly the arts from the crafts in such a home would mean annihilation to both. Without the delicate artistic touches to the structural and ornamental elements, there would be little need or appreciation for much of the craftsman's work. Reciprocally, without the constructions of manufacturer or craftsman, how and where may the artist express his feelings or display his talents?

The union of arts and crafts is displayed in every department of a modern home; from the drawing-room to the kitchen, the principles of harmony, simplicity, and beauty are expressed by the correlated work of the artist and the artisan.

This correlation is strikingly manifested also in private, municipal, and national enterprises, tho what has been accomplished is a very small part of what is to be. Elaborate preparations are on foot in many of our cities to adopt a style of architecture adapted to the climate and most fitting the natural environment; also to give such cities an arrangement of public buildings that will add architectural beauty, and at the same time suit the convenience of the

public. The conception of artistic civic centers, with landscape gardening, boulevards, and parks, is growing in popularity every day, and evidences in a profound way the increasing public appreciation and demand for the union of arts and handicrafts. In many of our American cities the union of the beautiful and the useful is being expressed in every detail coming under municipal control. We find artistic feeling expressed even in the poles and fixtures for electric and gas lights, in bill-boards, shop fronts, fire-alarm boxes, plates naming the streets, letter-boxes, electric-light signs, pavements, fountains, monuments, and the arrangement of steps, flowers, shrubs, trees, and lawns.

Striking examples of this harmonious blending of the arts and crafts may be found in public buildings, such as the Boston Public Library and the Southern Pacific Railroad Depot at San Antonio, Tex. The latter has an entrancing architectural charm, and seems to bespeak the climate, history, and character of the Texan people. The simplicity, beauty, and unity expressed by the Boston Public Library are beyond description. One can simply breathe the atmosphere and receive the inspiration. Every minute spent within its walls only enhances the ennobling influences which administer to the spiritual emotions.

In government buildings such as the Congressional Library and the new San Francisco Post-Office we see indications of a growing national desire for the correlation of handcrafts and arts. Tho these national buildings may not fully satisfy our ideals for unity and simplicity, nevertheless, when viewing them, the æsthetic element dominates one's feelings.

At the Louisiana Exposition much of the so-called arts and crafts was exhibited in the Palace of Fine Arts. Porcelain, glass, and metal-work, textiles, and household furnishings, were awarded honors and prizes on equal terms with paintings and sculpture. It is gratifying to note this national approval of the art-craft movement. It would seem in place now to ask the following questions:

Should teachers of art or of manual training ignore the official position of the government in this matter? Should they ignore the desires and needs of society? Should they be taught largely for art's sake, and manual training; or should they both be taught wholly for the pupil's sake, and for the sake of society whom we serve?

It is unfortunate that teachers of art and manual training have been so slow to recognize each other's virtues; for the work of either is essential to the welfare of the other. If the fault lies unevenly, it would seem to rest on the side of those who are mechanically inclined. The all-important thing at present is to harmonize these elements, and thus secure a reciprocal influence between art and construction. The most useful things are artistic, and the most artistic things are in the highest sense useful.

The artistic project is becoming the ideal of the artisan, while usefulness and fitness are being recognized by artists as concomitants of the beautiful.

This meeting upon common ground of art and industry is due in no small measure to our changed and changing notions of education, thoroness, and specialization. The specialist of today is not that person who knows one thing and only one thing, but rather that person who knows one thing in relation to all other things to which it is in some way related.

There is no adverse criticism of the artist who makes a shelf, or plants and cares for a flower garden; on the contrary, we credit him with being an artist of the broader sort. The artisan in the same way is considered a more proficient man if he gives a touch of beauty to the form and color of his work.

The present tendency to introduce art and manual training into the already crowded curriculum of our public schools is due to this broader view of education, thoroness, and culture. Both these subjects touch in a vital way the very heartstrings of every boy, girl, man, and woman. Each of these branches is related in some way to every other subject in the curriculum, and by denying either of them a place in the course of study we only weaken that course, and consequently the pupil; for we are thereby cutting off the full supply of experiences which give life and motive to the thoughts and actions of normal children.

The school-teacher who objects to art and manual training on the ground that there is not even time to teach reading, writing, and arithmetic thoroly, is like the farmer who spent all his time plowing, harrowing, irrigating, and fertilizing; but, as he never found time to do these things thoroly and perfectly, he therefore objected to planting any seeds.

This school work that is always *getting ready* for life and forever says to the child, "Don't touch life till you are thoroly prepared by studying textbooks," is like the experience of the farmer who refused to plant seeds until the propitious time had passed, or like the boy who was trying to swim before venturing into the water.

I have little patience with that form of education which is based wholly upon a preparation for life; if the school work isn't life, and life-work, it isn't worthy the name of education. Education means life. "I am come that they might have life, and that they might have it more abundantly." The life of every boy and every girl is an unfolding, a growth, a participation in some form of life's duties; and the process is internal application, not external. We have looked upon the child too much as we would a watch with all its wheels, springs, screws, and cogs, thinking that, as the watchmaker may adjust and lubricate till the perfect timepiece is produced, just so the teacher may force his ideas and impressions upon the child, regardless of the child's aptitudes, previous experiences, or attainments. If this theory were true, we should have found the perfect man long ago. We shall make educational progress faster and more naturally by thinking of the child rather as a plant which does and must develop largely according to its natural inclinations. We can nourish, protect, and guide; but we cannot safely force either the growth of the plant or the development of the child.

As a means of natural unfolding and self-expression, we find both art and manual training to be safe and reliable agents.

The correlation of these two subjects is the great need of each. This cannot be done by discussing the relative merits of each, nor by emphasizing the strong characteristic features of one for the purpose of improving the other. What we must do is to seek common ground, and work together along the line of least resistance for common ideals. We have already shown that there are certain fields of educational work and of industrial enterprises and of practical everyday affairs which look to both art and mechanical skill for their highest and richest realization of success. Speaking broadly, we find that even remote and apparently unrelated branches, such as music, poetry, and literature, are dependent in no small way upon the fine arts for a full and complete interpretation; the mechanical element, likewise, is necessary for any expression of cadence and rhythm in either poetry or music.

It is in the field of industrial arts that hand-skill and fine arts are obviously related and interdependent. In the preparation and serving of foods, in the planning and making of clothing, in the construction of homes, business houses, means of transportation, and in the various other conveniences serving the æsthetic and practical needs of man, we find the common ground referred to—the workable field for both fine arts and manual training.

In considering the various subtopics coming under the general heading of industrial arts, we find some lines, such as pottery, basketry, and metal-work, lending themselves most naturally to the artistic designer; there are other lines, such as textiles, cardboard, and wood-work, offering many limitations; while still other lines, such as joinery and machine-shop work, admit of very little art expression.

Let us now consider what phases of art are best suited to manual-training courses. Both applied design and art interpretation may well serve the manual-training teacher; for the former deals with the size, form, and color of construction, and the latter allows a universal application of art principles.

It is evident that other important lines of art, such as a study of pictures, and the life and works of artists, of historical and inspirational masterpieces, as well as the production of pure or modified representation, are less intimately related to structural work.

That branch of art known as design seems, then, to be most vitally related to hand-work; indeed, it is an essential part of that work; for it deals not only with decoration, but also with construction and arrangement of parts.

By design I mean the "conception and expression of form and color ideas, including all kinds of construction, arrangement, and decoration." The main purposes of design are to secure unity, simplicity, and beauty; the specific principles of balance, rhythm, harmony, variation, etc., are also to be ever kept in mind.

Every design must be influenced by, and must conform to, the ideas of *use* to

which the thing is to be put, to the essential structure, to the materials of which it is to be made, and to its surroundings. It is in these last ideas that the artist finds his greatest difficulties when trying to assist the manual training work. The art teacher who has never made a basket can hardly be expected to direct the work in designing baskets. The same difficulites arise in designing for sewing, bent-iron work, cabinet-making, or any other line of hand-work.

The question naturally arises: "Where may the teacher be found who is at once artist and mechanic?" One rarely finds an artist with the accurate training of a mechanic; the artist rather deplores accuracy as being destructive to art. On the other hand, how few technological students find real pleasure in fine arts; they rather look upon artists as visionary persons who have a superstitious reverence for beautiful forms and color.

Occasionally we find an artist who sees how art may be applied to the work of securing and making food, clothing, and shelter in such a way as to administer to the æsthetic feelings as well as to the material comforts of man.

Occasionally, too, we see a manual-training teacher taking fine-arts courses, and getting the appreciation and spirit of art, perhaps as a controlling influence over all he sees and hears and thinks.

While we are expressing our desires and ideals concerning the simultaneous teaching of hand-work and art, the fact still remains that the artist-artisan who is at once an artisan-artist is rarer than the four-leafed clover—I might say after the frost.

What education needs today is men and women who are well balanced in these two related subjects, who appreciate both, and who can teach both without under- or over-estimating either.

The teacher of design should fully understand the limitations of materials to be used; such knowledge is impossible to one who has not had much experience in the manipulation of substances involved in manual-training courses. The teacher of hand-work has the limitations of material well defined; he usually has his ideas of design well defined also—too well in fact, for the straight edge and compasses are still used at the expense of free-hand designs, and consequently the æsthetic element is not given its rightful place.

It is practically impossible for the art teacher and the manual-training teacher fully to agree upon the design and structure of a given project, and this lack of agreement indicates the desirability of securing a teacher who is well balanced in designing and construction. Such combined qualifications, as has been pointed out before, are rarely found in one teacher. And this indicates the crux of the whole matter. When our training schools and colleges can send out well-balanced teachers of the arts and crafts, teachers who understand both, and teachers who love to teach both, the question before us now will not be a difficult one to solve. This does not mean that teachers without training in each line should be forced to teach both; for if the teacher is an artist, it is futile to try to get an exact balance of the two. If the teacher

is a mechanic, the same is true. Let the teacher teach that which he loves, that which he feels and lives in, that which he has the power to enthuse his pupils with, and to give them a thirst for more.

To state briefly our conclusions:

1. Art and manual training are fundamentally related, and should be so considered in elementary and secondary schools.

2. In all lines of industrial arts hand-work and design may be advantageously correlated.

3. The double purpose of this correlation is to elevate and refine the work of the artisan, and at the same time to make the artist's work practical and essential.

4. From the pupil's standpoint this correlation gives interest, reason, and motive to both art and hand-work.

Lastly, the ideal is to make of every teacher artist an artisan-artist, and of every teacher artisan an artist-artisan.

REPORT OF THE JOINT COMMITTEE, REPRESENTING THE AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION AND THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION, ON INSTRUCTION IN LIBRARY ADMINISTRATION IN NORMAL SCHOOLS

PREPARED BY ELIZABETH G. BALDWIN

LETTER OF TRANSMISSION

To the President and Members of the National Council of Education:

This report is made in accordance with the following resolution of the Library Department of the National Educational Association, passed at St. Louis, June 30, 1904:

> It is the sense of this department that greater uniformity in library methods would be effective in bringing the benefit of library work to all classes of schools, and it is therefore recommended that the Library Department be authorized to prepare a manual of library methods, to be printed and distributed in the same manner as was, in 1897, the "Report on the Relations of the Public Libraries to Public Schools."

The National Educational Association has never felt it desirable to undertake the publication of manuals or text-books. Accepting this policy as settled and wise, this committee named by the Library Department (and confirmed by your Council), and charged with the duty expressed in the above resolution, entered into extended correspondence with the leading normal schools of the country, and prepared a preliminary report, presented at the Asbury Park meeting, July, 1905. It was there ordered that the Committee proceed to elaborate the report, and that when completed it should be printed for distribution to members of the Council and others; and the sum of three hundred dollars was appropriated for the necessary expenses.

The committee expresses its great obligation to Miss Elizabeth G. Baldwin, librarian of Teachers College, one of the several colleges of Columbia University, by whom the body of the report has been compiled. She is daily in contact with the very best forms of normal instruction and the very best types of normal students, and therefore is doubly prepared for a satisfactory completion of this generous undertaking.

The work has been done under the general supervision of the chairman of the committee, aided by constant suggestions of other members. It has been difficult, because of different conditions to be considered. Neither in quantity nor in quality is the instruction for students in high schools identical with that possible for those in normal schools. Many normal graduates will have charge

of very small school libraries, and for these the simplest forms and methods are quite sufficient. Others will become responsible for the larger and more highly specialized libraries of well-equipped high schools. Many are to work in towns which are fortunate enough to possess good public libraries, and therefore ought to be well informed as to the administrative possibilities of these. All ought to be sufficiently versed in library economy to be able to take an intelligent and effective interest in the public library from the standpoint of good citizenship. To suggest instruction covering the entire ground, without impossible details or mere generalizations, is no easy task. That the result will be entirely satisfactory cannot be expected. Librarians themselves are not entirely agreed upon the details of their profession. The report is not to be taken as a text-book—rather as a book of texts; as suggestive, to be abridged or enlarged as conditions and the experience of the instructor may determine.

The committee suggests that not less than ten lectures or class periods be given to this work, with two hours' practice-work for each period—thirty hours (minimum) in all. Double this time would be better.

It is presumed that a teacher, whether librarian or other, using this report as a basis of instruction, will find helpful in preparation for the work of each day the authors and texts referred to in the body of each section, as well as in the bibliography given at the close of each. Students also will find these references helpful in their study of the subjects presented.

The committee hopes that this report may serve as a daily guide for those interested in this work, after their more personal and independent work as teachers has begun; and that it may stimulate and render more efficient the interest of school officers and of the general public in the administration and work of public libraries.

Respectfully submitted

James H. Canfield, *Chairman*
Melvil Dewey
Mary E. Ahern
Electra C. Doren
Martin Hensel

January, 1905

REPORT

Public library growth.—Step by step, slowly perhaps but certainly, the public library is following the path already trodden by the public school. The experience of the one is almost identical with that of the other. The success of the one has been determined, and evidently will be determined, by the same factors which solved the problems of the other. There has been the same indifference on the part of the favored few, the few who seem entirely able to create libraries of their own—whether they are able to enjoy them and appreciate them or not; the same early and crude endeavor to meet a demand which was itself immature and more or less unintelligent—the free schools and the free library arise under similar educational and social conditions; the same spirit of condescension and the same patronizing air, assumed by the so-called better class, as though the free schools and the free libraries were philanthropies and not necessities; the same blundering and short-sightednesss of some friends of the public-library movement, the failure to ground the library on that sure foundation, public service; the same complaint on the part of the taxpayers about "useless expenditure" and "fads and frills;" the same meager pay and inadequate recognition given to library workers; the same slow growth of a true professional spirit; and now there is coming, practically has come, the same hearty recognition of a worthy place and of true value. This recognition of the free public library was scarcely discernible even ten years ago.

Public library place.—The place now assigned the public library, by very general consent, is that of an integral part of our system of public and free education. On no other theory has it sure and lasting foundation; on no other theory may it be supported by general taxation; on no other theory can it be wisely and consistently administered. A public tax can be levied for the maintenance of a public library only upon the principle which underlies all righteous public taxation; not that the taxpayer wants something and will receive it in proportion to the amount of his contribution, but that the public wants something of such general interest and value that all property-owners may be asked and required to contribute toward its cost.

Public library purpose.—In the particular case under consideration, that something is the general rise in the average line of life, of intelligent and therefore effective citizenry, an advance beyond that which the public schools are able to accomplish. The demand for this intelligent and effective citizenship is increasing daily, for two reasons. First, the problems of public life and of public service, of communal existence (local, state, and national), are daily becoming more complex, more difficult of satisfactory solution. Second, we are recognizing more clearly than ever before that our present success and prestige

are due (more than to any other cause) to the fact that more than any other people in the world's history have we succeeded in securing the active participation and practical co-operation of the whole people in all public affairs. In the whole people are we finding and are we to find wholesomeness and strength.

Public schools not enough.—But coincident with this discovery, this keen realization of the place and value of all in advancing the common interests of all, has come the feeling, first, that the common public schools must be made good enough for all; and, second, that even at their best they are insufficient. The five school years (average) of the American child constitutes a very narrow portal thru which to enter upon the privileges and duties of life, as we desire life to be to every child born under the flag. There is need of far more information, instruction, inspiration, and uplift than can possibly be secured in that limited time.

Libraries supplement schools.—Casting about for a satisfactory supplement and complement for the public schools, we find the public library ready to render exactly this service; to make it possible for the adult to continue thru life the growth begun in childhood in the public school. Only in this way and by this means can we hope to continue the common American people as the most uncommon common people which the world has yet known.

Henceforth then, these two must go hand in hand, neither trenching upon the field of the other, neither burdening or hampering the other, each helping the other. The public school must take the initiative, determining lines of thought and work, developing in each child the power to act and the tendency to act, making full use of the public library as an effective ally in all its current work, and making such use of it as to create in each pupil the library habit, to last thru life. The public library must respond by every possible supplementary effort, by most intelligent co-operation, by most sympathetic and effective assistance, and by giving the pupils a welcome which they will feel holds good till waning physical powers make further use of the library impossible.

Teachers and libraries.—Those who are to enter upon the profession of teaching will find themselves necessarily and gladly in this contact with the public library. Often they themselves must add the duties of librarian to other daily tasks. In some communities the school library is the only collection of books available to pupils, or which find their way into homes. It is exceedingly desirable, therefore, that teachers learn the elements at least of library administration, and that there shall be more uniformity in school-library methods.

Method of instruction.—The ideal method of presenting this subject is by a thoroly trained and experienced librarian and teacher. In larger normal schools this demand ought to be met by their own librarians, who should invariably be as well trained and as efficient as any member of the teaching force. Wherever this is not feasible, the normals of a state, and even of adjoining states, may o-operate and secure a "traveling instructor." When this seems impracticable the school should do the best it can, with whatever assist-

ance or instruction is possible. Under either method, and in any event, this report proposes to be helpful to both instructors and teacher-students.

The proposed instruction covers scarcely more or other than anyone ought to know if he is to gather wisely even a private library; surely not more than an active citizen should know if he is to serve effectively as a trustee of a public library, and certainly not more than ought to be perfectly familiar to every teacher from the standpoint of either her professional work or of general influence in the community in which her lot is cast. Indeed, there is little which outruns what nowadays may be called common information. There would be something rather pitiful in the position of one who hoped to be much of a force in any segment of human society, yet was without at least this much knowledge of these everyday matters. In a word, there seems every reason for offering this instruction in normal schools, and possibly even in high schools which are preparing their graduates to teach; and no possible excuse for ignoring this.

Limits of instruction.—The kind and extent of instruction in library economy given in a normal school will be determined by the time secured for lectures and practice-work. The following will be found suggestive:

The Indiana Public Library Commission has published a normal-school course. The director of the library school of the Western Reserve University has planned a course on reference and bibliographic work as subjects to be taught in high schools and normal schools, based upon materials of instruction found in school curricula.

The Illinois State Normal University (at Normal) gives a course of six weeks in formation and care of school libraries; including selection and purchase of books, classification, cataloguing, care of school libraries, and treatment of pictures, pamphlets, clippings, etc.

The State Normal School at Whitewater, Wis., has published a very helpful outline of quite similar work.

A brief statement of the course given in the Cleveland Normal School, furnished by Miss E. L. Power, is a type of this class of library instruction:

> The course ranks with other subjects in the curriculum. Three hours a week for two terms of thirteen weeks each are assigned. The public library is used as a laboratory for student practice-work. The first part of the course is the practical use of reference books, and of the library facilities of Cleveland.
>
> The work correlates with the school work in nature-study, history, geography, etc., so that real problems are solved by practice-work in the library. Visits are made by groups of students to the public library, and a general idea is obtained of the location and purpose of different departments and of the rules and regulations and special privileges.
>
> This is followed by elementary instruction in the principles of dictionary cataloguing and of the decimal classification. Practical problems in the use of the catalog are given, and students are required to arrange books on the shelves of the normal school library.
>
> After eighteen lectures, the detailed study of reference-books is commenced, with practical work in the public and school library. After two weeks, students work without supervision.
>
> Methods of presentation of the subject to children in the elementary schools are then discussed.

Selection and use of schoolroom libraries lead to the second part of the course, viz., juvenile literature. The aim is (1) to gain a wider knowledge of children's literature; (2) to study the best methods of presenting good literature to children (story-telling, reading aloud, etc.).

Public Libraries:

McNeil, A. H. What the normal school may do to provide for library work in schools. 1901, 6:80–81.

Milner, A. V. Instruction in use of catalogues and reference books in normal schools. 1899, 4:324–326.

Salisbury, G. E. Library work in a state normal school (Whitewater). 1903, 8:93–94.

Warren, Irene. Instruction in the use of books in a normal school. 1898, 3:151–153.

Library Journal:

Adams, E. L. Instruction in the use of reference books and libraries in normal and preparatory schools. 1898, 23:c 84–86.

Clatworthy, L. M. A library course given to city normal school students. 1906, 31:160–163.

Cooper, T. B. Is there a need for instruction in library methods by the normal schools and universities? 1906, 31:157–160.

Mead, H. R. Training students in the use of books. 1905, 30:c 82–84. (Intended for college students.)

Vitalizing the relation between the library and the school. (1) The school, by M. L. Prentice. 1901, 26:78–80. (An account of the instruction given in the Cleveland Normal School.)

N. E. A. Proceedings:

Brett, W. H., and Ahern, M. E. Library instruction in the normal school. 1903: 971–981.

Noss, T. B. Library work in normal schools. 1904:912–917.

Salisbury, G. E. Discussion. 1904:917–918.

Schreiber, M. E. Training of teachers so that they may co-operate with librarians. 1897:1008–1014.

Warren, Irene. What the normal schools can do for teachers on the library side, 1901:841.

Wilkinson, J. N. Duty of the normal school in relation to district school libraries. 1904:919–923.

Your committee suggests that the instruction offered ought to cover the following subjects:

School libraries: place and value both as general collections and for special instruction, types, how to organize.

The public library and the public school: the field of each and general relations, loans, bulletins, class-room libraries, museums.

How to use a library: books as tools, care of books, book-making, reference-books.

The school library room: location, light, heat and ventilation, equipment.

Selection and ordering of books: authority of librarian, sources of material, aid in selection, sales catalogs, methods of ordering and accounting.

Children's reading: finding lists—for teachers, for children.

Incoming books: invoices, accessioning, marks of ownership.

Cataloguing and classification: systems of each, forms, preparation of cards.

Library routine: loan and charging system, call-numbers, shelf-list.

Binding: material, pamphlets, general care, repairs.

Library associations: national, state, local; library schools.

State laws relating to school libraries.

I. SCHOOL LIBRARIES

Place and value.—Primarily, the function of a school library is to furnish an additional incentive for intelligent and independent work in the schoolroom; to arouse interest in the unexplored field of knowledge outside the text-book; to bring students into personal touch with the best writers on any given subject; and to insure some appreciation of high forms of literary production.

If used in the right way, a well-selected school library will prevent both teacher and pupil from lapsing into those cut-and-dried methods which invariably result in limiting all effort to the mere routine of recitation.

In addition to this function, which may be designated "first aid to the schoolroom," it is desirable (but not necessary) that the school library shall furnish, by means of suitable books, recreation for the pupil in school and at home; and, by means of papers and magazines, shall stimulate a desire to know what is going on in the world, an interest in everyday events both at home and abroad. Like the school, the library is no respecter of persons, but offers all pupils equal opportunities to derive either information or pleasure.

Reference libraries.—School libraries may be divided into two distinct types. The first is a purely reference library, which in addition to the ordinary collection of dictionaries, cyclopedias, etc., does not attempt to provide more than the literature relating directly to the subject-matter of the curriculum. In a strict and technical sense, it "supplements" the more formal instruction of the class-room, and must be regarded as an essential part of the school equipment.

This type reaches its highest development in a closely organized school, whose teachers have been trained in the more modern theories of pedagogy, and who are ever on the alert for ways and means of awakening and holding the pupils' interest in class-room work.

In a school of this type the teachers are all specialists, and usually take entire charge of the children's reading; directing them not only to a particular book or books, but to definite chapters and pages where the indicated references may be found. Collateral reading is recommended and encouraged, but each pupil is held responsible for the assigned reading only.

There is danger that this method of using a library, if rigidly followed, will become mechanical, and will fail to develop either interest or independence of thought in the pupil. But the saving of time, possible because of the training and knowledge of the teacher, is perhaps justifiable where a crowded curriculum necessitates the strictest economy of the pupil's effort both in and out of school.

For a library of this type perhaps three thousand volumes (maximum) of the best and most modern writers will meet all reasonable demands. An occasional weeding out of obsolete literature is necessary to maintain the limits of a purely working collection. There should be a generous duplication of more important books, the extent depending upon the number of pupils using the library.

Crunden, F. M. Books and textbooks: The library as a factor in education. (Second International Library Conference, London, 1897, Transactions, 46–54.)

N. E. A. Proceedings:
Dewey, Melvil. Place of the library in education. 1901:858–864.
Millis, W. A. The library as an educator. 1902:799–805.

Atlantic Monthly:
Scudder, H. E. School libraries. 1893, 72:678–681.

Library Journal:
Sharp, K. L. Libraries in secondary schools. 1895, 20:c 5–11.
Warren, Charles. Place of libraries in a system of education. 1881, 6:90–93.

General libraries.—The second type of school library is found in rural districts, or in villages and towns which have no public library. They serve the school, and generally the public as well, by combining the features of both school and public library.

The function of this type is not only to supplement instruction in the classroom, to offer recreation to the children in and out of school, and to afford pleasure to the family in the home, but also to promote general culture in the community, and to guide and direct the public in the use of books; so that not only the reading habit may be acquired, but the habit of reading good literature. To those who read good books this library will offer a wider range of subjects and more extended choice of authors than is possible in the average home.

This type, more than the first, needs a trained librarian who can give her entire time to supervision and administration.

American Monthly Review of Reviews:
Poe, C. A. Rural school libraries in North Carolina. 1903, 28:338–339.

N. E. A. Proceedings:
Robertson, Agnes. School libraries in rural districts. 1902:818–824.
Southern Education, 1903, 1, No. 18, Rural libraries. (Published by the Southern Education Board, Knoxville, Tenn.)

How to start a school library.—If a school has no funds for buying books and depends entirely upon its own efforts for starting and maintaining a library, the following suggestions may indicate ways and means of organizing this important department of public education:

Exhibit a number of popular magazines. After looking these over, the children will probably decide to contribute a few pennies each month and subscribe for several, especially if they are told that the magazines can be taken home. Encourage the circulation of these periodicals in the family circle, in order to arouse the interest of parents. Collect pictures and photographs to illustrate history, literature, and science. Perry and Cosmos pictures can be obtained for one cent each. Pleasing and really artistic illustrations may be cut from publishers' circulars, railway advertisements, magazines, worn-out books, etc. The need of a good dictionary, gazetteer, and atlas will be apparent to the most conservative and utilitarian trustee. This material is the nucleus of the library. Attractive supplementary readers may be secured from publishers, either as a gift or at a nominal price. Borrow or beg from other libraries. Publish in the local paper a list of books needed for school use, and

ask parents and public-spirited citizens to furnish them. Avoid indiscriminate gifts of books, if possible. Raise money by entertainments given by the children, garden parties, costume parties, barn dances, song festivals, cake and candy sales, Mrs. Jarley's wax-works, and private theatricals. The women's clubs, the village or town literary and debating societies, if any, should be interested. In several states the Women's Federation of Clubs has organized a system of traveling libraries which circulate among the rural schools. Normal schools, following the example of Hampton Institute, might send out traveling libraries to public schools in which its graduates are teaching. The state library commission, if any, will give valuable aid.

Give a library exhibit in the school, make the room attractive with picture bulletins, serve tea, and invite trustees and parents. Keep the subject before the public thru the local paper.

Relations with trustees.—Friendly relations between teachers and trustees are indispensable. In an informal talk before the board the better methods of presenting a subject to a class with the aid of reference-books may be demonstrated A teacher who has patience, tact, and enthusiasm can influence the school board even to the point of levying a local tax for the school library.

The size of this combined school-public-library may vary from one thousand to ten thousand volumes, depending upon local conditions. Parents and the community at large should understand that the library is for their use, and will be accessible during vacations, and on specific days after school hours. Traveling libraries, if any exist in the state, may be called upon to furnish more popular reading. An independent public library should be started as soon as possible, and the greater part of the school library transferred to this. More than one public library has had its origin in a small school library.

First arouse interest in the children, then in the parents, then in school officials, then in the general public.

Public library a distinct organization.—The public library ought to be an entirely distinct organization, under a separate board of trustees. The reasons for this are thus summarized by W. R. Eastman, state inspector of libraries for New York:

> 1. To command public attention. As a part of the school system, the library is sure to take a subordinate place in the public mind, and to lose something of its individual appeal.
>
> 2. To secure the best management. The best body for any public service is one especially selected because of fitness for that particular service. People whose interests are divided between the library and school will fail to give the best service to either.
>
> 3. To secure endowment and gifts. Experience shows that the library is almost never the recipient of gifts and bequests so long as it is regarded as a part of the school system.
>
> 4. For the sake of the work of the school itself. Children will be likely to get much more out of the library to supplement their school work, if it is dissociated in their minds from the atmosphere of restriction and compulsion that obtains in the school. The school represents the compulsory side of education; the library should represent its voluntary, free, and attractive side.

In spite of the added cost of separate management, there are few librarians today who dissent from these principles.

Bayliss, Alfred. Function of school superintendents in procuring libraries for public schools. (N. E. A. Proceedings, 1899:1136–1142.)
Dana, J. C. Advertising a library. (Denver Public Library, Handbook, 1895:12–15; out of print.)
Hutchins, F. A. Securing libraries for rural schools. (In Dana, etc., as below, 1899: 503–505.)
Dana, J. C., ed. Report of committee on the relations of public libraries to public schools. (N. E. A. Proceedings, 1899:452–528.)
Mountjoy, J. C. Schools and libraries. (Public Libraries, 1897, 2:368.)
Southern Education, 1903, 1, No. 18, Rural libraries. (Published by Southern Education Board, Knoxville, Tenn.)
Wire, G. E. How to start a public library, 1902. (A. L. A. Library Tracts, No. 2.) Boston: A. L. A. Publishing Board. 5 cents.

II. THE PUBLIC LIBRARY AND THE PUBLIC SCHOOL

If the village or town has a public library, an independent school library is of secondary importance, and usually an unnecessary feature of school organization.

Functions of public library.—If the public library is modern, and its administration liberal and up to date, the teacher will find her work simplified. It will be simply a matter of co-operation with the librarian. If, however, the opposite conditions exist, a radical change must be brought about; and this will probably demand persistent effort and untiring vigilance on the part of the teacher.

The public library should take charge of all but reference and other books, needed for use in the school building. These bear the same relation to the schoolroom that scientific apparatus bears to the laboratory. These are the books which must be always at hand, ready for immediate use.

The public library should undertake the general supervision of the children's reading. Because of daily contact with her pupils, the teacher is better qualified to know and to understand their individual needs and inclinations, but she is rarely as well acquainted as is the librarian with the entire field of juvenile literature, nor has she time to acquire this knowledge. With the books, the tools of her trade, at hand, because of her special training, the librarian ought to be better prepared to advise and direct the children in their general reading.

For their exclusive use, the library should provide a room with suitable equipment, containing the best juvenile literature. A special room or alcove should be assigned to teachers, where they may find at any time the best and most recent literature relating to their profession, periodicals as well as books. In one large city the public librarian places a set of books, known as the teachers' reference collection, in each branch library. These books are not circulated unless duplicates are available.

Librarian's efforts repaid.—The librarian should understand that whatever she does to help the schools will be repaid with compound interest. In most

communities the public have at heart, more than anything else, the welfare of the public school and all that it implies. When it is once understood that the public library is an indispensable agent in advancing educational progress and is far-reaching in its influence, the librarian may ask, and probably will obtain, anything in reason, even from hitherto reluctant taxpayers.

Library loans.—Books, pictures, and photographs should be lent by the library for class-room use, with necessary duplication. These may be circulated in the various schools, remaining in each as long as wished.

Green, S. S. Use of pictures in libraries. (Free Public Library Commission of Massachusetts, Eighth Report, 1898, 17–28.)

Visits to schools.—The librarian should be supplied with courses of study and outlines of work, and should be invited to visit the school and speak quite informally to the children and teachers about the library.

Library Journal:

Moore, A. C. Library visits to public schools. 1902, 27:181–186.

Library bulletins in schools.—A special library bulletin-board should be in each school building, and the librarian should be asked to furnish news items about the library, its privileges, its rules, lists of new books, lists of books on special subjects, notices of special exhibits, material for the observance of special days—such as Lincoln's birthday, Decoration Day, Flag Day, etc.

Library Journal:

Gaillard, E. W. An experiment in school library work (New York Public Library). 1904, 30:201–204.

Notices of class work.—Lists of subjects to be studied in the various classes should be sent to the library several days before the topics are to be taken up, and the librarian should be asked to prepare for the children's use books, pictures, and any other illustrative material relating to the specified themes. In some libraries, illustrated talks are given to the children to induce them to use certain classes of books.

Teachers should be businesslike in their dealings with the library, and considerate and reasonable under all circumstances and in all their demands. Indeed, as in most personal relations, suggestions and requests are generally more effective than demands.

References.—The following articles give information as to how the public school is using the public library in some cities:

Library Journal:

Bowerman, G. T. School work of the District of Columbia Public Library. 1906, 31:165–166.

Brett, W. H. Use of the public library in the Cleveland schools. 1891, 16:c 30–31.

Burdick, E. E. Educational work of the Jersey City Free Public Library. 1896, 21:359–361.

Chicago Public Library. Public library and public schools. 1883, 8: 281.

Cragin, E. F. Work with the schools at the New York Free Circulating Library. 1898, 23:194–195.

Eastman, L. A. The library and the children (Cleveland Public Library). 1898, 23:142–144.

Elmendorf, H. L. School department of the Buffalo Public Library. 1903, 28: 157–160.

Gilson. M. L. Library and school work in Newark, N. J. 1906, 31:167–168.

Library Journal, continued:
Green, S. S. Public library and the schools in Worcester. 1887, 12:119–121.
Hassler, H. E. Work with children and schools in the Portland (Oregon) Public Library. 1905, 30:214–217.
Hewins, C. M. Relation of the Hartford Public Library to the public schools. 1894, 19:292–295.
Leland, C. G. Work with the schools in the Buffalo Public Library. 1899, 24: 150–151.
Milwaukee Public Library. Library and the schools in Milwaukee. 1890, 15: 21; also 1895, 20:123–124.

Public Libraries:
Crowell, Mary. The school library in the school room (Dayton Public Library) 1899, 4:51–53.
Denver School Library. 1896, 1:54.
Foster, W. E. Co-operation between the schools and libraries in Providence. 1898, 3:244.

N. E. A. Proceedings:
Elmendorf, H. L. The greater school (Buffalo Public Library). 1900: 643–647.
Jones, M. L. School reading thru the public library (Los Angeles Public Library). 1899:1143–1148.

Educational Review:
Peckham, G. W. Public library and public schools (Milwaukee Public Library). 1894, 8:358–362.

The following articles treat of the relations between public libraries and public schools in general:

Green, S. S., ed. Libraries and schools. 1883, o. p. (Chaps. 2, 3, and 6 are reprinted from the *Library Journal*, V, 5, 7, and 8.)

N. E. A. Proceedings:
Bayliss, Alfred. Some co-operative suggestions. 1903:938–943.
Canfield, J. H. Public libraries and the public schools. 1901:836–841.
Crunden, F. M. The school and the library. 1901:108–118.
Dana, J. C., ed. Report of the N. E. A. committee on the relations of libraries and schools. 1899:452–529 (special report).
Doren, E. C. Public library work for schools. 1903:943–948.
Greenwood, J. M. What the school may properly demand of the library. 1902: 811–817.
Meleney, C. E. Place of the library in school instruction. 1904:924–930.
Wright, R. H. How to make the library useful to high-school pupils. 1905: 864–867.

Library Journal:
Adams, C. F., Jr. The public library and the public schools. 1876, 1:437–441. (Also in Green, S. S., libraries and schools.)
Clark, G. I. Methods of school circulation of library books. 1906, 31:155–157.
Doren, E. C. Library and the school work now done. 1904, 26:c 153–157.
Eastman, L. A. The child, the school and the library. 1896, 21:134–139.
Foster, W. E. The school and the library: their mutual relation. 1879, 4:319–325.
Green, S. S. Relation of the public library to the public school. 1880, 5:235–245. (Also in his Libraries and schools.)
———Libraries and schools. 1891, 16:c 22–26.
James, H. P. Libraries in relation to schools. 1893, 18:213–214.
Utley, H. M. Relation of the public library to the public school. 1886, 11:301–305.

Public Libraries:
Brett, W. H. The school and the library. 1905, 10:225–227.
Dewey, Melvil. Relation of school libraries to the public library system. 1905, 10:224–225.
Helpful things done by librarians for teachers and children. 1903, 8:409.
Hutchins, F. A. School work of a librarian. 1905, 10:167–168.

American Monthly Review of Reviews:
Smith, K. L. Provision for children in public libraries. 1900, 22:48–55.

Education:
Carpenter, F. O. The library the center of the school. 1905, 26:110–114.

U. S. Bureau of Education:
Commissioner's Report, 1892–93: 693–697. Correlation of public schools and public libraries.
University Convocation (New York):
Peck, A. L., and Estee, J. E. Correlation of library and school. 1896: 104–116.
Williams, Sherman, and Abrams, A. W. Libraries as a source of inspiration. 1900: 247–254.

Other references on this subject will be found in the appendix.

School museums.—A department closely allied to the library is the museum. If possible, a separate room and a special custodian should be given this, but under the general supervision of the library as an integral part of its work. Costly collections of gems, ivory, pottery, furniture, etc., which may be found, very properly, in a large municipal museum, should not be acquired unless by gift; but all illustrative material relating to school work can be cared for in a library museum.

The collection should include photographs, pictures, casts, models, lantern-slides, charts, stuffed birds, birds' eggs, insects, and other zoölogical objects; as well as geologic, mineralogic, ethnologic, and agricultural specimens, and products of manufacture and industrial art. These should be loaned in the same manner as books, and teachers should furnish lists of all material that the school museum can reasonably be expected to furnish. The children's museum of Brooklyn began in 1900 its pioneer work with children and teachers. It is now a branch of the museum of the Brooklyn institute of Arts and Sciences, and publishes *The Children's Museum News.*

The Webster branch of the New York Public Library has been very successful and helpful in school-museum work, which is steadily growing in importance and in acceptance as a legitimate part of a well-organized and efficient public library.

Public Libraries:
Gaillard, E. W. Beginning of museum work in libraries. 1903, 8:9–11.
Boggan, E. L. Side light on the museum department of a library. 1903, 8:11–12.
Library Journal:
Gaillard, E. W. Outcome of the picture bulletin. 1901, 26:192–193.
——— An extension of the picture bulletin. 1901, 26:874–875.
Merrill, H. B. Work of the Milwaukee public schools at the public museum. Milwaukee Board of Education. 1904.
St. Nicholas:
Paine, A. B. The children's room at the Smithsonian. 1901, 28¹:964–973.

Class-room libraries.—The value of class-room libraries can hardly be overestimated. These collections vary in size from twelve to fifty volumes, and should include books both for reference and lending. The public library cannot take the place of the class-room library. The five or ten minutes which a child may have for reading at the close of a study period or during recess on a stormy day would be wasted in a journey to the general school library in another part of the building, while a trip to the public library would be out of the question.

In the schoolroom the children have an opportunity to talk over the books with one another or with the teacher; and as the greater number of books

should be lent over night only, the excuse so often heard, that a particular book "was not in," cannot be offered for a badly prepared lesson.

Children who carefully refrain from reading, apparently on "general principles," in the schoolroom can be led to regard books in the light of a mild entertainment, and will of their own accord apply for membership in the public library.

As a rule, every child will feel responsible for the condition of books in the schoolroom. This is specially true if each child is in turn appointed acting librarian.

But the class-room library cannot take the place of the public library; where the child comes in contact with a larger number of books, has the benefit of the impression which massed books always make, and unconsciously learns certains facts thru picture bulletins, exhibits, etc. Here he meets other children who are interested in some favorite author or some special topic, and he enlarges his own range of knowledge by becoming acquainted with their particular fads and fancies.

Class-room libraries may be provided by the school board or by the public library. If under public-library control, funds should be furnished by the school board to enable the library to care for this work intelligently and economically by means of a traveling library department.

Public Libraries:
Berkey, M. L. Primary schoolroom libraries. 1901, 6:77–79.
Dodd, H. P. Schoolroom libraries in Newark, N. J. 1903, 8:317–318.
N. E. A. Proceedings:
Kaltenbach, Millicent. Room libraries. 1897:1021–1025.
Leland, C. G. Mission of the class library. 1903:953–956.

III. HOW TO USE A LIBRARY

Instruction in use.—Instruction in the most efficient use of a library should form as important a part of the curriculum as instruction in language or in history. It will exert more influence on the pupil's future career as a useful, because an intelligent, citizen, than any two subjects in the course of study. The library rather than the school makes possible and probable a continuation of intellectual activity and progress after school life is finished.

Instruction in the use of libraries will be of service to the student who enters college, and by encouraging individual investigation and research it will develop a habit of reading good literature in the boy who leaves school to engage in business, or in the girl who will be chiefly occupied with social matters.

Care of books.—Children should be taught how to care for books; how to open and close them; how to place books upon a desk, table, or shelf; the objections to pencil marks, to turning down leaves and other injuries, to leaving books out in the rain, or dropping them in the mud, to the unsanitary practice of moistening the fingers before turning leaves; and above all they should learn the necessity of clean hands.

The Library League formed among child-readers of the Cleveland public Library has resulted in a marked improvement in their treatment of books.

Library Journal:

Eastman, L. A. The Cleveland Children's Library League. 1897, 22:151–153.
——— The library and the children. 1898, 23:142–144.
Dousman, M. E. Methods of inducing care of books. 1900, 25:60–62.

Public Libraries:

Hammond, Miss. Library league. 1899, 4:32–34.
Dana, J. C. Care of books. (Library Primer, 1903:73–75.)

Making a bibliography.—Each student should be required to make at least one brief subject-bibliography. After assigning the subject, which may relate to school work or to some individual fad of the student, the mechanical method of making a bibliography should be discussed: why cards are preferable, information to be recorded on the card—the author of the book or article, the title, where it may be found if an analytical or magazine article, some note or annotation as to its character or value. Arrangement of the cards should be explained. If the subject is at all prolific, at least one hundred cards ought to be accumulated during the school terms.

Book-making.—Almost at the opening of instruction in details some time should be devoted to the general make-up of a book. A brief history of book-making will serve as introduction.

Putnam, G. H. Books and their makers. 1896–97. New York: Putnam. $2.50.

Public Libraries:

Hoag, J. P. Co-operation of Public Library and Public School. 1904. 9:226.

Then the form and use of the title-page may be described, together with the dedication, preface, introduction, table of contents, chapter headings, running-title, and footnotes. The index, with its often complicated abbreviations, should be carefully explained, with illustrations.

That a library may be used to the best advantage, some elementary instruction should be given as to the scope, character, and value of the different classes of reference-books.

Reference-books.—The following brief enumeration of the more important of these will indicate to both teacher and pupil those general sources of information to be found in nearly all large libraries. Instructors should discuss each of them with the class.

The catalog ought to show what is in the library. Having found out whether the books desired are in the library, the next step is to send for them or go to the shelves for examination. If the catalog or shelves do not furnish the desired information, consult the librarian, who will be ready to interpret the catalog or other library aids.

The best-known of all reference books is the English dictionary; but even with daily handling there are always some pupils who do not know just how much information a plain, unabridged dictionary can offer, with its various appendices and supplements.

The merits and characteristics of the *Century*, *Standard*, *International*, and Murray's English dictionaries should be discussed.

The next most useful book is a general cyclopedia. Explain the difference between a dictionary and a cyclopedia; also why the *Britannica* is most useful in certain investigations, why an American cyclopedia is better for general use, and why mere compilations "made to sell" are dear at any price. Then there are the special subject dictionaries and cyclopedias—those covering antiquities, biography, botany, chemistry, education, fine arts, history, law, literature, medicine, mythology, political science, quotations, religion, etc. Biographies of special countries—American, English, German; of special classes—artists, authors, missionaries, musicians, saints, scientists, women.

Valuable also are gazetteers, atlases, (geographic and historic), guide-books (Bädeker and Murray), street directories; such annual publications as *Statesman's Yearbook*, almanacs (Whittaker, *World*, *Tribune*); such special works as commentaries and concordances; special handbooks of information in literature and history, and other topics, as Brewer's *Dictionary of Phrase and Fable*, *The Reader's Handbooks*, Wheeler's *Familiar Allusions*, Haydn's *Dictionary of Dates*, Harper's *Book of Facts;* and such special bibliographies as Adams' *Manual of Historical Literature.* Teachers should be interested in the special bibliographies of education published annually, as the "Bibliography of Education for the Year," published in the June number of the *Educational Review;* the "Bibliography of Child Study," in the *Pedagogical Seminary,* and the *Psychological Index*, published in April of each year.

The place and value of the following should receive careful consideration:

General indexes: *Poole's Index* to periodical literature, with its supplements, the *Annual Literary Index*, *Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature* (Cumulative Index), *Library Index.*

Catalogs: Important printed catalogs, as that of the British Museum, Astor, Boston Athenæum, Peabody Institute.

Public documents: These include national, state, and municipal publications. Only a superficial knowledge can be obtained of government publications in this brief examination, as they are numerous and complicated. The more important are: publications of Congress, the library of Congress and of the departments; of the more important bureaus and commissions, such as Labor, Education, Census, Consular, and of the National Museum, Smithsonian Institution.

Wyer, J. D. United States government documents (N. Y. State Library Bulletin No. 102). Albany, N. Y., 1906. 15 cents.

A list of public documents useful in a public library is given in the *A. L. A. Catalogue* 1904, Part 1:367–372; also in Minnesota State Library Commission, *Publication No. 2. Public documents in the small public library*, and in the Free Library of Philadelphia, *Bulletin No. 6, selected list of United States public documents specially useful in a small library.* 1905.

The *Catalogue of United States Public Documents*, issued monthly by the superintendent of documents, shows the nature and extent of the current federal publications. The *Index and Review* (monthly), published by Young in Washington, D. C., also gives a list of these publications as they are issued; *American Catalogue*, 1890–95, Appendix "Government Publications."

State publications: The state departments which issue reports are usually divided as follows: executive, legislative, judiciary, inspection and regulation, institutions.

American Catalogue, 1890–95, Appendix, state publications. Bowker, R. R. State publications, 1899, Parts 1–2.

Municipal reports: Civic departments follow quite closely the administrative division of the state; as, education, health, finance, etc. The organization of cities may be found in any recent book on city government.

Brief mention should be made of the publications of important national and local societies and associations—as the American Historical Association.

American catalogue, 1890–95, Appendix, Publications of societies.

General national and trade bibliographies: *American Catalogue of Books, United States Catalogue, Cumulative Book Index. Publisher's Weekly, Publishers' Trade List Annual, Bookseller* (English).

Kroeger, A. B. Guide to the study of reference books, 1902. (A. L. A. annotated lists.) Supplement to the same: Recent reference books. Library Journal, 1903, 28:823–828; 1905, 30:5–10; 1906, 31:3–7.

Koopman, H. L. Reference books and catalogues. (In his Mastery of Books, 1896:48–62.)

Many of the preceding reference-books will not be found in a small public or school library. But instruction need not be confined to books within reach. Practical work, however, must be limited to these. Ordinarily the following will be available: catalog of the library, dictionaries, cyclopedias, classical dictionary, general biographical dictionary, gazetteer, almanac, atlases, handbooks of information (such as Brewer's), the A. L. A. catalog, and periodicals, the use of which for purposes other than recreation should be explained.

Library instruction in schools.—Normal students ought to know that instruction, not too technical, in the use of the library may be given as early as the fourth or fifth grade. The younger children can be taught how to use the catalog, dictionaries, and cyclopedias, as well as the location of different classes of books in the library. With the children in lower grades informal talks are better than formal lectures.

Public Libraries:

McCrory, H. L. Library work for children. 1901, 6:93–95. (Intended for sixth-grade children.)

High-school instruction.—Library instruction in the high school has been systematized in a highly satisfactory manner in the Central High School of Detroit.[1]

Teachers of English co-operating, library reference work is made part of the English courses. One lesson a term is devoted to the study of library aids. Eight library courses are correlated with the eight English courses included in the four years of high-school work.

Course 1 includes the use of indexes, abbreviations, heavy type indicating important pages, index to a work in many volumes, atlas index, use of a concordance, a brief explanation of *Poole's Index.*

Course 2 covers the use of a card catalog and brief talks on classification and general reference-books, such as dictionaries, gazetteers, and cyclopedias.

[1] Compiled from the *N. E. A. Proceedings*, 1905, with permission of Florence M. Hopkins.

Course 3 includes periodical indexes, *Poole's Index* more in detail, *Reader's Guide*, *Library Index*, and the value to young people of the index to *St. Nicholas*. Preface, publisher, and date of publication are explained. Such reference books as Harper's *Book of Facts* and the Brewer series are discussed and compared.

Course 4 considers elementary bibliography, such as the bibliographic references found in modern text-books and at the end of articles in modern cyclopedias. The *A. L. A. Index to General Literature* is explained with particular reference to the method of indexing reports of official institutions, and Baker's *Guide to Best Fiction*, Granger's *Index to Poetry*, and special bibliographies like the Warner's *Library*, Larned's *History for Ready Reference*, and Strong's *Yearbook of Social Progress*.

Course 5 covers annuals, almanacs, *Statesman's Yearbook*, biographic annuals, *Who's Who*, annual literary index (supplement to *Poole's Index* and *A. L. A. Index to General Literature*), reports of city officers, city and state manuals (*Blue Books*).

Course 6 takes up dictionaries, cyclopedias, special indexes, and cyclopedias or dictionaries of special subjects. The *Geneological Index*, the *A. L. A. Catalogue* of 8,000 volumes, and the *A. L. A. Guide to the Study and Use of Reference Books*, are considered special indexes. Use of *Publishers' Weekly*, *Trade List Annual*, *U. S. Catalogue of Books in Print*, and the *Cumulative Book Index*.

Course 7 includes United States reference publications, *Congressional Record*, *Congressional Directory*, *Document Catalogue*, *Statistical Abstract*, *Census Abstract*, *Statistical Atlas*, *Labor Bulletins*, *Consular Reports*, and the more important publications of the departments of state.

Course 8 is a review of the preceding courses, with practice work.

During instruction the books under discussion are used in a room outside of the library. To save time, printed lists of the books are distributed. The course is given in eight hours of the four years of high-school work, two hours for each year. Sets of questions, requiring the use of the books explained, are worked out in the library by each student after each talk. The papers are corrected by the English teachers, with usual credits.

By request, the publishers of *Webster's Dictionary* have prepared for this English and library instruction a pamphlet for class drill in the proper use of a dictionary and its appendix. Sample pages are given, illustrating the important facts and the different kinds of information which may be found in *Webster's International Dictionary*. These pamphlets are distributed gratuitously.

The following illustrate questions given to students:

Nathaniel Hawthorne and His Wife, by Julian Hawthorne, is in two volumes. Consult the index under "Brook Farm," and name the volume and page which give the fullest account.

Who is the author of the following (give play, act, scene)? "Neither a borrower nor a lender be."

Look up the seven wonders of the world in two different books. Name the books.

Name three important reference points covered by the *Century Dictionary* of names.

What is the "*Reader's Guide*" to a selected list of periodials, and what points does it cover?

Name three good books in which you could find an allusion to the "Field of the cloth of Gold."

Find a novel on the subject of chivalry. Give author and title.

Name two sources by means of which you could be guided to material for an essay on Easter.

Name five reference points indexed in the *World Almanac.*

Who is secretary of the Department of Commerce and Labor? Where was he born?

What classified catalog of books has been carefully prepared by the libraries of America recommending good books on leading subjects?

What cyclopedia would you consult for very full articles? What cyclopedia would you consult for very brief articles? What cyclopedia would you consult for medium articles?

What is the *Document Catalogue?* How frequently is it published? Examine the volume for 1899–1901 and give a reference on the subject of insurance.

What is the *Statistical Abstract?* By means of it find the number of pounds of coffee imported in 1890. What is the *Congressional Record?*

Name the books or books in which you think the answers for the following questions will be found:

Kind of government, present officers, etc., of Denmark.
Translation of the phrase "Alla Zappa."
Brief biography of prominent men.
Leading athletic events of the past year.
Present secretary of the navy.
Bibliography of any subject in which you are interested.
Abbreviations.
Index to scattered selections of poetry.
Condensed report of the last census by color.
Speeches in Congress.

For further details of this work see:

N. E. A. Proceedings:

Hopkins, F. M. Methods of instruction in the use of high school libraries. 1905: 858–864.

For library instruction in schools in general see:

Library Journal:

Ames, A. S., and Rathbone, J. A. Instruction in the use of reference books and libraries in high schools. 1898, 23:86–91.
Doren, E. C. Library and the school work now done. 1904, 29:c 153–157. (Statistical account of reference work and library instruction in schools.)
Fletcher, M. J. Instruction to high school students in use of libraries. 1904, 29: 481.
Mead, H. R. Training of students in the use of books. 1905, 30:c 82–84.
Quigley, M. G. Systematic instruction in the use of the library at Grand Rapids. 1906, 31: 166–167.
Sargent, A. L. Reference work among school children. 1895, 20:121–122.
Stanley, H. H. Reference work with children. 1901, 26:c 74–78.
Wait, M. F. Library work in a preparatory school. 1904, 29:182.

Public Libraries:

Ellis, Elizabeth. Instruction of school children in the use of library catalogs and reference books. 1899, 4:311–314.
Finney, B. A. High school instruction in use of reference books. 1899, 4:315–317.
Hanna, B. S. Reference work with children. 1904, 7:149–151.
Hopkins, F. M. Library work in high schools (Central High School of Detroit). 1905, 10:170.
Hopkins, J, A. A lesson on the card catalog. 1903, 8:156–158.
Moore, E. L. Library work with children—prize contest. 1901, 6:418–419.

IV. THE SCHOOL LIBRARY ROOM

Location.—The library of a school should be accessible, and yet remote enough to escape the noise and confusion which prevail near the main stairway or elevator, and should be out of the way of the casual visitor, who often regards it as a convenient and attractive waiting-room.

If no provision has been made in the school building for a library, any large room on the second or third floor will serve this purpose.

For all details of library construction see *New International Encyclopedia* or *Encyclopedia Americana*, article "Libraries."

For a new school building the architect should consult a library expert in regard to location and every detail of interior finish and arrangement of the library room.

Light.—If there are windows on one side of the room only, they should extend from within three feet of the floor to the ceiling. Light is more important than heat, and there is usually danger of too little rather than too much. If there are windows on two sides of the room, they may come down only to the top of the bookcases, in order to give wall room for shelving. Care should be taken, however, to avoid, if possible, what is sometimes called the "dungeon" effect of windows. Artificial light must be provided for short winter afternoons or possible evening use; and whether oil, gas, or electricity is used, the light-point should be properly shaded to prevent unpleasant glare or reflection.

The "Rochester" oil lamp, and other similar burners, give a soft and pleasant light for reading. The best gas light is furnished by acetylene or by the Welsbach burner. Each table should have one or two adjustable lights protected by a deep, cone-shaped, enameled tin or glass shade, green outside, light polished lining inside, so arranged as to shield the eyes and throw the light on the table. Portable lights, with a metal half-shade which throws the light on the backs of the books and protects the eyes, are best for the shelves. Very little general artificial lighting of the room as a whole is desirable.

Some architects advocate brilliant illumination of the room by means of ceiling clusters. They argue that this secures a light more nearly resembling that of the sun, and therefore is the natural method; but this is practically and theoretically wrong.

Nothing relating to the education of the child is more important, and nothing so universally neglected, as the right light for reading or study. Pupils should never face a strong light, or read in insufficient light, whether natural or artificial.

Heat and ventilation.—Heat should be so regulated as to secure a temperature of 68°. The room should be ventilated several times daily by lowering the windows from the top, and should be well aired both before and after use. Systems of indirect ventilation, by forcing fresh air thru registers, tho theoretically perfect, are rarely quite as satisfactory as the air carefully taken directly thru an open window.

Much of the restlessness and general perversity of children both in schoolroom and library are due to the demoralizing effects of foul or over-dry air.

Library Journal:

Dewey, Melvil. Heating libraries. 1881, 6:93–96.
Lincoln, D. F. Ventilation of libraries. 1879, 4:254–257.
Patton, N. S. Heating, ventilation and lighting of libraries. (In U. S. Bureau of Education Papers, prepared for the World's Library Congress held at the Columbian Exposition, 1896. 718–724.)

Shelving.—Shelves should extend along the sides of the room as far as the wall space permits. The top shelf should be within reach of a child of fourteen of average height—say 64 inches from the floor. The top of the upright, exclusive of molding, should be 74 inches from the floor, including a base of 4 inches which will protect the books from a too vigorous broom or mop. The shelves should be adjustable, 1 inch thick, 8 inches deep, not more than 3 feet long (30 inches would more surely prevent bending under the weight of books), and placed between uprights at intervals of 9½ or 10 inches. Two large shelves next the floor, 12 inches deep, 14 inches apart, will accommodate large books. A ledge 1 inch thick and 3 or 4 inches wide, separating the upper and the lower shelves, adds to the general appearance of the room and is a convenient place for books ready to be returned to the shelves, but interferes somewhat with the use of the lower shelves. If the lower shelves are not all needed for larger books, they can be fitted with drawers or doors, and utilized for storing pictures, photographs, and library supplies. Backing for shelves is desirable, but not necessary. Moldings should be plain. Fancy beading or ornamentation of any kind collects dust. If finish is desirable for ends of cases where the continuity is interrupted by door or window, inlaid panels look well and prevent warping, especially if the material is oak; but are not necessary, and increase expense.

When the wall shelves are filled, additional shelving may be obtained by forming alcoves with double-faced floor cases placed at right angles to the wall. A thin strip of wood two inches high placed between double shelves will prevent books from slipping back, and is cheaper than full backing.

Quartered oak is the best material for wood-work, but pine or whitewood make fairly satisfactory substitutes. Shelves can be made of pine with a one-inch veneer of oak on the front edges.

If there are no funds for this style of shelving, packing boxes can be fitted with shelves. Discarded wardrobes serve the same purpose.

Soule, C. C. Library rooms and buildings, 1902. (A. L. A. Library Tract, No. 4.)
Dana, J. C. Rooms, building, fixtures, furniture, 1903. (In his Library Primer, 25–29.)

Tables and chairs.—Tables and chairs should be of different heights to accommodate children of different ages. Tables 5 feet long by 3 feet wide will accommodate six persons, two at each side and one at each end. They should be plain and without drawers, slides, or foot rails. Bent-wood chairs, with rubber tips if the floor is bare, are light, durable, and very satisfactory.

If windows are on one side only and come down near the floor (see suggestion above), a bench can be built underneath each. These will prove popular seats on dark days. The objections are that they may tempt to lounging. They should not occupy space available for shelving.

Librarian's desk.—The librarian's desk should be near the entrance, if this position permits general supervision of the room. It should have a flat top, for nothing should obstruct the lines of vision. A small table, or a revolving case, within easy reach is very convenient.

Floor-covering, and cleaning.—Linoleum or corticine is the best floor-covering. These serve to deaden noise and can be washed like a wood floor.

The floor should be cleaned thoroly with soap and water each week; oftener if necessary. The room should be swept and the furniture dusted every morning. Two or three times yearly books should be removed from the shelves and dusted, and the shelves cleaned with a damp cloth. Never use feather dusters.

If possible, there should be a lavatory near the library. Children should be taught that they must have clean hands before touching books or magazines.

A catalog case of six trays will hold nearly 6,000 cards, with guide cards. The base for this case should be open and fitted with three or four shelves, for atlases, portfolios, and all volumes too large for the regular shelves. The catalog case should be of the best make and bought from a reliable maker. It cannot be imitated by the village carpenter. If it is too expensive for a small library, catalog cards can be kept in tin or wood or even pasteboard boxes, covered, each holding about 800 cards with guides.

Racks.—A newspaper rack for daily and weekly papers is recommended, but not necessary. A special rack with shelves at different angles is convenient for periodicals. It is economical in floor and wall space. Periodicals may be stored on bookshelves, divided by partitions into pigeonholes, 10½ inches wide 6 inches high, and labeled with name of publication. An alphabetical arrangement is the best. A shelf deeper than the ordinary will be necessary, or magazines will project and look disorderly.

Trucks.—A book-truck is costly, but very useful for holding books during the various processes of preparation for the shelf and for moving books from one part of the library or building to another.

Book supports.—There should be a good supply of book-supports, for use on shelves which are not quite full; not only for the better appearance of the shelves, but because books wear much longer when standing upright. The old Library Bureau support is the best and cheapest.

Shelf labels.—Plain cardboard, buff or light gray, neatly labeled, can be fastened on the shelf with thumb-tacks; but as these are easily soiled and displaced, tin shelf label-holders five inches long should be used.

Bulletin-boards.—If sufficient wall space is not available for bulletins, the ends of bookcases may be used. Remnants of cork carpet are very satisfactory. Cut to the desired size and frame with oak a half-inch wide. Old picture-frames, to be found in many a garret, can be substituted.

Ink.—Black, blue, and red inks are used in the library. Avoid pale, thin, watery fluids, light green, or blue warranted to dry black. Ink should be of standard make. Many library records are written for all time, and ink must be permanent. The following makes have been tried and found satisfactory: Carter's Black Letter Ink, City of Boston School Ink, Carter's Blue Writing Ink, Carter's Crimson Fluid, Carter's Fast Red Copying Fluid, Stafford's Blue Writing Ink, Massachusetts Record Ink (made by Carter).

Pens.—Pens are a question of individual preference. For printing library cards, King's Nonpareil No. 5 and Library Bureau No. 3 are much used.

Paste.—Binder's or flour paste is best for library use. As it spoils in a short time, it is suitable for large libraries only, where large quantities are used. A small library should use some kind of photographer's paste.

Blotters.—For the desk, use blotters of dark gray or green. They are more serviceable than the white, pink, or buff blotter.

Paper-cutter.—A plain, flat paper-cutter of celluloid or bone, with a slightly sharp edge, is best. As a rule, any fancy "souvenir" variety is useless.

Chairs, tables, desks, cases, shelves, and other equipment should match, if possible, in material and color. Quartered oak is the most satisfactory in general effect, but is expensive.

Economy.—Economy may be practiced, without detriment, in part of the library equipment. Cheap wood can be used in place of oak. Trucks, racks, and special cases for photographs or folio volumes can be dispensed with as luxuries.

The local carpenter, if furnished with the right dimensions, can make cases to hold charging cards and other records; but the catalog case must be of standard make.

Library Supplies.—For all library supplies with prices, see *Library Bureau Catalogue*, Boston; also their "*Suggestive List of Supplies for a Library of 5,000 Volumes.*" Clark & Baker, of New York, and the Globe-Wernicke Co., of Chicago, also make a specialty of catalog cases and cards.

Stearns, L. E. Furniture and fittings. (In her Essentials in library administration, 1905:80–91.)

Decoration.—The library should be made as attractive as possible without carrying the decorative idea to an extreme. Order and neatness are essential, but highly colored pictures and tawdry ornamentations of any kind are inappropriate and undesirable.

The ceiling and walls should be tinted with a warm shade of terra cotta or olive green, the lighter tints being desirable.

A fern or palm on top of the catalog case gives a touch of color to the room. A few carefully selected pictures for the wall above the bookshelves, and one or two casts or bronzes, will suffice for permanent decoration. Pictures need not have an educational tendency; that is, the educational features should not be visible. The children "get enough of that in school."

Braun's or other best photographic reproductions, while expensive, are beautiful and always appropriate. A few of the many that are peculiarly suitable for a library are: Cuyp's "Head of a Dutch Boy," Ruydael's "The Mill," J. T. Millet's "Feeding Her Birds" or "The Gleaner," Corot's "Sunset," any of Troyon or Breton, one of Rosa Bonheur's pictures, Sir George and the dragon, a mediæval knight in armor, the Sistine Madonna. A beautiful bronze, and a great favorite with children, is the "Flying Mercury." A cast of Della Robbia's "Singing Boys" is always acceptable. Pictures of favorite authors may be hung on ends of book-stacks or between windows.

Picture bulletins.—Picture exhibits by means of bulletins are made to serve some special purpose, to illustrate a topic under discussion in the schoolroom or an event of general outside interest. Pictures can be fastened on bulletin boards, together with a list of books relating to the topics illustrated, or they can be mounted separately on gray cardboard, and hung by clips on wire or cord stretched along the shelves. The picture bulletin is of temporary interest only and should not be too elaborate, or it will tend to make the library look like a museum.

A private school in New York City recently gave an exhibition of photographs taken during the summer vacation, developed and printed by the children; and altho of amateur workmanship, they formed an interesting and really artistic collection.

Milner, A. V. Pictures for reference use. (In her Formation and care of school libraries, 1903:9–10.)

Stearns, L. E. Illustrated bulletins. (In her Essentials in library administration, 1905: 22-24.)

Library Journal:

Gaillard, E. W. An extension of the picture bulletin. 1901, 26:874–875.

Moore, A. C. Picture work in children's libraries. 1900, 25:126–129.

———Outcome of the picture bulletin. 1901, 26: 192-193.

———Place of pictures in library work for children. 1900, 25:159–162.

Root, M. E., and Maltby, A. B. Picture bulletins in the children's library. 1902, 27:191–194.

Public Libraries: Dousman, M. E. Pictures and how to use them. 1899, 4:399–400.

Freeman, M. W. Use of pictures in library work. 1900, 5:446–449.

Morton, Josephine. Exhibits and special days. 1903, 8:464–465.

Librarian.—A collection of five hundred or more volumes needs a custodian. The school law of several states specifies that the secretary of the school board or a teacher shall act as librarian, make reports to the state superintendent, and be responsible for the condition of the books. In such cases the office is generally nominal. The teacher, or the secretary, who is probably a business or professional man, cannot be expected to give the necessary time for the proper care of even a small library.

If a trained librarian is too great a luxury, a graduate of the school will probably serve for reasonable pay. She should have good judgment and common-sense, be accurate, and must have some instruction and experience in library methods. Under these conditions, the teachers will be obliged to attend to the reference side of the library work.

As the library increases in size, in order to increase also in efficiency a trained librarian becomes necessary. She should give her entire time to the library, in and out of school hours, in order that she may apply the technical knowledge gained thru her special training to the work of making the library useful in the highest degree.

She must explain the card catalog to both teachers and pupils, and give some instruction in the use of books. She will decide for both teachers and pupils how and what to read, as well as the kind and quality of books needed in the class-room.

The library atmosphere should be different from that of the schoolroom. The librarian can meet the children in a more familiar, informal manner than the teacher.

N. E. A. Proceedings:

Dana, J. C. The librarian and her equipment; the librarian and the teachers; the librarian and the children. 1899:517–525.

Rules.—Rules relating to the privileges of the library and circulation of books should be displayed in some conspicuous place in the library, and near the main entrance. In formulating rules the librarian should omit everything superfluous. She should say what she means and mean what she says. Rules that are not enforced are worse than no rules.

School boards and superintendents of public instruction are sometimes authorized by the school law to make rules and regulations governing the use of school libraries. California and Wisconsin publish very specific directions of this nature.

Discipline.—The question of discipline is governed entirely by local conditions, and no hard and fast rules can be laid down. Schoolroom discipline is undesirable in a library, but in some localities it must be enforced. Children should feel that the use of a library is a privilege, and not that they are conferring a favor on the librarian by their mere presence—a spirit that is sometimes manifested in the children's department of a public library.

Report.—The librarian should make a formal report each year to the board of education, giving statistics of the circulation and other uses of the library, an account of all money passing thru her hands, result of the annual inventory, record of gifts, list of new books received, account of technical and routine work, and other items of interest regarding any special work with the children and teachers. The local paper will gladly print such a report.

V. SELECTING AND ORDERING BOOKS

Librarian final authority.—The librarian, constantly advising with teachers and with school authorities, should be the final authority in selecting books for the school library. By keeping in touch with both teachers and pupils, she is in a position to know what books will be most useful in the library; and she alone knows the funds available, and how these may be distributed most wisely and equi-

tably. From time to time teachers should send to the librarian lists of books needed for their work, indicating those which are wanted for immediate use, that these may receive prompt attention. But teachers are not always infallible in their judgment regarding books. They may be highly efficient as teachers, and yet know little about juvenile or even adult literature; and it is quite probable also that they know comparatively little of the cost of books, and may ask for expensive editions when something less costly would serve their purpose quite as well. If the library is in a rural district, serving the neighborhood as well as the school, the needs of the school must be met first, as the library is first and last an educational institution, and the children have the first claim.

Judging from the results of an investigation made by W. H. Cheever in Wisconsin, published in *Public Libraries*, 1897, 2:349, teachers are not always given opportunity to say what kind of literature they wish placed in the school library. The county superintendents to whom inquiries were directed seemed to think that this was because teachers are not considered competent to decide what books should be bought for school use. In one district books were selected and bought during the summer vacation when the teachers were away!

The town clerk or some other public official may be authorized by law to make contracts and pay bills, but final word in selecting books ought to lie with the librarian. A county superintendent describes in a recent number of *Public Libraries* the kind of school library which may result if the choice of books is delegated to the wrong, incompetent official. The town clerk of a certain district thought it desirable to make the school library popular. He therefore bought books which the people would read; with the result that the girls quarreled over Bertha M. Clay's novels, and the boys fought over biographies of Frank and Jesse James.

Pupils should be encouraged to express opinions in regard to books read, and, as far as may be reasonable and possible, their likes and dislikes should be respected by the librarian.

If due allowance is made for personal or professional bias, the advice of specialists is sometimes desirable, especially as to scientific books.

If the selection must be made from lists prepared by the state superintendent the librarian should still make the final choice, and should be held responsible for this. Such lists are usually revised from time to time and if they do not at first include just what the librarian thinks necessary for her library, by presenting her case to the proper authorities she may obtain the literature from some future official list.

Principles of selection, and aids.—Certain fundamental principles should be followed in selecting for purchase. It is useless to fill shelves with classics never read, merely because they come under the head of good literature.

Publications containing notices of new books are usually issued weekly and monthly. As a rule, reviews are written for the general reader rather than for the student, more space being given to fiction and other literature which appeals to the public.

The librarian of the school library is more limited in her field than is the public librarian, and a conscientious examination of these reviews will seem at times to be without adequate results.

For general text-books or works on education it is advisable to rely upon notices published in such educational periodicals as the *Pedagogical Seminary*, *Educational Review*, *Journal of Pedagogy*, etc. Unfortunately these periodicals do not give many reviews, and frequently a book is on the market several months before they refer to it.

For scientific books, read reviews in *Science*, *Nature*, *School Science*, etc.

Books on kindergarten, manual training, and other special topics are reviewed in *Kindergarten*, *Manual Training*, and other special periodicals.

The *Dial* (semi-monthly, Chicago, $2), *Nation* (weekly, New York, $3), *Outlook* (weekly, New York, $3), are most reliable of the critical reviews. The *Bookman* (monthly, New York, $2) is more popular and entertaining in style, giving chatty items about authors as well as books, and does not treat of literary topics exclusively. The *New York Times Saturday Review* has a wide circulation because it is inexpensive and up to date, reviewing books almost as soon as they leave the press.

For a selected list of books consult the A. L. A. *Book-List*, published monthly except during the summer. Publisher, price, and imprint are given, with annotations made by librarians; also the bulletins of A. L. A. Committee on Book-Buying, and suggestions and rules for the Library of Congress cards. The later numbers give the classification of each book according to the decimal and expansive system, with suggested subject headings. It is intended to aid those who are buying small libraries.

For a complete list of current publications consult *Publishers' Weekly* (New York, $3) and *Cumulative Book Index* (monthly, Minneapolis, $5). Publisher, price, and imprint are given, with annotations for more important works. The *Publishers' Weekly* issues a special spring announcement number in March, a summer number in May, an educational number in July, a fall announcement in September, a Christmas number in December. The *Cumulative Book Review Digest* (monthly, Minneapolis, $5) gives descriptive notes and a digest of reviews which have appeared in forty of the leading periodicals in English. All large publishing-houses issue annotated lists monthly or at longer intervals. A number of these make a specialty of schoolbooks and children's literature.

American Catalogue (not necessary in a small library), 1875–1900, five volumes, gives lists of books printed in the United States during these years, and includes some importations; the information is very full, gives publisher and price of book, with date of publication. Volumes 2, 3, and 4 give lists of United States government publications, classified by departments; also publications of literary and scientific societies; also a list of state publications. These lists were omitted in the last volume, as the same information appears in another publication. One of the most useful features of this catalog is the subject-index which follows the author-index and forms Part 2 of each volume. One is enabled to find out from this catalog what books on any subject have been published in the United States during the period covered. This is too costly, however, for most small libraries. The earlier volumes are out of print, and 1890–95 and 1895–1900 are $15 each.

The *Bookseller* (monthly) and the *English Catalogue* (annual), each 5*s.*, represent current English publications, but would not be used to any great extent in a small library.

For standard books still in print the most useful guide is the *A. L. A. Catalogue of 8,000 Volumes* (1904, Washington, Superintendent of Documents, 50 cents). This list was compiled by experts, and is an invaluable guide to libraries and teachers. It is fully classified and indexed, gives publisher and price, and comprehensive annotations.

Winser, Beatrice. Some of the recent and current aids to book selection. 1905, Public Library Newark, N. J.

For prices and information concerning reference-books consult A. B. Kroeger, *Guide to the Study and Use of Reference Books* with supplements published in the *Library Journal*. Lists of books suitable for school libraries are mentioned under the topic of "Books for Children and Teachers."

Ordering books.—After selections have been made, and contracts, if any, have been closed, the librarian should be authorized to order books according to the contracts and regulations made by the state or by the local school authorities. If, however, the power to buy rests with the town clerk or some school official, the librarian should have the privilege, approved by the school board, of ordering books needed for immediate use. A book wanted for classroom work at the beginning of the term may be quite useless a month or six weeks later.

Records of orders.—A record of all orders sent out should be kept in the library on orderslips, to be had of the Library Bureau, or made by the local printer. Any blank cards of standard size will serve. Author's name, title, edition (if known), publisher, date, and list-price of the book are recorded on the order-slip, with name of agent and date when ordered. Before the order is sent, each entry should be compared with the library catalog and with the list of outstanding orders, so that unnecessary duplicates will not be bought. When the books are received, corresponding slips should be dated and cost-price recorded. Slips for filled orders are then filed in a separate alphabet (see details under topic "Checking Invoices"). The order sent to the agent should contain the same information given on the order slips and may be copied from these slips on a sheet of paper, and stamped with name of library and date. Each order should expressly state, that, if not found within (say) thirty days, it will be considered canceled. A small rubber stamp may be used to print this condition.

Not all of these details are necessary in a small library, but records should be accurate and complete.

Purchasing agents.—It is advisable to buy from one agent. By this method accounts are simplified, mistakes are more easily rectified, more interest is shown, and better discount is granted by the dealer. In choosing an agent, it will prevent criticism if lists of the books to be bought are sent to several agents, including the local dealer, with a request for lowest terms, keeping in mind that the man who is the cheapest is not always most reliable. It is better to pay a local or other agent a little more, and secure convenience and good service. When possible, an agreement or contract for the year should be made with the agent.

Large publishing houses act as jobbers, selling publications of other firms as well as their own. Because of greater facilities, they can give, perhaps, better discounts than the home dealer, and can more readily obtain books out of print. However, the question of express charges and possible delay, as well as of friendly relations, must be considered.

In case of large orders, a reduction of 30 or 33⅓ per cent. may be expected, unless books are "net," when 5 or 10 per cent. or no discount is allowed. Magazines also should be bought thru one agent.

Public Libraries:

Underhill, C. M. Book ordering and buying. 1903, 8:142–144.

Generally, avoid all dealings with itinerant book agents, buying neither subscription books, nor on the installment plan. These methods are more expensive than buying thru regular channels, and are undesirable in every way. Most subscription books can be bought in open market for about half price six months after the last part or volume is issued.

Foreign books intended for educational institutions may be imported free of duty.

Editions.—Expensive editions, *editions de luxe*, have no place in a school library, unless as gifts. If the print is good—that is, not fine or blurred—a cheap edition is desirable, as it can be thrown away when soiled or worn out and replaced by a new copy. Standard literature is issued in an attractive form, at reasonable prices, by many publishers under some such title as "School and Home Classics," "Classics for Children," "English Classics," "Riverside Literature Series," "Temple Classics." These should be ordered in cloth bindings, never in paper.

A really poor edition should not be placed on the shelf or accepted even as a gift. If dealing with a reliable firm, the agent may be trusted to supply a good working edition of any book.

Auction and second-hand catalogs.—Auction catalogs contain little to interest school librarians. Bargains in standard literature or books out of print are sometimes found at auction sales; but unless books are examined personally or thru an agent, poor editions and cheap bindings are frequently obtained in this way. Catalogs of second-hand dealers offer the same class of material as auction catalogs, but are perhaps a little more satisfactory, as a fixed price is quoted and books may be returned if found undesirable.

Regular book agents will advertise for any book out of print, or the librarian may do so thru the *Publishers' Weekly*.

Regular trade-lists, catalogs, and special advertisements of leading publishing houses are the most important and reliable channels for a knowledge of the current literature issued.

Dana, J. C. Buying books. (In his Library primer, 1903:63–68.)
Denver Public Library, Handbook. 1895:29–33.
Milner, A. V. Formation and care of school libraries. 1902:2–4.

Library Journal:

How we choose and buy new books. 1889, 14:336, 372.
Nelson, C. A. Choosing and buying books. 1887, 12:155–156.

VI. CHILDREN'S READING

So much has been said and written on children's reading that it seems superfluous to add anything to the abundant material already accessible to those interested in this topic, so important to the school and public library. It will be sufficient, perhaps, to call attention to articles written and lists compiled by library and school experts.

It has been stated by authorities in literature and education that no list of children's books having a literary and educational value in the highest sense has yet been prepared. It is to be hoped that at some time in the near future these critics will issue an ideal list, and thus for the first time meet all reasonable requirements.

Lists.—Lists of juvenile literature are of three classes: those intended for use in the children's department of a public library, such as special lists of the best books for boys and girls; or lists of fairy-tales, legends, travel, biography, etc.; or lists of books, articles, poems, etc., relating to special days, as Christmas, Lincoln's birthday, or Flag Day.

For use of both teachers and pupils lists of books suitable for a school library have been compiled, or approved, and recommended by librarians, teachers, and school superintendents.

Lists combining the features of both classes have also been compiled for use of those in charge of rural libraries which supply reading for school use and for recreation.

All lists available should be consulted in selecting or recommending books for a school library, and no one list should be followed too closely. All conditions of school work and library work differ in different communities. Besides, in a certain sense any list is out of date as soon as issued, because of the flood of new books.

OFFICIAL LISTS

Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction. List of books for township libraries compiled under the direction of the state superintendent. 1901, 1902, 1903, 1904, 4 vols.
——— List of books for high school libraries. 1902. (Free to schools in Wisconsin; outside of the state a charge of 25 cents is made.)

These lists are among the most useful issued by state departments of public instruction. The first is intended for use in selecting books for school district libraries, and is divided into primary and intermediate grades. Both lists are classified by subjects, as biography, science, etc., and include reference-books and periodicals. Full information is given in regard to author, title, date, binding, pagination, illustrations, publisher, and list-price and discount-price, with author, title, and subject indexes. The descriptive notes accompanying each book cited are comprehensive and helpful, and are written from the teacher's standpoint.

In 1904 the Connecticut State Board of Education issued a list of books for schoo libraries, classified by subjects; and in the same year the Connecticut Public Library

Committee issued a list of books in the traveling school libraries loaned by the Connecticut Society of Colonial Dames of America.

Departments of public instruction sometimes print book-lists as part of their annual reports or of some other official publication. In his annual report for 1902 the state superintendent of New York published a book list under the title *School Libraries and Reading*.

In 1905 the Illinois and Missouri Departments of Public Instruction issued courses of study for rural, graded, and high schools; followed by a graded list of books for school libraries, including reference-books. Illinois and Nebraska publish lists of books recommended for teachers' reading-circles, with reviews of some more recent publications.

The Board of Education for New York City published in 1904 a *Catalogue of Books for Public School Libraries*, a list graded from the kindergarten to the eighth grade. This gives publisher, price, illustrations (if any), descriptive note, and author index, followed by a classified list of books for reference libraries and for teachers' libraries.

In the annual report of the Columbus (Ohio) Public School library, for 1904–5, the librarian publishes a list of books in that library for supplementary reading, arranged by grades and subjects.

A list of books for supplementary reading for the Milwaukee public schools was issued in 1904, graded and classified by subjects, and followed by a list of general reference-books.

The committee appointed by the National Educational Association on Lists of Books for Reading and Reference in the Lower Grades of the Public Schools published in the *Journal of Proceedings* for 1898, pp. 1016–22, graded lists of books suitable for a school library.

The committee appointed by the National Education Association on Relations of Public Libraries to Public Schools, in a special report for 1899, published under the title *The Relation of the School to Libraries*, a "List of Books for the Grades," prepared by Charles A. McMurry, and a "List of One Hundred Books for High Schools," prepared by J. C. Hanna.

The same report contains a "List of Books to be Read in Grades I to XII Inclusive, with Special Reference to the Average Country School and the Average Grade Teacher," compiled by Sherman Williams.

The Southern Education Board in *Southern Education*, 1903, Vol. I, No. 18 ("Rural Libraries"), publishes "A List of Books for a Rural School Library," classified by grades, with unsually full descriptive notes. It is intended to be used as a guide in starting a rural school library.

LISTS FOR SCHOOL LIBRARIES

Oregon Library Commission, List of books for school libraries, 1906. Part 1, Books for elementary schools; Part 2, Books for high schools. This list gives price, publisher, and annotations, also directions for care and maintenance of school libraries in Oregon.

M. H. Prentice and E. L. Power have published a *Children's Library*, selected in behalf of the Cleveland Normal School, and approved by the Cleveland Public Library (second edition, 1904). The books on this list are recommended for "the children's own voluntary reading" as well as for schoolroom use. They are graded with helpful annotations as to the character of the books and the object to be gained by their use.

Under the title "School Holiday Series" the Cleveland public library issues special reading-lists for Thanksgiving Day, Christmas, Abraham Lincoln, George Washington, Memorial Day, New Year's Day, Arbor Day.

The Buffalo Public Library, 1902: *Classroom Libraries for Public Schools*. This list is graded from the first to the ninth grades, with a supplementary list of picture-books for first and second grades. A separate classified list is given of reference-books, including books for teachers, on teaching, psychology, child-study, religion, ethics, etc.

The Springfield (Mass.) City Library, January, 1899: *List of Books in the City Library recommended for Outside Reading to the Pupils of the Springfield High School by the Teachers.* A classified list but without annotations.

The Evanston (Ill.) Public Library, 1902: *A Graded and Annotated List of Five Hundred Books in the School Library Department,* with author and title index, and a list of good stories for boys and girls.

New York State Library (Albany), 1901: *Bulletin No. 65,"* A $500 Library Recommended for Schools" (15 cents). An annotated classified list, with the abridged decimal classification number for each book, and author index.

The New York State Library has issued a number of library bibliographies at prices varying from 5 cents to 35 cents; such as *Fairy-Tales, Froebel. Domestic Economy,* etc. It also issues annually a selection from the best books of that year, for children and adults, classified by subject (10 cents). Altho the list is prepared for the use of public libraries, it includes many books useful in schools, and therefore is of interest to teachers. The decimal classification number is given for each book.

The Department of Psychology and Education of the University of Colorado published in 1903 a *Bibliography of High School Reference Books* (50 cents). This is an excellent list, classified by subjects, with full descriptive notes, and is useful for teachers as well as students.

READING-LISTS FOR CHILDREN

Hardy, G. E. Five hundred books for the young: a graded and annotated list for schools. 1892. New York: Scribner. (A good list, but somewhat out of date.)

Sargent, J. F. Reading for the young: a classified and annotated catalog. 1890. Boston: Library Bureau. $1.

———Supplement. 1896. $1.

These are most valuable guides to juvenile literature. The age of the children for which the books are most suitable is indicated by letters, *a, b, c.* An author and subject index follows.

Hewins, C. M. Books for boys and girls. 1904. (A. L. A. annotated lists.) 15 cents. (Lists compiled by Miss Hewins are always safe and helpful guides.)

Carnegie Library of Pittsburg. Annotated catalog of books used in the home libraries and reading clubs conducted by the children's department. 1905. 25 cents. (This is a carefully prepared list, divided into "Books for younger children," "Books for boys" "Books for girls," and an author and title index. The character of the book is told in a brief statement, and the classification would at once attract the attention of any child. Stories are grouped under such headings as "Detective stories," "Sea stories," "Popular stories," "School stories," "American army," "Indians," etc.)

Iowa Library Commission. List of books recommended for a children's library, compiled by A. C. Moore. (Classified by subjects, with a list of reference-books, preceded by suggestions for the selection and purchase of children's books.)

Brooklyn Public Library: Books for boys and girls, compiled by C. W. Hunt. (A classified list. Books that should be given first choice or duplicated are indicated by a star. "Easy books" for first three school years are indicated by "c." Includes a reference collection for a children's library.)

Leypoldt, A. H., and Iles, George. List of books for girls and women. 1895. Boston: Library Bureau. $1. (An excellent guide for standard works. Twenty-one hundred books on various subjects are recommended, accompanied by biographical and critical notices of authors, and a brief description of works cited.)

Forbush, W. B., compiler. Books for boys. (How to help boys, April, 1903.) 14 Beacon St., Boston. 25 cents. (There are five divisions of this little manual and guide: "Helpful lists from which to select books for boys," by W. B. Forbush; "Lists of books for boys' reading," by C. M. Hewins; "List for a boy's own library," by F. J. Olcott; "Natural science, electricity and useful arts," by E. S. Smith; "Periodicals suitable for boys," by M. D. Crackel.)

Welsh, Charles. Right reading for children. 1902. Boston: Heath & Co. (A compilation of what has been said on the subject by experts, followed by a graded and annotated list of books for children.)

READING-LISTS FOR TEACHERS

Nearly all official lists of books recommended for school libraries contain lists of books for teadhers. The following also are suggestive:

Monroe, W. S. Bibliography of education. 1897. New York: Appleton. $1.50. (Contains 3,200 titles, classified, with an author index and a few annotations.)

Columbia University. Books on education in the libraries of Columbia University. 1901. $1. (A classified list of about 14,000 titles, with author index. Value and character of the books not indicated.)

Lord, I. E., and Wyer, J. I. Bibliography of education. (Published annually, since 1900, in the June number of the *Educational Review*. Includes the most important books, articles, periodicals, and special chapters in books published during the year in England and America, with critical annotations.)

Wilson, L. N. Bibliography of child study. (Published annually, since 1898, in the *Pedagogical Seminary;* since 1905 published by Clark University Press. Includes books, periodicals, and articles in all languages.)

Bishop, W. W. Books for teachers in secondary schools. *Educational Review*, 1900, 19:177–186. (A helpful and suggestive list.)

Brooklyn Public Library. Books useful to teachers. (A compilation of books "from which information can be obtained quickly," to be used in the class-room, with reference to the course of study.)

REFERENCE-BOOKS

Kroeger, A. B. Guide to reference books (A. L. A. annotated lists). 1902. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25. (A very useful book in any library.)

A. L. A. Catalogue: Eight thousand volumes for a popular library, with notes. 1904. Washington: Superintendent of Documents. 50 cents. (A guide to standard literature now in print.)

Abbott, E. L. Bibliography in a small library. *Public Libraries*, 1902, 7:8–13.

Baker, C. A. Reference books for a small library. (Dana, J. C., Library Primer, 1903:46–52.)

BOOKS ON CHILDREN'S READING

For teachers and librarians who wish to study the subject of children's reading. how to read and what to read, the following books will be found to treat the matter exhaustively from the standpoint of the teacher:

Chubb, Percival. Teaching of English in the elementary and secondary schools. 1903. New York: Macmillan. $1.

Carpenter, G. R.; Baker, F. T.; Scott, F. N. Teaching of English in the elementary and secondary schools. 1903. New York: Longmans. $1.50.

McMurry, C. A. Special method in primary reading. 1903. New York: Macmillan, 60 cents. (Includes lists of books for children in the first, second, and third grades, and books of material for teachers.)

———Special method in the reading of complete English classics in the grades of the common school. New York: Macmillan. 75 cents. (Appended are lists of books with brief notes, graded from fourth to eighth grade. Under each grade lists are divided as follows: (1) books for regular reading lessons, (2) supplementary and reference-books, (3) Teachers'-books.)

Burt, M. E. Literary landmarks: a guide to good reading for young people. 1893. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75 cents. (Aims to show a profitable use of books in the class-room, and is followed by a list of books mentioned in the text.)

Scudder, H. E. Literature in school. 1888. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15 cents. (Place of literature in common schools, nursery classics in school, American classics in school.)

ARTICLES ON CHILDREN'S READING

N. E. A. Proceedings:

Hardy, G. E. Literature for children. 1892:154–156.

Lawrence, Isabel. How shall children be led to love good books? 1901:850–858.

Metcalf, R. C. Supplementary reading. (Report of the committee on the relations of public libraries to public schools, 1899:18–24.)

Schreiber, M. E. How to direct children in their reading. 1900:636–643.

Williams, Sherman. Reading lists for public schools, how prepared, how used effectively. 1898:1022–1028.

Public Libraries:
Conover, Mary. What can the library best do for children? 1899, 4:317–320.
Crafts, L. M. Reading of our youth. 1902, 7:117–119.
Galbreath, L. H. Books for various grades. 1897 2:304–310.
Klink, J. S. Use of libraries by school children. 1897, 2:16–19.
Nichols, F. W. How to induce school reading. 1897, 2:9–10.
Temple, Mabel. A selected library for children. 1901, 6:406–408.
Upton, G. E. Best reading for the young. 1901, 6:88–91.

Library Journal:
Bean, M. A. Report on the reading for the young. 1883, 8:217–227.
Books for children: (1) Fiction, (2) Fairy tales, (3) Science. 1901, 26: c63–70.
Dana, J. C. Children's reading: what some of the teachers say. 1897, 22:187–190.
Foster, W. E. Developing a taste for good literature. 1897, 22:245–251.
Hewins, C. M. Book reviews, book lists and articles on children's reading. 1901, 26: c57–62.
Olcott, F. J. Rational library work with children. 1905, 30:71–75.
Sickley, J. C. Plan for course of reading for pupils of the Poughkeepsie public schools. 1887, 12:372–377.
Stearns, L. E. Report on reading for the young. 1894, 19: c81–87.

U. S. Bureau of Education:
Fletcher, W. I. Public libraries and the young. (In Public libraries in the U. S., 1876: 412–418.)
Hewins, C. M. Reading of the young. (In Papers prepared for the World's Library Congress, 1896:944–949.)

Atlantic Monthly:
Repplier, Agnes. What children read. 1887, 59:23.

VII. INCOMING BOOKS

Checking invoices.—Check bills as books are unpacked. Take order-slip for each book from file of unfilled orders. Compare author, title, and editor with title-page of the book, and price with price on the bill. If mistakes have been made in filling the order, or if any item charged on the bill is missing from the package, notify dealer at once. Stamp order-slip with date of receipt, record cost-price, and then file order-slip with orders filled. Source, date, and cost-price are usually penciled on the left margin of the leaf next after title page—a convenient but not necessary memorandum. The book is now ready for accessioning.

It is again true that not all these details are necessary in a small library.

The accession-book.—The necessity of the accession-book is much disputed among librarians. Some libraries, large and small, have either discarded the accession-book or have never kept one.

It is for the use of the librarian mainly, and is a chronologic record of all books added. If accurately kept, it gives the history of every volume in the library. It tells how many volumes were in the library at any given time, when each volume was added, accession number of last volume added, from whom bought or by whom given, cost, call number, author, title, place of publication, publisher, date, pages, size, binding, and any fact relating to its loss, withdrawal, or rebinding.

It is a most useful record to consult in compiling an annual report, because it gives statistics and information difficult to obtain from any other source. It is also a means of identifying lost books.

It is the business record of the library, and, if kept in a safe place, may be used as an inventory for insurance.

One record is more easily kept and used than several records.

Many substitutes have been tried by librarians who do not approve of the accession-book. The growth of the library is sometimes recorded on the book invoices, which are filed alphabetically by dealer's name, and then arranged chronologically, with a separate record for gifts. The Wisconsin Library Commission recommends a printed form on separate sheets for keeping the record of additions and withdrawals.

Price and source, with date of purchase, are sometimes noted on the shelf-list. The order-slip and accession items are combined in some libraries.

The standard accession-book, however, has the great advantage of being a plain record easily understood. Its use, and the method of keeping it, are self-evident even to an untrained librarian.

For large libraries the standard accession-book, with printed headings at the top of each column, consecutive numbering, and printed rules for entering books, is furnished by the Library Bureau in different sizes, from 2,000 to 5,000 lines (entries), at a cost of from $4.35 to $8. For ordinary public, school, or private libraries the condensed accession-book is more convenient and less expensive, costing from $3.60 to $5. A book containing 1,000 lines (entries) in press-board covers is furnished at $1.25.

Certain information for which space is provided in the accession-book is not essential, and if the saving of time and effort is important the following items may be omitted: class and book number, pages, size unless a quarto or folio, and binding unless other than cloth.

The date should be written at the top of the left-hand page, if the entry begins on a new page. If a new accession entry is made anywhere except on the top line, the date should be written in the margin before the accession number. Numbers run consecutively, and each entry has a separate line. The same accession number should not be assigned to a second volume, or to works or sets as a whole. The author's surname, with initials, and brief title of the book, should be used. For volumes of pamphlets give author and title of first pamphlet only. For bound periodicals leave author column blank. Do not accession material such as periodicals or pamphlets until bound. If a volume is withdrawn, lost, sold, rebound, etc., note the fact in the "Remarks" column.

After the accession entry is made, the accession number assigned to a book is written or stamped on the lower margin of the page following the title-page.

Because they are concise and save time and space, Arabic figures and library abbreviations should be used on all library records.

Accession rules are printed in the accession-book, with a list of library abbreviations, and directions for use of capitals.

The following publications will be found helpful:

Salisbury, G. E. Library methods for school teachers. 1903:8–11.
Dewey, Melvil. Simplified library school rules. 1898.

Library Journal:

Bliss, H. E. Economy in accession records. 1903, 28:711–713. (Describes a substitute for the accession-book.)
Dewey, Melvil. A model accession catalog. 1876, 1:315–320.
——— Accession catalog. 1878, 3:336–338.
Fellows, J. D. Cataloguing, accessioning and shelf listing for small libraries. 1899, 24:c 68–70.
Hall, D. B. Classified and condensed accession record. 1903, 28:830–832. (A substitute for the accession-book.)
Poole, W. F. Shelf lists vs. accession catalogues. 1878, 3:324–326.
Weitenkampf, Frank. The accession book—why? 1903, 28:295.

Public Libraries:

Fiske, A. J. Accessioning books. 1903, 8:146–147.
Tyler, Miss. Accessioning. 1899, 4:383–384.
Underhill, C. M. Accessioning. 1903, 8:147–148.
Jones, G. M. Accession department. (In U. S. Bureau of Education, Papers prepared for the World's Library Congress, 1896:809–826.) (A selected bibliography given on selection of books, duplicates (buying and disposal), specializing, buying, gifts, collation, and accession-book.)

Opening a new book.—The following excellent directions have been given by William Matthews, for opening a new book, to avoid injury to the binding: "Place the book with its back on the table, let the front cover down, then the other, holding the leaves in one hand while you open a few leaves at the back, then a few at the front, and so on; alternately opening back and front, gently pressing open the sections till you reach the middle of the volume."

Cutting leaves.—Care should be taken, in cutting the leaves, to avoid tearing the paper. Never use a knife or other tool with a sharp edge, or a hairpin. A flat bone or ivory cutter is the best, used evenly along the edges and clear into the joint at the top.

Marks of ownership.—Several kinds of stamps are used in libraries as marks of ownership. The perforating stamp is costly and mutilates title-pages and plates, but it is most permanent. A book-thief can remove it only by cutting it out. Rubber ink stamps are used more than any other because inexpensive. They are ugly, and can be erased or removed with an ink eradicator. An embossed stamp is least objectionable and can be removed only by an adept. The lettering should be as plain as possible, and include the name of the library, place, and state, without the oval lines usually inclosing this kind of stamp, because such lines tend to cut thru the paper. Private marks of ownership are sometimes used, such as a pinhole in the last figure of the main pagination, but these are rarely worth their cost in time and trouble.

Book-plates.—A book-plate lends a certain air of dignity to a book. Besides denoting ownership, it is a convenient place for recording the class, book number, and name of giver if the book is a gift. A plain label of cream tinted paper, 2×3 inches, bearing name and address of the library, is recommended. A pictorial or armorial design should be engraved or etched in order to look well, and this process and the entire cost of printing it are too costly for the average library. The book-plate should be pasted inside the front cover. If

a plate, autograph, or any valuable printed matter is on this cover, the library plate should be pasted above or below this, or be "tipped in" on edge of cover.

Library Journal:

Kent, H. W. Library book plates. 1902, 27:932–934.

Pockets.—The book is now ready for the pocket which serves to hold the book-card. Pockets can be made of ordinary writing-paper, $4\frac{1}{2} \times 4\frac{1}{2}$ inches. Fold over the lower edge and sides of the book-card, crease down with a paper-cutter, paste the inner edges, and then attach to the inside of the back cover. The card, when in the pocket, should not project above the top of the book. Another form for the pocket opens on the side toward the inner edge of the book. It can be made from a manila envelope with the open side cut in a curve, so that the card may be taken out more easily.

The pocket, like the Acme pocket, used in many libraries, may be used as a book-plate if pasted on the inside of the front cover. Besides name and address of the library, rules and regulations are often printed on the face of the pocket.

In pasting plates, labels, and pockets, use paste sparingly, and with care and neatness. After they are in place, rub over with a clean cloth to smooth out wrinkles. The book should be left open until the paste is dry.

VIII. CATALOGUING AND CLASSIFICATION

The catalog.—The catalog is a record used by the librarian and by the public. It is a list of the books in the library, giving author and title of each. In addition, it ought to show the contents or subject of each (where the subject does not clearly appear by the title), and the location of each in the library.

From the catalog the reader should be able to learn whether the works of a certain author are in the library, by what books he is represented, whether a book with a certain title is in the library, and how much and what material on a certain subject the library contains. In other words, the catalog should show the resources of the library.

Different catalogs.—This is accomplished in a variety of ways. The public usually prefer a printed catalog, because it seems less formidable and is more easily handled than a card catalog. It has, however, two serious disadvantages for either large or small libraries: it costs too much, and it is out of date the day after it leaves the press—because of incoming new books.

Any local newspaper will probably print, on request, special lists of books: as, on nature study or on biography; or books relating to some special country, as Russia or Japan; or new books just received at the library; and clipped copies of these can be used in the library as bulletins. But to attempt to print a catalog of the entire library is not advisable.

The method of cataloguing books on sheets bound in book form is too obsolete to need discussion. It will not be used in a library which is growing or shows any other signs of life.

A card catalog is by far the most satisfactory form, when the prejudices of the public are once overcome. It can be kept up to date without rewriting. When a new book comes in, the cards are made for it, and then filed in the card catalog without delay. The disadvantages of the card system are possible loss or displacement of the cards, and they cannot be turned and examined quite as quickly as the eye and the finger can run down a printed page. But there is much less chance of missing a title—by oversight.

Having decided upon a card catalog, the technical preparation for it should be considered. The style of writing most suitable for a card catalog has been much discussed. It is really a matter of convenience to the users, not of personal preference.

Typewritten cards are uniform in appearance, and can be written much faster than by hand; therefore they are better and cheaper. The disadvantages are that, unless the right kind of machine is used, and unless the operator has had considerable experience, the ink on cards will be either thick and blurred or so faint as to be almost illegible. Alignment also sometimes becomes faulty. A good typewriting machine is a luxury for a small library. The visible writers, which are the best for library use, cost libraries about sixty-five dollars. An expert operator is also expensive, but almost any librarian can soon learn to run the machine faster and easier than she can write by hand. The noise of a machine is a serious objection in a small library, where the librarian usually constitutes the library staff and catalogs during the leisure moments of library hours. If a machine is used, a separate room and an extra assistant should be provided, or the cataloguing must be done out of library hours.

Hand-printed cards.—Next to the typewritten, the disjoined printed hand is most legible, uniform, and pleasing. It is easily acquired, being merely a question of practice. The one disadvantage of this hand is that most people write it slowly.

The library hand is more rapid than the disjoined, and has always been popular. Its disadvantage is that it is difficult, and for some persons almost impossible, to acquire. Copies of the standard library hand-writing, joined and disjoined, may be had from the Library Bureau at a cost of five cents each.

Arrangement of cards.—The card catalog may be arranged by either of several systems. Author- and title-cards may be arranged alphabetically in one file, and the subject-cards arranged in a separate file, numerically according to the Decimal classification, or on some other logical or systematic plan; authors, titles, and subjects may be arranged in a single file, alphabetically from *A* to *Z*, as a dictionary catalog. This is usually recommended for a school library, as it is very easily understood, and can be used by anyone who "knows his alphabet."

Catalog cards.—The small card, approximately 2×5 inches (5×12.5 cm.), is less expensive than the large size, and is more economically stored. The large size, approximately 3×5 inches (7.5×12.5 cm.), is more generally used because carrying more matter, and because the Library of Congress uses that size. Nearly all catalog trays are made for this size. Heavy bristol board is used in many libraries. A medium weight, however, costs less, occupies less space, and unless subjected to rough usage ought to be practically permanent. Use white cards, absolutely uniform in size, weight, and ruling. If the tops are red, these will not present the dirty appearance following constant handling.

Elementary catalog rules.—Every book is represented in the catalog by an author or main entry. The author is responsible for the publication, and may be an individual, society, institution, or an official department of city, state, or national government.

Make the author card first. Write the author's surname on top line, at the right of the first red vertical line (standard ruled catalog card), followed by the Christian name or initials. In case of two authors, follow the name of first author, written as above, by the surname of second author, with initials, and connect the two names by "&." Then write a separate card with name of the second author first, followed by the name of the first author, reversing the order of the first card, viz.:

1. Horton, Charles & Shaw, J. C.
2. Shaw, J. C. & Horton, Charles.

In case of three or more authors, write name of first only and add "& others;" viz.:

Bronson, William, and others.

If an author is better known by a pseudonym than by his real name, or if his real name is not known, use the pseudonym followed by the abbreviation "pseud;" viz.:

Twain, Mark, pseud.

In case of an anonymous book, for which no author can be found, leave the top line blank and enter the book under the title on the second line.

A government department, a society or an institution which issues publications, is regarded as the author, and the entry corresponds to that made for a personal name, viz.:

U. S.—Geological Survey.
U. S.—Education, Bureau of.
Boston—School committee.
New York Historical Society.
Smithsonian Institution.
Harvard University.

In case of a collection of poetry or essays by different authors, the compiler or editor is regarded as the author, and his name is followed by the abbreviation "ed." or "comp."

Sacred or classic works of unknown or composite authorship are entered under the name of the work, viz.:

Bible, Koran, Nibelungenlied, Arabian Nights.

Enter periodicals and cyclopedias under the title on the top line, usually at the right of the second red vertical line.

Write the title of the book on line below author's name, beginning at the second red vertical line and at the left margin of the card on the following lines.

Omit the initial article, if English. Other omissions may be made to shorten the title, provided they do not change the meaning; but no additions, transpositions, or other alterations in the title should be made.

The imprint, if given, is divided into three groups: (1) edition, if more than one has been published; (2) pages if a single volume, or number of volumes if more than one, illustrations, maps if any, size of book; (3) place and date of publication. Leave a space of 1 cm. after the title and between each group of the imprint.

For the catalog of a small library, the author's name, brief title including the editor's or translator's name, if any, with the date of publication, will be sufficient.

In addition to the author-card, all novels, plays, poems, or books bearing striking or unusual titles should be represented by a title-card. In a library for children more title-cards are needed than in a library for adults only, as children remember titles rather than authors. Books published anonymously need title-cards.

The title-card consists of a brief title (omitting initial article if English and not necessary to the sense) written on the top line at the right of second red vertical line, with the word "see" written at the end of the line. The author's name is on line below, beginning at the first red vertical line, as on the author-card.

The subject-card ranks next to the author-card in importance. Fiction, poetry, plays (unless historic or biographic in character), and books treating of no subject definitely, do not need subject-cards. Other books require one or more subject-cards each, according to the character of the book.

Subject entries are more conspicuous and more easily distinguished from title- and author-cards if they are made in red ink. Write the heading on the top line, beginning at the second red vertical line, the rest of the card being a copy of the author-card, except that contents, given for a collection on the author-card, may be omitted.

Cross-references written like a title-card, in black ink, are made from one or more forms of an author's name to the form selected for the main entry, viz.:

Thompson, Ernest Seton, see Seton, Ernest Thompson.

Write subject cross-references in red ink, viz.:

Hymenoptera, see Bees.

Cataloguing.—Cataloguing is a science somewhat difficult for an untrained librarian to master. One who understands the theory of the subject becomes an expert only after much practice.

A catalog should be well made or it is worse than none, because it misleads. The form adopted should be closely and consistently followed. In choosing a form of entry for author or subject, the standpoint of the public rather than of the librarian should be considered, and the simpler or better-known form selected. George Eliot and Mark Twain are better known than Marian Lewes Cross and Samuel Langhorne Clemens. "Birds" is a better subject-heading than "Ornithology." But in all such cases there should be at least one "cross-reference" card, bearing the less familiar name or title. Entries should be uniform. Bulwer's works should not be entered under both Bulwer and Lytton. If "Insects" is chosen as a subject entry for one book, the next one on the same subject should not be represented under the heading "Entomology." Reference-cards should always be made from all probable or possible entries to the one chosen.

The catalog should give information which cannot be obtained from any other library record, but to what extent this information is carried depends upon the size and kind of library. In the large library, author's full name is desirable if it can be obtained without too much effort. The form of the name as it appears on the title-page cannot be accepted without question, as the same author sometimes prints his name differently on different title-pages. A woman may write under her maiden name, and perhaps later under her married name.

Choose specific rather than generic terms for subject headings. Enter a book on trees under "Trees" and not under "Botany." Remember that the title of a book does not always indicate its subject.

Mark all cards for a book, except a cross-reference which may stand for any number of books, with the call-number of that work. It is usually written in the upper left corner of the card, in blue or black.

Certain information for the use of the librarian is recorded on the back of the main entry or author-card; viz.: accession numbers, subject headings, and the number of cards made for the book.

Analyze books containing essays or chapters on specific topics, and represent the result by subject-cards in the catalog. Analytic work is peculiarly important in a small library, where every scrap of information ought to be made available.

A useful reference-book for subject analytics, especially if the school is near a large public library, is W. I. Fletcher's *A. L. A. Index to General Literature* (second edition, Boston, 1900; $10). This contains subject-references to papers, monographs, and essays of value, with a list of the works indexed. Its continuation, the *Annual Literary Index*, is published yearly by the *Publishers' Weekly* ($3.50). These publications are costly, and refer to material probably not found in the average school library. The same objec-

tion holds good as to *Poole's Index* to periodical literature. A rural library, then, dependent entirely upon its own resources, should make its own analytics for books and periodicals.

Settle rules for punctuation, capitals, abbreviations, indentation, and spacing in the beginning. Altho not of vital importance, the neatness of the catalog depends upon uniformity in these matters. Capitals and punctuation are used sparingly by the cataloguer.

Further discussion and amplification of these details, and lists of library abbreviations illustrated by sample cards, will be found in the publications referred to later.

Printed catalog cards.—The printed catalog cards issued by the Library of Congress may be used, if preferred, for current publications. Order as many cards as are needed for each book. The cost is two cents for the first card and one-half cent for each additional card, for the same book. An objection to these cards is that sometimes they give too much information. It is apt to be confusing, especially to inexperienced readers, who do not understand what it all means.

Periodicals.—Unbound periodicals need not be catalogued if an alphabetic record of current numbers is kept in a book or on cards, with the name of the giver if a gift, of the agent and price if bought. Check each number under the date, as it is received.

Library Journal:
James, H. P. Current magazine checklist. 1889, 14:377–378.

Pamphlets.—Catalog pamphlets separately, even when bound together, as if they were individual books, noting on each card: "No. — of a vol. of pamphlets." If unbound, pamphlets may be catalogued as above, without the note. Place several pamphlets relating to the same subject in a box, label like a bound volume, and put on the proper shelf.

Alphabetizing.—After necessary cards are made for a book comes their arrangement in the catalog. Alphabetizing is not as easy as it sounds. Just how author (individual or official names), subject, title, series, periodical, editor, and translator cards should be placed, and still retain an alphabetic relation as a whole, requires judgment and experience.

If an author is represented by many cards, place the subject-cards, biographies, and criticisms first, arranged alphabetically by the author's name; then the complete works, then partial collections, then single works arranged alphabetically by titles. If an author has written a book with another author, place the joint-author card after the single-author cards. Additional cards, like editor, translator, or annotator, are placed last.

Alphabetize authors by the surname first, then by the Christian name or initials. If the same word represents the name of a person, place, and title, place the name of the person first, then the name of the place followed by the title, viz.:

1. London, Jack
2. London, W. J.
3. London (Eng.) Customs (subject)
4. London (Eng.) Education Society (author)
5. London Pride (title)

File Christian names used alone in order of rank, monarchs of the same name alphabetically by countries. These precede similar names representing surnames, viz.:

1. John, St.
2. John V., Pope
3. John II., King of France
4. John II., King of Portugal
5. John of Gaunt
6. John, J. D.
7. John River (N. H.)
8. John Bull
9. John Inglesant

Alphabetize abbreviations like Mc, St., as if spelled Mac, Saint, etc.

Arrangement of names beginning with a prefix:

De Coverley Papers
Deering, John
Defence of ignorance
Defoe, Daniel
De Garmo, Charles
Dekker, Thomas
De Mille, James
Democracy
Denmark
DeQuincey, Thomas
Derby, E. G.
De Vere, M. S.
Dewey, John

Disregard the initial article of titles of books in alphabetizing.

The following arrangement of entries will illustrate some of the principles of filing in an alphabetical order:

The book buyer
Book of commerce
Book of golden deeds
The Book-lover
Book plates
A day at Laguerres
Day dreams of a schoolmaster
A day in ancient Rome
Day of my life
The day's work
Days and hours in a garden
New, Walter
New American Series
New Jersey
New London
New Manual
New Mexico
New party
New South Wales
New York (city)
New York (state)
New Zealand
Newark
Newburgh
Newcastle
Newspapers
Newton, J. K.

Guides.—Guides of heavy cardboard, cut in thirds, properly labeled, are needed to complete the catalog (*Library Bureau Catalog*).

Specific rules for different kinds of entries cited and for many others not mentioned, such as series, secondary entries, editor, translator, compiler, and the treatment of analytics, continuations, contents, notes, etc., have been carefully compiled by specialists and are in the following publications (given in the order of their usefulness to the untrained librarian)—one or more of which should be in every library, and within easy reach of every student of library administration:

Salisbury, G. E. Library methods for school teachers. 1903: pp. 13–22. (See list of works in Appendix.) (Simple cataloguing rules for the use of the inexperienced librarian. Entries for societies, institutions, public documents, etc., are discussed, and illustrated by fac-simile cards.)

Hitchler, Therese. Cataloging for small libraries. 1905. (A. L. A Library Tract, No. 7.) Boston: A. L. A. Publishing Board. 15 cents. (A useful guide for the cataloguer, with fac-simile cards to illustrate different cases mentioned. Arrangement of cards and alphabetizing are discussed, with examples of different methods. The book contains a list of most essential reference-books for cataloguers, and a list of definitions of bibliographic and typographic terms.)

Dewey, Melvil, ed. Simplified library school rules. 1898. Boston: Library Bureau. $1.25. (Intended for use in a small library, applicable to both a dictionary and classed catalog, illustrated with sample cards. Covers more ground than the preceding, going farther into details. Indentation, spacing, call-numbers, arrangement, capitals, punctuation, abbreviations are discussed, and library terms defined.)

Cutter, C. A. Rules for a dictionary catalog. 4th ed., 1904. U. S. Bureau of Education. Free. (The standard work, but rather abstruse for the uninitiated.)

Crawford, Esther. Cataloging. 1906. Chicago: Library Bureau. 25 cents. (A clear and sensible exposition.)

A. L. A. List of subject headings. 1898. Boston: A. L. A. Publishing Board. $2.

Ames, Sadie. List of subject headings for use in dictionary catalogues of children's books. 1903. Carnegie Library of Pittsburg.

New York State Library. A selection of cataloguer's reference books. 1903. Albany. 25 cents.

The *A. L. A. Catalog* will serve as a guide for form of entry of authors' names, full names, and subject headings.

The following are useful in identifying authors, and will answer many questions asked by the public:

Thomas, Joseph. Universal pronouncing dictionary of biography and mythology. 3d ed., 1901. Philadelphia: Lippincott. $15.

Phillips, L. B. Dictionary of biographical reference. New ed., 1889. Philadelphia: Gebbie. $2.25.

Allibone, S. A. Critical dictionary of English literature and British and American authors. 5 vols. 1859–1902. Philadelphia: Lippincott. $17.50.

Who's Who. 1906. New York: Macmillan. $2.

Who's Who in America. 1906–1907. Chicago. Marquis. $3.50.

Century cyclopedia of names. 1901. New York: Century Co. $10.

Lippincott's Gazetteer of the world. New ed., 1905. Philadelphia: Lippincott. $8.

GENERAL ARTICLES ON CATALOGUING

Library Journal:

Fellows, J. D. Cataloging, accessioning, and shelf listing for small libraries. 1899. 24:c68–70.

Lane, W. C. Cataloging. 1893, 18:238–240.

Van Dyke, J. C. Making of library catalogs. 1885, 10:126–127. Also in *Independent*, April 16, 1885.

Whitney, J. L. Catalogues of town libraries. 1879, 4:268–275.

Public Libraries:

Benedict, L. E. W. Suggestions to beginners in cataloguing. 1896, 1:266–267.

Bullock, E. D. Practical cataloguing. 1901, 6:134–138.

Bushy, M. J. Cataloging. 1903, 8:148–150.

Catalog Symposium. 1901, 6:150–154.

Clatworthy, L. M. Cataloging. 1904, 9:107–109.

Ganley, Marie. Some problems in cataloging. 1901, 6:139–143.

Jones, E. L. Making of a card catalog. 1904, 9:109–113.

Jordan, F. P. History of printed catalog cards. 1904, 9:318–321.

Reinick, W. R. Cataloging of government publications. 1900, 5:83–87.

Simpson, Frances. Some problems in cataloging a normal school library. 1901, 6:153–154.

Smith, F. E. Best catalog for a small library. 1901, 6:147–150.

Wellman, H. C. Cost of cataloging. 1902, 7:314–315.

Barrett, F. T. Alphabetical and classified forms of catalogues compared. (Second International Library Conference, 1897, Transactions, 67–71.)
Brown, J. D. Manual of library classification and shelf arrangement. 1898. London. Library Supply Co. 4s.
Atlantic Monthly:
Fiske, John. A librarian's work. 1876, 38:480–491.
Nation:
Hagen, H. A. The librarian's work. 1877, 24:40–41. (On Dr. Fiske's article.)
Cutter, C. A. The cataloguer's work. 1877, 24:86–88. (An answer to Dr. Hagen.)

Classification.—Like cataloguing, classification is a difficult process for the untrained and inexperienced librarian.

The purpose of classification is to bring together on the shelves the books which treat of the same subject, and in this way to make the resources of the library more readily accessible to both the librarian and the public (the "open shelf system" is taken for granted).

Whatever system is adopted, it should be permanent, and should be elastic enough to provide for growth without reclassifying every few years.

The usefulness and efficiency of a library depend more on its proper cataloguing and classification than upon any other detail of administration. Both require technical knowledge, and a large amount of common-sense and good judgment.

No scheme of classification has yet been devised that is perfectly satisfactory (except to the inventor), because authors will not write books from the standpoint of the classifier, and it is sometimes difficult to find just the right place in any scheme for a given book.

Certain rules and principles must be followed in cataloguing and classification, yet it is necessary to recognize occasional exceptions or the system breaks down.

The character of the library must be taken into consideration, and books must be classified where they will be most naturally sought and will be most useful. The use made of the books in a public library is quite different from that in a school library.

Having decided upon a definite location for a book, the classification of which seemed rather dubious, the next book like it should be classified in the same place. The public naturally think the methods of the librarian radically wrong if two books similar in character are so classified that they are found on opposite sides of the room or in different rooms.

A book treating of two or more subjects should generally be classified according to the one most important to that particular library.

Books should not be classified simply by title, which is sometimes misleading. The table of contents may not indicate sufficiently the character of the book, and even the text may fail in this respect. The classifier sometimes finds a clue in the preface, in which the author states his object.

The disadvantages of the "fixed location" used in older libraries need not be discussed, as this classification has very generally been abandoned. A book classified by this system always stands absolutely in the same place, in

respect to shelf, tier, and room, irrespective of its subject or relation to other books.

Systems of classification. The two systems of classification most widely known are the Dewey Decimal System and the Cutter Expansive System. Both are used in modern libraries. The first, which this report recommends for a school library, has the advantage of being better known because it has been longer in use and has been adopted in a large number of libraries.

It is claimed for the Decimal System that it is more easily understood than other systems, is adapted to small or large libraries, is flexible, admits of broad or close classification, and may be elaborated without reclassification as the library grows.

As the name implies, it is based upon the decimal system of notation, the books so classified standing on the shelves in numerical order.

Dewey, Melvil. Abridged decimal classification and relative index. 1894. Boston: Library Bureau. $1.50.

The Alphabetic Index of subjects (with references from synonyms) gives the corresponding class number for each, and indicates its exact place in the preceding tables. The preface fully explains its use, with practical suggestions to beginners.

Inexperienced classifiers will be aided by the following:

A. L. A. Catalog:

Kroeger, A. B. Guide to the study of reference books.
N. Y. State Library. A $500 library recommended for schools.
——— Selection of best books (for the year). Published annually.

Note.—These three publications give the Decimal classification for each work.

Public Libraries:

Bullock, Edna. Problems in classification. 1900, 5:6–8.
Preparing books for the shelves. 1898, 3:117–118.
Tyler, A. S. Classification. 1899, 4:377–380.
Van Valkenburgh, Agnes. Classifying and cataloging a small library. 1898, 3:199–201.

Library Journal:

Fletcher, W. J. Library classification: theory and practice. 1889, 14:22, 77, 113.
Foster, W. E. Classification from the reader's point of view. 1890, 15:–c 6–9.
Gifford, W. L. R. Difficulties in the Dewey classification and their adjustment. 1896, 21:494–498.

Small libraries.—For a library of five hundred volumes or less, a list of authors and titles on cards will serve the purpose of a more formal or systematic card catalog. The cards should be arranged alphabetically by authors, and can be used in place of the accession-book and for taking the inventory.

OUTLINE OF A SCHEME ADAPTED FROM THE DECIMAL CLASSIFICATION

0 General works, cyclopedias, periodicals, etc.
1 Philosophy, ethics, logic, etc.
2 Religion, Christian and non-Christian.
3 Sociology, political economy, political science, law, education, commerce, customs, folklore.
4 Philology, English, German, French, etc.
5 Natural science.

6 Useful arts, medicine, engineering, agriculture, domestic economy, manufactures, etc.
7 Fine arts.
8 Literature.
9 General history.
9.1 Travel.
9.2 Biography.
9.3 Ancient history.
9.4 European history.
9.5 Asian history.
9.6 African history.
9.7 North American and United States history.
9.8 South American history.

Book-shelving.—Arrange books on the shelves according to subject—science, literature, history, etc. Arrange books belonging to the same class alphabetically by the author's name, except in biography, where it is more important to arrange them by the name of the person written about.

The first figure of the Decimal Classification indicating the class to which the book belongs, with the initial letter of the author's surname below, can be written on the inside cover and on a label pasted on the back of each volume.

Write the combination of class number and author's initial in the upper left corner of the catalog card which represents the book, as it identifies the book and locates it on the shelf.

Untrained librarians who feel unequal to cataloguing and classifying their libraries may prepare for this work, to some extent, by a six-weeks' course in one of the summer library schools; or may engage an expert cataloguer temporarily, under whom the librarian can work as an apprentice until she can carry on the work unaided.

IX. CALL NUMBERS, SHELF-LIST, LOAN SYSTEM

Book numbers.—After books have been assigned a class number, it is necessary to distinguish those belonging to the same class by means of a book number or author number. Many books may receive the same class mark, but the book number belongs to one book only. It is as distinctly individual as a person's name. If a work consists of two or more volumes, the same book number is assigned to each volume; but each volume must be distinguished from the rest of the set by its volume number—1,2, 3, etc.

Cutter tables.—The order usually adopted for arranging books belonging to the same class is alphabetic. The library may contain twenty-five books on botany by Brown, Jones, Smith, etc. By using the Cutter author tables (*Library Bureau*, $1.25) in assigning book numbers, these books will stand on the shelf alphabetically by authors. The Cutter table consists of the initial letter of the author's name, if a consonant, followed by two figures. If the initial letter is a vowel, the table gives the two first letters followed by one figure. The book number for an author named Brown is B81. A second edition of the same

book receives the book number B811; while a different book by Brown, on the same subject, receives the book number B812. Books are arranged on the shelves first by class number, then by book number; and under book number, first by letter, then by figures.

For a small library the initial letter and one figure will give a shorter book number. The second figure may be added to distinguish two authors of the same name.

If the Cutter table is not accessible, the initial letter of the author's surname may be used, adding 1, 2, 3, etc., to indicate different books by the same author, or books by different authors having the same initial letter. Names beginning with the same letter can be kept together under one class by this method, but not in a strict alphabetic order.

In biography the book number is for name of person written about and not for name of author. It is more important to keep biographies of George Washington together on the shelf than to alphabetize them by author's name.

The letter *Z* is a convenient book number for a volume of pamphlets or for a box of unbound pamphlets. Such a collection by various authors will stand on the shelf at the end of their class.

For simplified book numbers, including special schemes for keeping books by the same author (in literature) in an alphabetic arrangement, see Melvil Dewey, *Simplified Library School Rules.*

Shelf-list.—Having assigned a class number and book number, compare this assignment with shelf-list, to be sure that it has not been used already for another book. The combination of class number and book number together is the call number (see below).

The shelf-list is a record which represents the books as arranged on the shelves, first by classification, then by book or author numbers. Enter every book on the shelf-list as soon as the book number is assigned.

The shelf-list has several important uses. It must be consulted in assigning book numbers, as it is the only record which shows what call-numbers have been used for other books. When the proper classification of a book is doubtful, the shelf-list may be consulted for the classification of books of similar character. If the card catalog does not include subject entries, the shelf-list may be used as a subject catalog, but it will not (like the catalog) give subject analytics. The shelf-list is also used in taking the inventory of the library, and is a source of interesting statistical information.

Shelf-list sheets.—The shelf-list may be kept on sheets laced in a binder. Standard shelf-list sheets, with or without printed headings and binder, are made by the Library Bureau.

If kept on sheets, the entries are made as follows: Write the class number on the upper outside margin of the sheet, where pagination is printed in a book. If the class is not likely to grow rapidly, two subjects may be entered on the same sheet, the second being written half-way down on the outer margin. If decimal classification is used, its numbers are arranged in numerical order, of

course like the books on the shelves. Book numbers under each class are arranged alphabetically, as far as possible, in book-number column, the accession number (or numbers) is written next, followed by number of volumes if more than one, author's surname, with initials and brief title. It is impossible to keep book numbers in a strict alphabetical order as new books are entered. From time to time the sheet must be copied and entries rearranged.

To avoid much of this copying, the New York State Library has adopted a smaller shelf-list sheet containing ten lines to the page instead of twenty-five, and one subject only is put on a sheet.

Shelf-list cards.—Another method of keeping the shelf-list, one which is used in several libraries, is on cards. These never need to be copied. A card is made for each title and dropped in place as soon as made. Items on the shelf-list card are copied from the catalog card, and consist of call number, author's surname, brief title, and accession and volume numbers (if more than one volume.) Cards are filed in boxes or drawers in the order in which the books are arranged on the shelves. The cards may be thinner than catalog cards. The objections to the card shelf-list are the same as those raised against the card catalog. The cards may be lost, stolen, or displaced, and are not as easy to consult as a page containing a number of entries over which the eye may glance without the trouble or loss of time entailed in handling separate cards. Many librarians consider these objections insurmountable.

Dewey, Melvil, ed. Simplified shelf list rules. (In his *Simplified Library School Rules*, 1898.)

Public Libraries:
Crawford, Esther: The shelf list. 1899, 4:381–383.

Inventory.—The annual inventory is more quickly taken by two persons, one reading numbers of books on shelves while the other checks numbers on shelf-list. Note all missing books on a separate sheet, and look up afterward. They may be charged out to readers, at the binder's, or out of place in some other part of the library.

The best time for the inventory of a school library is during the long vacation, when most of the books are in.

Call-numbers.—After the call-number is assigned any book, record it in upper left corner of all cards for that book, with class number on the top line, the book number just below it; on shelf-list, on book-plate, on book-card, and card-pocket—class number in the left corner, book number in the right corner. It should also appear upon the back of the book, and here a variety of methods are in use in different libraries. The number should be at the same distance from the bottom of each book, that the backs may appear uniform on the shelves. The number may be gilded on by a binder. This is very satisfactory, especially to the eye, but it is too costly for a small library, from three to five cents a volume. In many libraries Dennison gummed labels are used; but unless put on with great care, these drop off, are quickly soiled, and wear out easily. The surface of the book where the label is pasted must be roughened

and the glaze removed with sand-paper, a file, or with ammonia, taking care not to injure or discolor the binding beyond the place covered by the label. After the label is on the book, cover it with white shellac applied with a camel's-hair brush. Old labels can be removed with wet blotting-paper. The process of labeling is described minutely in Miss Stern's *Essentials in Library Administration.*

The call number may be written directly on the back of the book itself with a pen or brush, using David's white letterine for dark bindings, and Higgin's waterproof ink for light bindings. Cover these also with shellac to prevent rubbing off.

Library routine.—The ordinary routine followed in getting a book from publisher to library shelf is: ordering (after comparing order-slips with catalog and with unfilled and outstanding orders, to avoid buying unnecessary duplicates), checking bill after book is received, dating order-slip, accessioning, placing accession number in the book, embossing (if stamp is used to denote ownership), plating, pocketing, cutting leaves, cataloguing, writing author, subject, and other entry cards, making subject analytics if necessary, classifying, assigning book number, shelf-listing, writing book-cards, writing in call number, labeling back, placing book on shelf, and filing the cards in the catalog. In a small library all of these steps need not be taken; but whatever are taken should be in this order.

The accession-book, card catalog, and shelf-list are the most important library records.

The accession-book is numeric, by date of reception; the catalog is alphabetic; the shelf-list is numeric by classification and then alphabetic by book numbers.

Public Libraries:

Adams, Z. F. Practical hints on organization. 1898, 3:344–345; 1899, 4:58–59 143, and 198–199. Treats of accessioning, charging system, shelf-listing, classification, etc.

Loan-desk.—The loan-desk is the business department of the library, and often (especially in small libraries) is the reference department as well. It is the place where the public ask questions; and where, according to treatment received, their impression of the library, favorable or otherwise, is formed. This department should run very smoothly. The reader should find quickly what he asks for or learn why he cannot get it. Loan-desk work demands patience, courtesy, and the necessary firmness to enforce rules—but the greatest of these is courtesy.

The records of the loan-desk should tell the whereabouts of a book that is not on the shelves: who has it, how long it has been out, and when it is due. Generally, one book may be borrowed for two weeks. This time may be extended on due notice, if wished. In a public library more than one book should be issued to a reader, if needed for study or other serious work.

Teachers should be permitted to take out as many books as they wish, and

keep them as long as their work demands, provided this does not interfere with the rights of others.

In the charging system a book-card and a reader's card are used. A book-card, approximately 3×5 inches (7.5×12.5 cm.), of light cardboard, is made for every volume. The class number is written on the top line at the left and book number on the right, author's surname on the second line, and a brief title on the third line. The book-card is kept in the card-pocket when the book is in the library, and at the desk when the book is out.

The reader's card is usually light brown, of same size as book-card. The reader keeps his card if he has a book out; if not, it is filed (alphabetically) in the library for safekeeping. The name and address of the person holding the card are written at top of reader's card, as well as his number, which is assigned from the register, a blank-book recording by numbers the persons who use the library, with names and addresses.

A box containing book-cards of all books out is kept on the desk. These cards are arranged back of the dates upon which these books are due. When a book is returned by the borrower, at the back of it will be found a slip pasted on the fly-leaf—the time-slip—upon which is stamped the day when that book becomes due. If July 27, look in the card-box, back of the twenty-seventh, for the book-card corresponding in name to the book. When found, stamp in right-hand column the date returned, and then put the card in the pocket of the book. The book is then ready to return to the shelf.

A borrower chooses a book which he wishes to take out. The book-card is then in the pocket. Take it out, stamp in left-hand column date on which the book is drawn out—July 27—write in the middle space the borrower's number, and place the card in the card-box, back of the date, two weeks later when the book will be due; viz., August 10. Then on the time-slip cross off the date last stamped on it, and stamp the date when that book becomes due, as, August 10. Then the book is ready to be sent out.

When books go to the binder's, stamp or write "bindery" on the book-cards, and file in the charging box.

Statistics of daily circulation may be kept in a blank book or on cards. In a library of five hundred volumes or less, books can be charged by writing on a slip of paper the author and title of the book, or class number and author's initial, name of borrower, and date of issue. These slips should be filed under date of issue, and the charge canceled when book is returned. If statistics of circulation are desired, preserve the slips.

Dana, J. C. Charging system. (In his Library primer, 1903:116–121.)
Plummer, M. W. Charging system. (In her Hints to small libraries, 1894:35–41.)
Stearns, L. E. Loan system. (In her Essentials in library administration, 1905:65–71.)

Public Libraries:

Dodge, Virginia. Loan system. 1898, 3:259–261.
Miner, S. H. Two book system. 1897, 2:173–175.
Sharp, K. L. Loan systems. 1897, 2:295–298.
Wood Miss. Charging systems. 1899, 4:375–377.

Library Journal:
Bolton, C. K. The "two-book" system. 1894, 19:161–162.
Carr, H. J. Report on charging systems. 1889, 14:203–214. (Contains a bibliography of references with annotations.)
Hill, F. P.. Preparing a book for issue and charging systems. 1896, 21:51–56.
Jones, G. M. Cards for the "two-book" system. 1895, 20:168–172.
Sheldon, H. G. Elementary talk on charging systems. 1897, 22:63–64. (Followed by a list of references on charging systems.)
Plummer, M. W. Loan systems. (In United States Bureau of Education, Papers prepared for the World's Library Congress, 1896:898–906.)

X. BINDING

A problem.—The right kind of binding for library books at a minimum cost is a problem which few libraries have solved. A large library, binding thousands of volumes yearly, can get special prices under contracts, but the small library must pay good prices to get good work. As a rule, cheap binding is not good binding.

The modern book, as it comes from the publisher, is pleasing in appearance, especially the book issued for popular reading. The cover design is usually artistic and often ornate. However, sometimes it begins to fall to pieces before it leaves the cataloguer's hands.

The man on the street who buys a book for a Christmas or birthday gift is satisfied with a pretty cover. He passes it on while new, and its wearing qualities do not concern him. But the librarian would be better satisfied with a plainer cover and stronger binding. A new book should circulate many times before it needs rebinding. A publisher who will spend less on exterior decoration and more on the wearing qualities of the book will find favor with libraries.

A book rebound should last longer than a new book, because (presumably) it is hand-sewed with linen thread, while (generally) the new book was machine-sewed with cotton thread. As a matter of fact, a rebound book does not always wear better than in its original form. Binders say this is because the paper used for the modern book is made of wood pulp and is too rotten to hold the thread; the paper tears loose from the stitches, and leaves drop out.

Sewing.—Strength of the binding depends chiefly upon the sewing. After the printed sheets have been folded, gathered, collated, and made compact by pressure, they are ready for sewing. In flexible binding, cords are placed on the back of the sheets forming raised bands, and the thread is passed around the cord. Old books were sewed in this manner, and therefore lasted longer than modern books, this being a much stronger method of sewing. It is not used now, because a cheaper process is easier for the sewer. The ordinary method is to saw grooves on the backs of the sheets, usually three, deep enough to hold the cords or bands; and the thread is then passed through the back of each section (four pages) around the outside of each cord. The objection to this method is that it weakens the back, and the book will not lie as flat as with a flexible binding.

Whipstitching or overcasting is used on worn-out or poor paper. The pages are collated and pressed, then sewed, then the sheets separated into sections are glued on the back, and then overcast along the back around the cords, the stitches of each section passing through the preceding section.

For heavy or large books tapes, because much stronger, are substituted for cords, and are occasionally used for valuable books of ordinary size.

Leather binding.—After sewing, end papers or fly-leaves between the book and the cover are pasted on, front and back, sheets are trimmed, the back is made convex and the front concave by hammering (rounding and backing, it is called), and the book is then ready for covers.

Mill-boards of the right size, a little narrower than the book, are then prepared for covers. When morocco is used, these boards are "laced in." The cords are drawn tight thru the boards, cut off, and the small projecting ends unraveled or frayed out, and hammered down until quite smooth. The band serves as a hinge connecting the book and cover. The weakness of the binding is often in the hinge, the cords break, and the book drops out of the cover. Binders sometimes put in an extra cloth hinge, fastened to the book and cover. In the Duro-flexile binding used by Cedric Chivers, one of the strips of linen which connects the end papers is inserted between the boards, and one of the end papers is pasted inside the cover; so that two thicknesses of cloth are between the cover and the book.

Head-bands are purely ornamental. They are bought in strips, which are cut to the proper length and pasted on the back of the book, top and bottom.

Backs.—The book is then ready for the cover-back. The leather for the cover-back is cut to the right size and drawn down on all edges. In a "tight" back the leather is fastened to the back of the book and forms part of it. In a "loose" or open back, "strips of paper are glued to the back, over which are placed others free from the back; part of the leather is turned in between these so that the covering of the back only adheres to the loose paper."[1] The leather in an open back connects the boards forming the sides, and is not attached to the book. When a book with such a cover is opened, a hollow is formed beween the leather and the back. The loose back is flexible, looks better, and is used extensively on that account. The tight back wrinkles the leather, but is much stronger and lasts longer. As a rule, old books have tight backs.

Casing.—For cheap cloth or leather binding a case is made, somewhat as follows: a piece of linen is cut, about a half-inch wider than the thickness of the book, and pasted on the back of the book. The board sides are prepared as before, and the cords, instead of being laced in the boards, are frayed out at the ends and pasted down smooth together with the over-edges of the linen strip, which thus connects the cover boards and the backs. The cover cloth is then cut, enough larger than the cover boards and back to allow its being turned over the edges and pasted down. The in-papers are then pasted in, and the cover is then ready for "finishing." Generally the case is made com-

[1] W. J. E. Crane, *Bookbinding.*

plete, with title and ornaments stamped on with a machine die, before the book is glued into place.

Cover material.—The strongest and best material for covers is Turkey morocco or goat, but it is too expensive for a small library. Persian morocco is cheaper, but not as strong. Calf, Russia, and all grades of sheepskin should not be used in a public library. Next to Turkey morocco, American Russia or cowhide is the strongest leather. For library binding, leather is used either on the back only, "half morocco," or on the back and corners only, "three-fourths morocco." The sides are covered with cloth or marbeled paper. Vellum corners, tho less common in America, are stronger than leather.

Dampness, dryness, dust, gas, heat, sunlight, tobacco smoke, all deteriorate leather. Heat dries the oil out of the skin and makes it harden and lose flexibility; dampness causes mildew, while a strong light rots and fades.

Of cloth bindings, linen is most satisfactory, the Bancroft and Holliston cloths being the best. Buckram is strong, but the rough surface is objectionable. There is a very satisfactory smooth-finish buckram now on the market. Canvass is cheap and durable, but it has a rough soft finish that holds the dust. For heavy books canvass is by far the best.

For a small book which is subjected to hard usage, one of the strongest and cheapest bindings is half-buffing, or thin "split cowhide", with a tight back and strong cloth hinge. A binding of this kind will sometimes outlast the book itself, while the cost is about the same as cloth.

In selecting the color for binding, avoid light shades, as they soil easily. Browns and maroon are very satisfactory. Red and green are the most durable colors. Black is generally used to disguise imperfections in the skin.

Collating.—Every book should be collated before it is sent to the binder, and all missing parts supplied if possible. The title-page, index, all pages, and all illustrative material should be accounted for; and the binder should be held responsible if any of these are missing when the bound volume is returned.

A slip giving directions as to style of binding, material, color, and lettering should be sent, and a record kept of each volume, the author, title, accession number, volume number, style of binding, and date when sent. This record is checked when the books are returned, with date and price of binding.

If large numbers of books are to be bound, the binder should be asked for lower prices. Sometimes it is best to send books away from home in order to get better binding or lower prices.

If the price of rebinding nearly equals original cost of the book, it should be thrown away and a new copy bought.

Pamphlets.—Pamphlets not often used may be stabbed with wire or sewed, and fastened in board covers with plain cloth backs, costing from ten to fifteen cents, according to size and quality.

In the St. Louis Public Library a temporary binding is used for magazines which could also be used for pamphlets, consisting of a portfolio with paste-

board sides covered with paper. At the top and bottom are eyelets through which stitches are passed along the length of the paper.

Pasteboard boxes $9\frac{1}{2} \times 7 \times 2$ inches, for holding unbound pamphlets, can be bought for five or six cents each.

Clippings may be mounted on sheets of manila paper, and filed in boxes properly labeled.

Crane, W. J. E. Bookbinding for amateurs. Scribner. $1.
Cockerell, Douglas. Bookbinding and care of books. Appleton. $1.25.
Dana, J. C. Binding for Libraries. Library Bureau. 1906. 75c.
Horne, Herbert P. The binding of books. 1894. Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co. $1.50.

Public Libraries:

Dana, J. C. Binding for a public library. 1902, 7: 147–148.
Crawford, W. R. The book when bound. 1904, 9:263–264.
Fergus, E. C. Clippings for the library. 1901, 6:329–331.
Hagey, Joanna. Binding. 1904, 9:268–272.
Hollands, W. C. Bookbinding. 1904, 9:260–262.
Soldan, F. J. Directions for binding. 1904, 9:259–260.

Library Journal:

Bliss, H. E. Better book binding for libraries. 1905, 30:849–857.
Dewey, Melvil. Colors in binding. 1885, 10:339–340.
——— Binding rules and specifications for New York State Library. 1899, 24:573.
Duro-flexile bookbinding (Cedric Chivers). 1887, 12:70–71.
Hathaway, F. P. Binding for a public library. 1879, 4:245–250.
Poole, R. B. Elements of good binding. 1892, 17:c 15–18.
Ranck, S. H. Leather for bookbinding. 1901, 26:681–684.
Report of Committee on Bookbinding. 1906, 31:130–139.
Woodard, G. E. Notes on bookbinding. 1898, 23:231–237.

Johnston, D. V. R. Elements of library binding. (In U. S. Bureau of Education, Papers prepared for the World's Library Congress, 1896:907–916.)
Article on "Bookbinding" in New International Encyclopedia, 1902, Vol. 3. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

Repairs, and general care.—Books can be kept in good condition for a long time and the cost of binding saved by care, and by making repairs as soon as needed. Binder's thread and needles, cloth of different colors, paper, paste, glue, paraffin paper, transparent gummed paper, and "onion skin" are the necessary tools for mending books. Loose sheets can be sewed in, cloth hinges pasted on covers, and cloth backs glued on. Tears can be mended with paraffin paper and white paste, or with "onion skin." Colored leather can be washed with alcohol; white leather or cloth, with soap and water. Leather can be softened and cleaned with vaseline. Gasoline will clean any kind of binding. Books in a white or light binding can be covered with white shellac varnish when new, and then washed with impunity. Ink spots can be removed from paper with H. H. Collins' Ink Eradicator (Union Square, New York). Nothing will remove ink from book-covers, however, without disfiguring binding. Books returned from the homes where there has been any serious contagious disease should be burned at once, as there is no inexpensive process for the proper disinfection of books. To be effective, disinfecting vapor must come in contact with every page.

Rats and mice gnaw the backs of books to get at the paste. Cockroaches eat bindings. Bookworms (other than human) are not as common as they are supposed to be. A genuine bookworm is very rare.

Public Libraries:
Leighton, F. H. Preparing new books and restoring old. 1905, 10:223–224.
Straight, M. W. Repairing of books. 1900, 5:88–89.
Library Journal:
Disinfection of books by vapor of formalin. 1895, 22:388.
Hagan, H. A. Insect pests in libraries. 1879, 4:251–254.
How to wash a book. 1885, 10:184–185.
Poole, W. F. Spread of contagious diseases by circulating libraries. 1879, 4: 258–262.

General care.—Books should not be packed closely on the shelves; the friction wears out the binding, and tops are frequently broken or pulled off in getting books from shelves. They should not be shelved so far apart that they fall over, or stand so obliquely as to warp covers. If for any good reason books only partly fill a shelf, they should be kept upright by means of book supports. Folios may be shelved on their sides. Books should not be left open, nor leaned on, nor placed face downward while open, nor stand on their front edge. Nothing thicker than a sheet of paper should be left in a closed book. Books should be kept away from heat and sunlight, and should not be stored in a place badly ventilated.

In dusting a book, brush with a cloth away from the hinge without opening. Slap two books together flatwise to jar dust out of the edges.

Paper covers are less and less popular, since such covers invite carelessness and readers have more respect for an uncovered book.

Some public libraries use a book until it gets soiled, and then cover it. If covers are used, paper is better than cloth because cheaper, and can be thrown away as soon as it becomes grimy.

Other suggestions on the care of books will be found under the topic "Instruction to Children on the Care of Books."

Public Libraries:
Kroeger, A. B. Care of books. 1900, 8:319–320.

XI. LIBRARY ASSOCIATIONS

American Library Association.—The oldest library organization is the American Library Association, generally called the A. L. A. The first convention of librarians was held in New York City in 1853. At this, little more than a preliminary meeting, the delegates decided to form a librarians' association and to issue a library manual. Dr. R. H. Guild, of Brown University, prepared *The Librarian's Manual*, which was published in 1858. The A. L. A. was not organized until 1876, in Philadelphia, during the Centennial Exposition. At the same time the *Library Journal* was founded as the official organ of A. L. A. Complete files of this periodical and of *Public Libraries* (Chicago—founded in 1896) constitute a history of the library movement in the United States for the last thirty years.

The object of the A. L. A., as stated in the constitution, is to promote the welfare of libraries in America. In addition, it aims to effect needed reforms

and improvements, to lessen the labor and expense of library administration, to utilize the experiments and experience of the profession, to promote acquaintance, and to advance librarianship as a profession.

Since 1876 annual meetings have been held in different sections of the country. International conferences were held in London in 1877 and again in 1897. In Chicago, 1893, and St. Louis, 1904, the conferences were international in character, and foreign delegates were present and on the program. At the conferences papers are read, followed by formal and informal discussions. The proceedings are printed in the *Library Journal*, and sent to all members of the association.

Any person or institution engaged in library work may become a member by paying the annual dues, $2 for individuals, $5 for institutions. At present there are about 1,500 members.

The A. L. A. has the following sections: College and Reference, Trustees, Catalog, Library Work with Children, and State Library commissions. These sections hold separate meetings during the regular sessions of the A. L. A., to discuss phases of the work in which they are particularly interested.

One of the pleasant and profitable features of each meeting is a post-conference trip taken by a limited number after the close of the regular business sessions. Traveling together in this way increases personal and professional acquaintance.

Important work has been accomplished by the A. L. A. Publishing Board. This has been greatly aided thru the generosity of Mr. Andrew Carnegie, who gave in 1902, $100,000, "the income of which is to be applied to the preparation and publication of reading-lists, indexes, and such other bibliographic and library aids as will be specially useful in the circulating libraries of this country."

LIST OF A. L. A. PUBLICATIONS, WITH ANNOTATIONS BY SPECIALISTS

Kroeger, A. B. Guide to reference books. $1.25.
Larned, J. L., ed. Literature of American history. $6.
——— Supplement for 1900–01. $1.
A. L. A. Index to general literature. $10.
Iles, George, ed. Bibliography of fine arts. 90 cents.
——— Books for girls and women. 90 cents.
Subject headings for use in dictionary catalogs. $2.
Sargent, M. E. and A. L. Reading for the young. Supplement (1890–95). 50 cents.
Cornu, Sophie, and Beer, William. List of French fiction. 5 cents.
Hewins, C. M. Books for boys and girls. 10 cents.
Swan, R. T. Paper and ink. Free.
Index to portraits. (In preparation.)

Library tracts:

Why do we need a public library? 5 cents.
2. Wire, G. E. How to start a library. 5 cents.
3. Hutchins, F. A. Traveling libraries. 5 cents.
4. Soule, C. C. Library rooms and buildings. 5 cents.
5. Cutter, C. A. Notes from the art section of a library. 5 cents.
6. Stearns, L. E. Essentials in library administration. 15 cents.
7. Hitchler, Theresa. Cataloging for small libraries. 15 cents.
8. Tarbell, M. A. A village library. 5 cents.
A. L. A. Book list (eight months). 50 cents.

Printed catalog cards:

1. For current periodical publications.
2. Bibliographic serials.
3. For various periodical sets and for books of composite authorship. (Warner library of the world's best literature.)
4. For current books on English and American history.

For information regarding these publications address the Secretary, 34 Newbury St., Boston.

Probably the most useful single book ever published for librarians is the *A. L. A. Catalog.* The preliminary edition, published by the United States Bureau of Education, was prepared in the New York State Library, as the catalog of the model library of 5,000 volumes in the library exhibit of the Columbian Exposition in Chicago, 1893.

The annotated *A. L. A. Catalog* (revised edition of the above), published by the Library of Congress, was prepared as part of the library exhibit at the Louisiana Purchase exposition, in St. Louis, 1904. This is a classed catalog of 8,000 volumes, the best in print for the average small library. It can be had of the superintendent of documents, Washington, for 50 cents; bound, $1.

The A. L. A. thru its president, Melvil Dewey, also prepared for the Library Congress a collection of "Papers on Library Economy," published by the United States Bureau of Education for the Columbian Exposition. These papers were printed and sent in advance to the members of the congress, and discussed at the conference, and are still valuable to librarians.

Fletcher. W. I. The American Library Association. (In his Public libraries in America 1894:85–92.)

Library Journal:

Dewey, Melvil. The American Library Association. 1876, 1:245–247.
Harrison, J. L. A. L. A. exhibit at Paris exposition. 1900, 25:282–283.
Library exhibits at Louisiana Purchase Exposition (including A. L. A. collection). 1904, 29:423–424.
Poole, W. F. Conference of librarians, Milwaukee, 1886: address of the president. 1886, 11:199–204. (A historical sketch of the A. L. A.)
Sharp, K. L. The A. L. A. library exhibit at the World's Fair. 1893, 18:280–284.
Woodworth, Florence. A. L. A. exhibit at Paris exposition of 1900, 25:116–119.
Work and Needs of the A. L. A. 1905, 30:858–860.

State library commissions.—A state library commission consists of five or seven members, generally appointed by the governor, but sometimes by the state board of education, and in some states are *ex officio* assignments. The state librarian and the superintendent of public instruction are usually members. With the exception of a paid secretary, all serve without salary.

The work of the commission is to promote the establishment of free public libraries by means of state aid, to give information and advice to new libraries in regard to selection and care of books and library administration, to increase the efficiency of existing libraries by gifts of money or books, or by loan of books and by personal visits to keep in touch with all libraries thruout the state. By means of traveling libraries, in charge of the commissioners, rural districts without libraries and small libraries in villages have been supplied with the books which they could not otherwise obtain.

Massachusetts has the pioneer library commission. It was organized in 1890, and has given advice on library matters in all parts of the state, and occasionally in answer to inquiries from abroad.

New Hampshire organized a state commission in 1891; New York, in 1892;[1] Connecticut, in 1893; and Vermont, in 1894.

The New York department first established the traveling-library system, and has specialized in library building and furnishing work for study clubs and library institutes. Its publications are numerous and valuable, including bibliographies and reading-lists on many subjects.

The Wisconsin commission is the pioneer in the West. It was organized in 1895 and makes special efforts in personal visitation and instruction, maintaining general and special traveling libraries, a magazine clearing-house, and a state document department. Without charge it helps to organize and classify new libraries, to reorganize old libraries and to create a desire for libraries in towns which have none. It publishes library statistics, news of library progress, lists of books for small libraries, buying-lists of current books, and lists on special subjects for special libraries.

The Wisconsin, Minnesota, Indiana, and Iowa State Library Commissions make a specialty of library instruction by means of summer schools, library extension, institutes, lectures, and correspondence.

Indiana has appointed a trained librarian and teacher to organize library work in the schools of the state.

Public Libraries:

Tyler, A. S. Instructional work of library commissions. 1905, 10:60–61. (What can be done.)

Michigan requires every commissioner of schools to make a report on library conditions to the State Library Commission for every district school and public library in his county.

Idaho sends books to lumber and mining camps.

Iowa has traveling libraries to lend to regular libraries and for general use, including books for study clubs, for young people, specific books for individuals, and books for the blind. It maintains a clearing-house for exchange of magazines, and assists in organizing local library associations.

In 1902 the State Library Commission Section of the A. L. A. was created.[1] In 1905 an application made by the League of Library Commissions for affiliation with the A. L. A. was granted.

At present (1905) twenty-three states have library commissions. Their activities have been given in tabulated form by the secretary of the league in a paper read at the A. L. A. Portland conference in 1905. He divides the work into the four groups of "Direct Aid," "Advisory," "Instruction," and "Documents;" and states that the league has planned extensive undertakings in publications intended to help libraries by making accessible the result of the knowledge and experience of specialists engaged in the work.

The character of the publications of the state library commissions depends somewhat upon the location of the state. Annual reports are issued, lists of books and circular letters are sent to farmers and to the newspapers in rural districts. Bulletins and leaflets giving statistics and information on library progress, and all kinds of book-lists for school, public, and traveling libraries, are distributed without charge.

[1] This was more than a commission, really a distinct state department.

For information on the history, organization, work, and publications of state library commissions, see—

Public Libraries:

Brigham, Johnson. Synopsis of laws authorizing library commissions. 1905, 10:83–87. (Gives organization, purpose, and state appropriation.)
Reports from state library commissions. 1905, 10:62–67.
Stearns, L. E. Traveling libraries. 1905, 10:76–81.

Library Journal:

Brigham, Johnson. A model library commission law. 1905, 30:c 46–51.
Countryman, G. A. State aid to libraries. 1904, 29:c 148–152.
——— Traveling libraries. 1905, 30:c 56–58.
Hewins, C. M. The work of an eastern library commission. 1905, 30:c 51–55.
Legler, H. E. State library commissions. 1905, 30:c 40–45.
Thomson, John. How to secure a state library commission. 1901, 26:191–192.

State library associations.—The state library associations are unofficial in character, and resemble the A. L. A. in scope and aim. Membership includes those engaged or interested in literary work.

Special efforts are made to secure the attendance of library trustees, and also of library assistants who are unable, on account of the time and expense involved, to attend A. L. A. meetings.

Where no state library commission exists, the state association frequently undertakes the work of the commission, securing the enactment of library laws, circulating traveling libraries, holding library institutes, encouraging co-operation, and in general promoting library interests thruout the state.

One or several meetings are held during the year, and handbooks and book-lists are published. New York has the oldest state association. It was organized in 1890, and holds a largely attended "Library Week" each September at Lake Placid, at which papers are read and addresses made, followed by informal discussions. Other states than New York are represented, and the meeting is second only to the A. L. A. The association carries on institute work, publishes co-operative book-lists, watches library legislation, undertakes general oversight of professional library training, and has a committee on publicity to promote intelligent use of the local press for library advertising in small communities.

Each state association, of which there are now thirty-one, has accomplished similar work, modified by local conditions, and is planning to accomplish more in the future.

Local library clubs.—The local library clubs, city and state, are like the state associations, except that their interests are confined to a smaller territory. Meetings, informal in character, are held several times during the year, and special efforts are made to promote acquaintance among librarians and to advance library interests in that particular vicinity. The clubs usually publish a handbook or manual, and several have issued other publications of local importance.

New York is again the pioneer in this form of library organization. The city founded the first library club in 1885, five years before the state association was formed. The New York Library Club published in 1887 a *Union List of*

Periodicals in New York libraries, and in 1902 *Libraries of Greater New York*, in which are given the history, regulations, and resources of the New York public and institutional libraries.

The Chicago Library Club issued in 1901 a list of periodicals in Chicago libraries. Other clubs publish book-lists, bulletins, etc. There are at present twenty-one local library clubs in the United States.

The proceedings of the state commissioners, associations, and clubs are published in the *Library Journal* and *Public Libraries* during the year. An alphabetic list of these organizations with the name and address of the secretary is given in the *A. L. A. Handbook*.

Library Journal:

Green, H. E. Tabulated reports of state library associations. 1891, 16:52–56.

Dana, J. C. What state and local library associations can do for library interests. 1905, 30:c17–26. (Followed by a list of associations and clubs, American and foreign. For each association are given the name and address of the secretary, date of establishment, amount of dues, number of members, and meetings during the year, publications, and special work.)

Jones, G. M. State and other local clubs and meetings. 1898, 23:138–139.

Tillinghast, W. H. The field of work in state and local clubs. 1898, 23:519–521.

Public Libraries:

Farrar, I. F. How shall the program for a state library association be made up to be of the most use to the librarians of small libraries? 1902, 7:363–365.

Library schools.—The first school for training of librarians was established by Melvil Dewey in 1887 at Columbia College, New York. Two years later it was removed to Albany and became the New York State Library School, with Mr. Dewey as director; which position he held until January, 1906.

Other library schools are: Pratt Institute Library School, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Mary W. Plummer, director. University of Illinois Library School, Champaign, Ill.; Katherine L. Sharp, director. Drexel Institute Library School, Philadelphia, Pa.; A. B. Kroeger, director. Carnegie Library Training School for Children's Librarians, Pittsburg, Pa.; Frances J. Olcott, director. Simmons College Library Training Course, Boston, Mass.; Mary E. Robbins, instructor. Western Reserve University Library School, Cleveland, Ohio; W. H. Brett, dean. Southern Library School, Atlanta, Ga.; Anne Wallace, director.

Summer library schools are conducted by the Chautauqua Assembly, Indiana Public Library Commission, New York State Library School, and the Universities of Wisconsin, Iowa, and Minnesota.

APPENDIX

USEFUL BOOKS [1]

Salisbury, G. E. Library methods for school teachers. 1903. Whitewater, Wis.: Published by author. 25 cents.

Intended to help teachers who have had no library training, and who may be called upon to supervise school libraries.

Stearns, L. E. Essentials in library administration. 1905. (A. L. A. Library Tract, No. 6.) 10½ Beacon St., Boston. 15 cents.

Covers all details of library organization in a thoro and systematic manner. A list of necessary library supplies is given, together with addresses of library supply firms, and a list of books on library literature The suggestions are extremely helpful.

[1] Reference-books and articles on Specific Topics have been cited under such topics

Milner, A. V. The formation and care of school libraries. Published by the Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Ill.

Baylor University (Waco, Tex.). Public school libraries. 1905. (Bulletin 8, No. 1.)

Dana, J. C. A library primer. 1903. Chicago Library Bureau. $1.

This book should be in every school or public library.

Plummer, M. W. Hints to small libraries. 1894. New York. Lane. 50 cents.

Denver Public Library Handbook. 1895. Carson-Harper Co. 65 cents.

Dewey, Melvil, ed. Simplified library school rules. 1898. Library Bureau. $1.25.

Includes definitions, abbreviations, card-catalog rules, accession and shelf-list rules, book numbers, capitals, and punctuation.

Library Recipes (in Library Notes, 1895, Vol. IV, No. 15). Library Bureau. 50 cents.

Compilation of useful information in regard to mending, cleaning, pasting, etc.

U. S. Bureau of Education. Papers prepared for the World's Library Congress, held at the Columbian Exposition, edited by Melvil Dewey. 1896. Free.

Each branch of library economy is discussed by an expert, followed by a selected bibliography.

Pratt Institute Library (Brooklyn). Reading list in library science. 1902. Boston Book Co. 10 cents.

Library Journal (monthly). New York; published since 1876. $4 a year.

Public Libraries (10 months). Chicago; published since 1896. $1 a year.

"Libraries." New International Encyclopedia, Vol. II, 1902. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

—— Encyclopedia Americana, Vol. IX, 1904. New York: American Book Co.

ARTICLES IN PERIODICALS

Library Journal:

Adams, E. L. Library work with schools. 1898, 23:137.

Bolton, C. K. Library examinations in schools. 1895, 20:122.

Chamberlain, Mellen. Public libraries and public schools. 1880, 5:299.

Coe, E. M. Relation of libraries to public schools. 1892, 17:193.

Cole, G. W. How teachers should co-operate with librarians. 1895, 20:115.

Comstock, M. E. The library as an educational factor. 1896, 21:147.

Crunden, F. M. Relation of libraries and schools. 1904, 29:c 5.

Crunden, F. M., and Blanchard, C. A. Reading by school children and college students. 1888, 13:89.

Cutter, C. A. Supervision of children's library use. 1898, 23:149.

Dana, J. C. Libraries and teachers. 1896, 21:133.

Davidson, Charles. Library work in schools. 1899, 24:150.

Doren, E. C. School libraries. 1897, 22:190.

Dousman, M. E. Children's departments. 1896, 21:406.

Druar, Margaret. The public library as an aid in the school room. 1899, 24:143.

Fairchild, E. M., and Adams, L, A. Methods of children's library work as determined by the needs of the children. 1897, 22:c 19.

Foerste, A. F. Public school and the public library. 1897, 22:341.

Foster, W. E. How to use the public library: suggestions for the use of pupils, 1879, 4:447.

Gilbert, C. B. The public library and the public school. 1904, 29:169.

Green, S. S. Library aids. 1881, 6:104.

——— A bibliography of library science.

——— Aids and guides for readers. 1882, 7:145.

——— Report on libraries and schools. 1883, 8:229.

Hardy, G. E. The school library as a factor in education. 1889, 14:343.

Harris, W. T. Function of the library and the school in education. 1890, 15:27.

Hewins, C. M. Yearly report on boys' and girls' reading. 1882, 7:182.

Merington, Margaret. How may we make the guiding of pupils' reading a part of the teacher's work? 1895, 20:119.

——— Public libraries and public schools. 1887, 12:156.

New York Library Club. Relation of libraries to public schools. 1892, 17:204.

Olcott, F. J. Work with children at the Carnegie library of Pittsburg. 1900, 23:166.

Plummer, M. W. The work for children in free public libraries. 1897, 22:697.

Library Journal (continued):
Pratt Institute (Brooklyn) Children's department. 1898, 23:579.
Reports upon lending books to schools. 1891, 16:104.
Sanders, M. A. Relation of the public library to the school. 1889, 14:79.
Sawin, J. M. Some successful methods of developing children's interest in good literature. 1895, 20:377.
Stimson, Rev. H. A. Boys and books. 1884, 9:142.
Thurston, E. P. How can the character of the reading be improved? 1891, 16:47.
Tripp, G. N. Can the public library and the public school be mutually helpful? 1904, 29:173.
Van Sickle, J. H. Libraries in the school room. 1896, 21:152.
Work between libraries and schools. 1897, 22:181.
Young. The public library and the public school. 1896, 21:140.

Public Libraries:
Bishop, W. W. School libraries and public libraries. 1896, 1:94.
Cheener, W. H. Use and abuse of school libraries. 1897, 2:349.
Co-operation between schools and libraries. 1898, 3:154.
Dewey, Melvil. New library department of the N. E. A. 1896, 1:183.
Dodge, Virginia. The library and the school. 1898, 3:353.
Doring, F. W. How we use the library. 1903, 8:104.
Eastman, L. A. The children's room. 1898, 3:417.
English, M. F. Classification of school libraries. 1897, 2:351.
Folsom, Channing. How can and should the library assist the school? 1898, 3:164.
Haney, J. D. How shall the public libraries help the high school? 1902, 7:224.
Hoag, J. P. Co-operation of the public library and public school (Ontario). 1904, 9:225.
Lindsay, M. B. A children's corner in a small library. 1899, 4:142.
Lyman, Edna. Children's room at Scoville Institute. 1899, 4:9.
Mackenzie, Davis. The public school and the public library. 1897, 2:423.
Mercer, Martha. Relation of school and library. 1898, 3:405.
Miller, Marie. Schools and libraries. 1896, 1:89.
Parsons, John. The library and the school. 1896, 1:313.
Pratt, J. A. The library and the children. 1898, 3:77.
Schreiber, M. E. Co-operation between librarian and teacher. 1897, 2:2.
Stearns, L. E. Educational force of children's reading. 1897, 2:6.
Williams, Sherman. In regard to reading. 1899, 4:57.
Wright, P. B. Relation of the library to the public school. 1899, 4:11.
Young people and the school. 1896, 1:81.

N. E. A. Proceedings:
Dana, J. C. The librarian and the teachers. 1899:519.
Holland, E. O. The library as an adjunct to the secondary school. 1903:961.

Outlook:
Bissell, F. S. What the libraries are doing for children. 1902, 72:420.
Crunden, F. M. The public library a paying investment. 1903, 73:494.

New England Magazine:
Orr, William. Public school, library and museum. N. S. 1896. 15:245.

Atlantic Monthly:
Scudder, H. E. American classics in school. 1887, 60:85.
——— Educational law of reading and writing. 1894, 73:252.
Warner, C. D. The novel and the common school. 1890, 65:721.
Tomlinson, E. T. Reading for boys and girls. 1900, 86:693.

Contemporary Review:
Weisse, H. V. Reading for the young. 1901, 79:829.

American Monthly Review of Reviews:
Elmendorf, H, L. Some things a boy of seventeen should have had an opportunity to read. 1903, 28:713.

SUMMARY OF STATE LAWS RELATING TO SCHOOL LIBRARIES

Whenever available, the latest edition of the school law has been consulted, generally the statutes of 1902 or 1903.

For recent changes see Comparative Summary and Index of Legislation, published annually by the New York State Library.

ALABAMA.—Has no school-library law.

ARKANSAS.—Has no school-library law.

ARIZONA.—Allows $50 a year to every school district, provided it contains 100 children. The state superintendent (Report, 1902) deplores the fact that only $357.55 had been spent during the year for school libraries. The law specifies that the libraries are to be kept in the schoolhouses when practicable, and may be used by residents of the district upon payment of an annual or monthly fee.

CALIFORNIA.—Grants to each rural district 10 per cent. of its share of the county school fund, provided amount does not exceed $50. In cities, for every 1,000 children $50 is allowed. Residents may use school library by payment of a life membership, or an annual or monthly fee, amount not specified. A fee of $2 paid for a teacher's certificate constitutes the teachers' institute and library fund. Fifty per cent. of this may be spent for a teachers' library. In school districts from 5 to 10 per cent. of the county school fund may be used for this purpose, provided the amount does not exceed $50. In case there are five or more teachers in one school, $10 to $15 is allowed for each teacher. The state superintendent is authorized to make lists of books suitable for school libraries. The trustees or board of education make rules and regulations for the organization and administration of the libraries.

COLORADO.—Grants an annual tax of one-tenth of a mill for the support of school libraries, which are open to the public under regulations established by the district school board.

CONNECTICUT.—Grants $10 to every school district, and to every town maintaining a high school, which raises by tax or otherwise a like sum to establish a school library; also an additional $5 annually on same conditions, for maintaining and replenishing such a library. If the number of pupils exceeds 100, the treasurer shall pay $10 in the first instance, and $5 annually thereafter for every 100 or fractional part of 100 pupils in excess of the first 100. The school board must approve selection of books and regulations for use. The public-library committee (State Library Commission) shall advise and assist in selection, purchase, and cataloguing of books, and in maintenance and administration of school libraries, and shall lend them books and pictures.

DELAWARE.—Pays $100 annually to the chairman of the committee on traveling libraries of the state Federation of Women's Clubs, to be used for buying books (and cases) to circulate among public schools.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.—Provides a certain amount annually for contingent school expenses, including books of reference, periodicals, etc.

FLORIDA.—Authorizes the Board of Public Instruction to appoint a librarian to have charge of the school library, to make it available to inhabitants of the neighborhood, and to change books from one library to another. School trustees may spend for school libraries or other educational purposes the fund raised by a tax of three mills on the dollar annually.

GEORGIA.—Has no school-library law. Libraries have been started, however, in different parts of the state thru efforts of teachers and women's clubs. Committees have been appointed to select books suitable for rural school libraries, and efforts have been made to pass a library bill which will give a permanent fund.

IDAHO.—Imposes a tax, not exceeding one mill on the dollar, for establishing libraries in connection with public schools. The State Library Commission gives advice and counsel to all free libraries and public-school libraries, to aid in organizing new libraries or improving those already established.

ILLINOIS.—Authorizes school directors to appropriate, for buying libraries, any school funds remaining after all necessary school expenses are paid.

INDIANA.—Authorizes establishment of free libraries in connection with the common schools and permits a tax of one mill on the dollar. For establishing common-school

libraries in cities of 30,000 population a tax is granted of 25 cents on $100; in cities of from 35,000 to 40,000, 5 cents on $100.

IOWA.—Grants from the school fund not less than 5 cents or more than 15 cents for each person of school age in each school district. The State Board of Examiners prepares lists of books, and rules for administration of school libraries. The secretary of the board of education acts as librarian.

KANSAS.—Grants a tax, not exceeding two mills on the dollar, for library purposes. Where taxable property is more than $20,000, the tax is one and one-half mills; where more than $30,000, one mill; where more than $50,000, one-half mill. The board of directors must buy books on history, biography, science, and travel.

KENTUCKY.—Grants power to the Board of Education to establish and maintain a public library out of any funds except that received by taxation or from state funds. The board will make all rules and regulations governing such libraries.

LOUSIANA.—Has no school-library law.

MAINE.—Has no school-library law.

MARYLAND.—Grants $10 to each school district annually, provided the people in that district raise the same amount. The library must be in charge of a teacher, and books must be selected from lists furnished by the State Board of Education. The State Library Commission must give advice to public-school libraries as to selection, cataloguing, and other details, and help in organizing new or improving old libraries. It must organize and conduct traveling libraries, and may borrow from state libraries. The commission is allowed $1,000 annually for such purposes.

MASSACHUSETTS.—Has no school law relating to school libraries. The Board of Free Public Library Commissioners may give $100 to a free public library in a town of $600,000 valuation, if the trustees have rendered the library useful to the teachers and scholars of the public schools in such town. Trustees are authorized to use 25 per cent. of the school fund for buying books of reference, maps, and apparatus.

MICHIGAN.—Grants the establishment of a district-school library which shall be entitled to its just proportion of books from the township library, and also to its share of library moneys; the school inspectors to have charge of the township libraries and of all library moneys. The proceeds of all fines for any breach of the penal laws, for penalties in criminal proceedings, and for exemption from military duty must be apportioned among the several townships according to the number of children, and applied to township and district libraries.

MINNESOTA.—Empowers the state superintendent, and the presidents of the five state normal schools, to prepare lists of books suitable for school libraries; to include books of reference, history, biography, literature, political economy, agriculture, travel and natural science; and to make contracts for buying such books. The law provides for care of books, appointment of librarian, and for suitable rules. For one-half of the amount spent for such purposes each school district may make a requisition upon the state auditor. No district must receive more than $20 on first statement, nor more than $10 on any subsequent statement. The fund is $10,000 annually, or so much thereof as may be necessary to meet the provisions of this act. Any village may contribute to the school library, or other school purposes, all or a percentage of the license money received from persons selling intoxicating liquors.

MISSISSIPPI.—Has no school-library law.

MISSOURI.—Authorizes school boards to use from school funds not less than 5 nor more than 20 cents per pupil enumerated in the district each year, which shall be spent for books selected from lists compiled by the State Library Board.

MONTANA.—Grants for a library fund a tax of not less than 5 nor more than 10 per cent. of the county school fund, provided that such percentage does not exceed $50. In cities of 2,000 or more the library fund must not exceed $50 for every 500 children

of school age. Books must be selected from lists made by superintendent of public instruction. School trustees make library rules and regulations.

NEBRASKA.—Has a public-library tax only, of two mills on the dollar.

NEVADA.—Has no school-library law. School trustees may appropriate from school funds for library books; but unfortunately, from motives of economy, have so far failed to do this. The superintendent of public instruction, in his report for 1901–2, urges the legislature to appropriate from $5 to $100 for each school for library purposes.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.—Has no school-library law.

NEW JERSEY.—Grants $20 to any district which raises by tax, or in any other way, a like sum, to establish a school library, and the further sum of $10 annually on same condition. Books are to be selected and approved as the State Board of Education may direct. If there is more than one schoolhouse in a district, school libraries may consolidate. One hundred dollars is granted to establish a pedagogic library for teachers, if a like sum is raised, and not less than $50 nor more than $100 annually thereafter on same conditions. The county superintendent and three teachers shall constitute a county committee, to select and buy books and apparatus for such library, and to make rules and regulations for use and management.

NEW YORK.—Grants to each school district an amount equal to that raised from taxation or other sources for library purposes; and appropriates $100,000 annually under this law, besides $50,000 for high-school libraries. The school library must not be used as a circulating library except to teachers, school officers, and pupils. Any public library may collect the books from any district library which has not been in charge of a librarian within one year. New York is the pioneer state in establishing school libraries. The first sum for this purpose was appropriated in 1838.

NORTH CAROLINA.—Appropriates every two years $5,000 for establishing rural school libraries and $2,500 for adding to libraries already established. For every $10 provided by the state the community must provide $10 and the county $10 in addition, with which to start a library; and $15 may be secured, on similar terms, for an enlargement of this library.

NORTH DAKOTA.—Appropriates $750 annually for district school libraries, to be circulated as traveling libraries. The state superintendent prepares lists of suitable books, with lowest prices indicated, and makes all rules and regulations. The district school board may appropriate not less than $10 and not more than $25 for each school library.

OHIO.—Authorizes establishment of public libraries in connection with public schools, and buying books other than school (text) books for a school library.

OKLAHOMA.—Grants from the district school fund, for the use of a school library, from $5 to $100, according to number of teachers employed. The county board of examiners shall furnish each county superintendent a list of reference and literary books, with list-price and cost-price of each, and the order of purchase designated. He shall furnish additional lists at stated periods for future purchases.

OREGON.—Levies, for district school libraries, a tax of not less than 10 cents for each child (in the county) between four and twenty years of age. Each district receives its share according to number of children. The books bought are selected from lists prepared by the state Board of Education. The school library must be kept in the school house, and the teachers are responsible for its proper care and protection.

RHODE ISLAND.—Grants authority to towns and school districts to appropriate such money for support of school libraries "as they shall judge necessary."

SOUTH CAROLINA.—Has no school-library law.

SOUTH DAKOTA.—Reserves from the school fund an amount equal to 10 cents for each person of school age as a library fund. Books are selected from state superintendents' lists. The clerk of the school district acts as librarian, with a teacher in each

school to represent him. The libraries "travel" in a circuit consisting of not more than ten schools.

TENNESSEE.—Has no school-library law.

TEXAS.—Has no school-library law. The school libraries, of which there are over 5,000 in the state, were started and maintained by local taxation or by funds realized from entertainments. The State Library Association has been very active, and the Women's Federation has established fifty-seven traveling libraries in rural districts.

UTAH.—Grants power to school boards to establish and support school libraries.

VERMONT.—Has no school-library law, but the Board of Library Commissioners maintains and circulates some traveling libraries selected for the use of schools.

VIRGINIA.—Has no school-library law.

WASHINGTON.—Grants a tax of one-tenth of a mill on one dollar for a school-library fund. The State Board of Education recommends books suitable for a pupils' circulating library and for a pupils' and teachers' reading-circle. Pupils of the eighth grade must read at least one of the reading-circle books before graduating.

WEST VIRGINIA.—Has no school-library law.

WISCONSIN.—Grants from school funds an amount equal to 10 cents for each person of school age, as a school-library fund. Books are selected from lists made by the state superintendent. The law prescribes all rules and regulations for administration of school libraries.

WYOMING.—Grants the establishment of public libraries in connection with schools. The tax is not less than one-eighth of a mill nor more than one-half of a mill on the dollar. A suitable place without rent must be furnished by the community. A schoolroom may be used for the library, and it must be free to all residents of the county.

Patten, F. C. Library Legislation (in Dana, J. C., Library primer, 1903, 147–151). (*Relates to public libraries.*)

MEMORIAL ADDRESSES

JOHN EATON

BY REVEREND SHELDON JACKSON, WASHINGTON, D. C.

Among the prominent men of the United States, whose lives have touched and elevated large masses of men and whose influence on humanity is world-wide, is Rev. John Eaton, Ph.D., LL.D., clergyman, soldier, philanthropist, journalist, educator, and statesman.

General Eaton, as he was familiarly called, was born in the township of Sutton, Merimac County, New Hampshire, December 5, 1829. He was the eldest of nine children of a prosperous farmer, John Eaton and his wife Janet Andrews. One of his paternal ancestors, Lieutenant Nathaniel Eaton (his superior officers having been killed or wounded), led his company in a charge at Bunker Hill. On his mother's side he was descended from Scotch-Irish stock.

He commenced attending school when a little over three years of age; but the necessities of the family required that in his fifth year, when able to ride a horse in ploughing, he should begin work. Thereafter, according to the custom of the times, he worked on the farm from spring to fall and attended school during a few weeks in winter. Encouraged by his mother he availed himself of odd moments and evenings for study. He knew what it was to walk eight miles on Sunday, when released from farm toil, to borrow a text-book. He mastered the elements of Latin and chemistry after bed time, and commenced the study of the natural sciences while drawing wood to market with an ox team. His physical development depended not upon athletics but hard manual work to assist in getting an education.

At sixteen years of age, he himself became teacher of a district school during the winter term, when he could be spared from the farm. His mother dying soon after, he was accustomed to spend his Sundays at home, helping his sister in the care of the younger children.

Essaying to secure a college course, he worked his way, with limited help from his father, thru Thetford Academy, Vermont, then in charge of Dr. Hiram Orcutt; and thru Dartmouth College, graduating in 1854, with only three cents in his possession.

He had already felt the call to the gospel ministry, but delayed attendance at a theological seminary until he could replenish his finances.

Securing the position of principal of a ward school in Cleveland, Ohio, he spent from 1854–56 in that city. His success at Cleveland led to his appointment as superintendent of the public schools of Toledo, Ohio, which position he held from 1856–59. This was his first independent command,

and it gave him the opportunity to show his great executive ability. He impressed upon his teachers the need of the more exact classification of studies and the importance of the more thoro mental training of their pupils. At the same time he began to work out the sociological questions of public instruction thru the collection and analysis of statistics.

In 1859 he resigned the superintendency of schools in Toledo to enter Andover Theological Seminary as a candidate for the ministry. During his three years at Toledo he employed all his spare time in the study of theology. Accordingly, upon entering the seminary he was able to crowd the usual three years' course into two.

In September 1861 he was ordained to the gospel ministry by the presbytery of Maumee, Ohio, but he never held a pastorate. The same fall he enlisted in the army and was commissioned chaplain of the twenty-seventh Ohio Volunteer Infantry. This regiment was recruited at Toledo and was composed of many of the personal friends and former pupils of Chaplain Eaton.

The regiment was sent to join General Fremont's command in Missouri. While in Missouri Chaplain Eaton was twice taken prisoner. At Lexington, Mo., he won the respect and friendship of his captors to such an extent that upon their invitation he preached to the Confederate soldiers on the Sabbaths he was with them. He was also under fire with General Pope at New Madrid. From Missouri he was sent with his regiment to join General Grant in Tennessee, and took part in the desperate battle at Corinth.

In Tennessee a brigade of Ohio and Missouri regiments was formed with Colonel Fuller in command, and Rev. John Eaton, acting chaplain of the brigade. He was also made sanitary inspector for the brigade.

In October, 1863, he was commissioned colonel of the Ninth Regiment of U. S. Colored Volunteers of Louisiana (afterward reorganized as the Sixty-third Regiment U. S. Colored Infantry), and at the close of the war, upon the recommendation of General Grant, he was commissoned March 13, 1865, brigadier-general of volunteers by brevet for valuable services during the war.

His devotion and zeal to his work, his strong common-sense, his tact in dealing with all classes of men in and out of the army, Union and Confederate, his wonderful power of organization, were attracting the attention of his superior officers, and a career was opening to him that made his name known in all lands as a philanthropist.

President Lincoln in his emancipation proclamation (1862) opened the door to the slaves of the South, and a few months later in the providence of God, Chaplain Eaton was selected by General Grant as the "Moses" who should lead the negroes from the "house of bondage" to freedom. And it was his work that was the beginning of the Freedmen's Bureau and gave form to Congressional legislation for the negroes in their transition from slavery to freedom, and from freedom to citizenship. It was the first official recog-

nition by the government of the United States of its responsibility for the welfare of the escaped slaves and the negroes, who had deserted their plantations, or had been abandoned by their owners upon the approach of the Union forces.

In his *Memoirs* written just before his death, General Grant, referring to General Eaton's organization of the Contrabands in connection with the Army of the Tennessee in 1862–3 and 4, writes: "It was at this point, probably, where the first idea of a Freedmen's Bureau took its origin" (Vol. I, p. 424).[1]

THE EDUCATOR

In November, 1862, General Eaton was placed in charge of three-quarters of a million of helpless, ignorant, escaped slaves, and as fast as the Union army extended its lines he established schools for them. The teachers were largely devoted men and women, experienced and successful teachers from the North.

In the winter of 1862–63, General Eaton provided a tent to be used as a schoolhouse in the city of Memphis, Tenn., and employed a woman to teach the negroes.

In 1863–64 he caused other schools to be opened in Vicksburg, Natchez, Little Rock, Pine Bluff, and other places within the Union lines, having in all 13,320 pupils.

With the opening of army schools for negroes, the leading Christian denominations of the North commenced church schools among them. The church schools also were supervised and systematized by General Eaton. As the Union army advanced, the few public schools for white children came under military control and were likewise directed by him.

This was the commencement of the American common-school system in the South, which in succeeding years closed with the incorporation in the revised constitution of every reconstructed southern state, of a provision for the establishment of public schools, and the education of all children, without distinction of race or color. General Eaton lived to see the day when six million, one hundred thousand, one hundred and twenty-nine white and black children in the southern states were being educated at the expense of the states themselves.

State superintendent.—In 1867 General Eaton was elected superintendent of public instruction for the state of Tennessee. This gave him an opportunity of setting in operation and enforcing the new school laws, which he had largely been instrumental in pushing thru the state legislature. These laws were so far in advance of the public sentiment of the times in that section, that they encountered bitter opposition. Tennessee with its large body of native loyalists became the strategic state during reconstruction days, and

[1] For lack of space it is found necessary to omit a graphic account of General Eaton's distinguished ervices in organizing the work of the Freedmen's Bureau in the Southwest. For a full account see *Annual Report of the U. S. Commissioner of Education*, 1900–01, chap. xi, pp. 424–34.

the fighting ground for common schools in the South for both whites and blacks. With society torn and separated into warring factions, with whole communities bitterly opposed to the education of the negroes, and without adequate funds, General Eaton, with his indomitable push and rare constructive abilities, organized and maintained during the two years of his superintendency free public schools in Tennessee with 185,000 white and black children in attendance. When his dominating influence ceased at the close of his administration as superintendent, the "Eaton System," as it was called, was swept out of existence by the state legislature repealing the law of 1867. This reaction had been anticipated by General Eaton, who in his annual report for 1869 to the governor of Tennessee, writes: "No state in the Union is now satisfied without an efficient system of free public schools. If this one, which has been inaugurated at such cost and with such care, is destroyed in Tennessee, it will necessarily be revived. It must be. Nothing can prevent it in any American state." The prophecy was true. The system was temporarily checked, but with the advancement of an enlightened public sentiment in the state it was in its essential features afterward readopted.

Dr. A. D. Mayo, LL.D., summing up the work of General Eaton in education in the South, both as military commander of the freedmen, assistant commissioner of the Freedmen's Bureau, as superintendent of instruction for the state of Tennessee, and afterward as United States commissioner of education, writes:[1]

> For more than twenty years, from 1862 to 1882, no man in the United States contributed more to the final establishment and increasing importance of the common-school system in the South than he. It would be difficult to name an important movement affecting that section of the country in which he was not deeply interested, and, oftener than was suspected, he was the most effectual personage in its direction and success. . . . . In all legislation affecting the South he was afterward in frequent consultation with the most influential public men. . . . . Whatever may have come of his tremendous labors and those of his faithful assistants during these early years, working under a military supervision, it can not be reasonably doubted that any competent reader of the educational literature thrown up in this period, with the commentary of subsequent events, will be forced to acknowledge that then and there was laid a permanent foundation for the new departure of a system of common schools in the South. . . . .
>
> Numbers of the best men and women who have honored the country by their great labors in this field of Southern education were either "effectually called" or reliably aided by the hearty co-operation and genuine interest of General Eaton.

United States Commissioner of Education.—This brings General Eaton to the great crowning work of his life. The work for which, all unconsciously to himself, he had been in training for twenty-five years.

He had commenced in a small country school in New England, had become principal of a large city school with its more complex problems, then superintendent of city schools with greater problems, had then entered upon the three years' life-and-death struggle as military commander of the

[1] "Common Schools in the South, 1861–76," *Annual Report of the Commissioner of Education*, 1900–1901, chap. xi, pp. 424–34.

"Army of the Contrabands," had afterward served as assistant commissioner of the Freedmen's Bureau, and finally as superintendent of public instruction in a state still distracted by the desolate homes, ruined fortunes, and bitter feuds of the Civil War. He had opened the door of the "little red schoolhouse" to hundreds of thousands of negroes just emerging from the "house of bondage" and ignorance, and to the millions of whites and blacks yet to be born. He had been drilled in the practical work of school-keeping, superintendence, and organization. He had been led of God steadily forward and upward thru a range of experiences that had never been given to any other, until he was prepared to shoulder the educational affairs of a nation and of the world.

On March 4, 1869, General Grant was inaugurated president of the United States, and finding that Dr. Henry Barnard, commissioner of education, desired to resign, the President availed himself of the opportunity of bringing General Eaton to Washington, where he could confer with him from time to time. Accordingly, on March 16, 1870, General Eaton was appointed U. S. Commissioner of Education.

On March 2, 1867, Congress created the Department of Education, and Dr. Henry Barnard was appointed commissioner. But the fear of dangerous centralization was so great in the public mind that in 1870 the office was changed from a department to a bureau and attached to the Department of the Interior.

The annual appropriation for its maintenance was reduced from $20,000 to $6,000, and the working force consisted of the commissioner with two clerks of low grade. Its usefulness was still further curtailed by the failure of Congress to print its reports. The very existence of the bureau itself was threatened.

The possibility of being able to build up a National Bureau of Education that should take the first rank as an educational force not only in the United States but also in Europe and the world, with but meager appropriations, and with still less power to enforce its requests, was the problem to be solved by the phenomenal power of organization and the indomitable energy of General Eaton. He at once placed himself in sympathetic relations with the friends of the movement in Congress and the educational associations of the country. Thru them he secured a larger appropriation from Congress, more clerks, and of a higher grade.

He drew to the support of the office the leading educators both North and South, as well as successive generations of congressmen. Ex-Senator Blair of New Hampshire once said of him: "He was always seeking out new men as they came to Washington and charging them with great ideas."

The school system of the country was in the hands of the state authorities, and in those days was managed with but little attention to system. There was no concert of action between the states, no uniformity of reporting statistics. His was the task of uniforming the diverse systems of thirty-three

states and a dozen territories and placing on record for the first time the condition of American education. He prepared blanks for the collection of a uniform system of school statistics from the thousands of town, county, city, and state superintendents of instruction; from colleges, technical and other institutions of learning, public, private, and religious; from libraries and museums. These statistical blanks were mailed, and in due time were filled out and returned by thousands of correspondents who had caught the enthusiasm of the commissioner and freely gave their time without pay to furnishing the statistics necessary for the accurate study of educational progress and problems.

These statistics were tabulated in the Commissioner's *Annual Report* to the Secretary of the Interior, printed by Congress, and sent broadcast to leading educators and educational circles. They were largely sought after by the thinkers of the world.

With reference to the collecting and disseminating of authoritative facts upon which important deductions can be based, Dr. William T. Harris, who succeeded General Eaton as commissioner, has said:

> General Eaton was the true founder of this Bureau, in the sense that he established as the chief work of this Bureau, the annual collection of statistics by means of statistical schedules, which were sent to all institutions and all general officers to be filled out and returned to the Commissioner from year to year. In this way he trained educators to keep original records of their operations and made these records available for analysis and comparison.

From the first he sought to make the Bureau a great national "clearing-house" of educational information.

But while thus diligent and untiring in disseminating information of the work of the schools and higher institutions of learning, he was not willing to confine the scope of his office to them exclusively. In his first annual report he took the stand that education extended from birth to the grave.

> In this ideal every educable force, whether affecting body or mind, in childhood or age, of the individual or communities would have its appropriate place. Education must lift this conception up before the people.

He always kept before him the fact that he was not dealing primarily with abstract theories, but with men, women, and children, whom it was his duty to help. He sought to bring the best standards into direct relations with the existing daily needs of the people. Moving along these lines his commissionership was crowded with successful enlargements of the educational field.

Space prevents the record of each of these extensions of educational work in detail. Suffice it to mention that he early advocated and promoted with all his energy the establishment of kindergärten; the introduction of domestic science, industrial and manual training, into public schools; the creation of commercial, agricultural, art, and nurse-training schools; the higher educa-

tion of women; schools for the blind and feeble-minded, and technical schools of all kinds; free libraries, and school savings-banks.

He gave valuable aid and encouragement to General Samuel C. Armstrong in his school for Indians and negroes at Hampton, Va., to General R. H. Pratt, U. S. A., in his Indian school at Carlisle, Pa., to Dr. Sheldon Jackson in bringing before the public the importance of educating the Eskimo and other natives of Alaska, and to many others engaged in similar work.

He was a pioneer in the now universal custom of utilizing the great national and international expositions for the purpose of educating the public and increasing the popular interests in education. He represented the Department of the Interior at the Centennial Exposition in 1876, the educational interests of the United States at the International Exposition at Vienna, Austria, in 1873; he was prominent in connection with educational affairs at the Louisville Exposition of 1883–84, was chief of the Department of Education at the World's Cotton Exposition at New Orleans 1884–85, secured educational representation of foreign countries and was president of the International Congress of Education at the New Orleans Exposition. He was also the representative of the Department of the Interior at the World's Columbian Exposition in 1893.

Following along the lines indicated by Horace Mann in his fifth report (1841), "Illiteracy and Crime," "Education and Industry," General Eaton published a series of articles on the relation of education to industrial activities and the general advancement of the wage earner.

Among the great efforts of his commissionership was unquestionably the attempt to secure national aid to education. With President Grant, Senator Hoar, and other far-seeing statesmen, he firmly believed "that only an adequate provision for universal education by Congress could justify the fifteenth amendment, or avert the menace from ignorance and greed which demoralizes our political and social life today." Accordingly he supported, with all his remarkable power, Senator Henry W. Blair of New Hampshire, the leader of the bill during the ten years' struggle (1880–90) in Congress. This is said to have been "one of the most brilliant legislative efforts ever made in this country." Three times the measure successfully passed the Senate, and would undoubtedly have passed the House of Representatives if the opposition had not prevented its coming to a vote. A masterly array of figures and statistical tables in its behalf was prepared under General Eaton's personal supervision. Altho the bill failed to become a law, yet the debate profoundly stirred and enlightened the whole country and will yet bear fruit.

But the sphere of General Eaton's influence on education was not confined to the United States. It was world-wide. Foreigners who came from older countries to study the marvelous growth of the United States recognized that one of the leading causes was its school system, and they eagerly sought conferences with General Eaton. Education in every nation in Europe

was more or less influenced, changed and helped by the example and success of American schools. The annual reports and bulletins issued by him, were eagerly studied in foreign lands by leading educators who sought the latest and best methods of education.

In recognition of his great service to the cause of public education General Eaton was tendered an honorary membership in the French "Ministry of Public Instruction," which he declined, as it was not then considered proper for American officials to accept "decorations" from foreign governments. At an "International Congress of Education" held at Havre, France, he was elected and served as vice-president. The Department of Education of England also sought his advice, and he had a personal conference with her leading educational officers. Upon his two visits to Europe, as the representative of the United States to various international conventions, crowned heads, scientific and educational organizations gave him marked attention. Visiting Rome, the king of Italy sent his royal carriage, and deputed his minister of foreign affairs to meet General Eaton upon his arrival at the railway depot, escort him to his hotel, and afterward show him the city. Royal decorations were offered him, which he declined. His counsel was sought not only by the most highly civilized nations of the world, but also by those just emerging from barbarism. When the governments of Japan, South Africa, Egypt, Bulgaria, Brazil,[1] Columbia, Peru, Chili, and Argentina awoke to the importance of educating the masses, they solicited General Eaton to map out for them suitable school systems and assist them in finding the agents and teachers, who should be selected to set these systems in operation.

These labors undermined his health, and in November, 1886, against the wishes of the President, he felt compelled to resign his commissionership. In 1870 the Bureau had two clerks of low grade, 100 volumes in its library, $6,000 for its maintenance, and no reputation, being considered a failure. In 1886 thru the labors of General Eaton it had 38 paid clerks in the office and 9,000 unpaid volunteer assistants in the United States and foreign lands collecting statistics; 18,000 volumes and 47,000 pamphlets in the library, which is considered the most extensive and complete pedagogic collection in existence; $102,284 for the maintenance of the Bureau, with its reputation world-wide. It has been declared to be "the most influential educational office in the world." During the years from 1875 to 1886, it is not too much to say that General Eaton wielded a larger influence in educational affairs than any other person in America.

In anticipation of his resignation he was, in the fall of 1885, elected president of Marietta College Ohio, which position he filled until 1891, the college having then attained its largest attendance. After a season of rest and re-

[1] In recognition of services in the organization of a school system for Brazil, the Emperor Dom Pedro tendered General Eaton "The Order of the Commander of the Rose," which he declined as he had done in similar cases.

turned health, he was, in 1895, unanimously elected president of Westminster College, Salt Lake City, Utah. This position he held until 1899, when he resigned to accept a call of the government to organize the American school system in Porto Rico. Owing to his large experience in shaping and organizing the educational systems of the several South American republics, as they threw off the Spanish yoke, thus mastering the various problems involved in the change from a Spanish to an American system of education, he was selected, upon the American occupation of Porto Rico, to inaugurate American schools on that island. In this work he was superintendent of schools, director of public instruction, and chief of the bureau of education, under military rule. Having thus the support of the military authorities he was able successfully to change the old established customs and reform the abuses that had grown up under Spanish rule, which, while profitable to certain privileged classes, were injurious to the masses. He abolished the "substitute system," whereby a person could draw the full salary of a teacher, and then employ a cheap and inefficient substitute to do the teaching. He reformed the school curriculum, requiring more attention to regular school studies and less to church catechisms. He abolished the "fee system" which debarred the children of the poorer classes from school privileges, and made the school free to all between the ages of six and eighteen years. Where a district was able to provide but one school, that school was required to receive girls as well as boys, thus greatly enlarging the opportunity of educating the girls, especially in the rural districts. He changed an ancient and effete school system into one up to date. In other words, he founded the American school system in Porto Rico, and opened the way for his successors both under the military and civil government.

THE STATESMAN

While General Eaton was known in Washington as the able and successful Commissioner of the Bureau of Education, it was not known, except to a very few, that he was a confidential adviser of Presidents Lincoln, Grant, and Hayes on great national and international questions, and that he was constantly consulted by leading men of the day both in and out of Congress. During the Civil War he was sent by Grant to Lincoln and by Lincoln to Grant with communications too important to entrust in the mail or to the care of other agents, sometimes too confidential to be placed on paper.

Near the close of Lincoln's first administration, when his candidacy for a second term of office was being bitterly assailed in some of the papers, the President sent General Eaton as his personal representative to General Grant to learn his views as to the expediency of the President running for a second term. General Grant sent back word that "Mr. Lincoln's re-election was as necessary as that the army should be successful in the field." Mr. Lincoln frequently conferred with General Eaton with regard to proposed important movements, especially those connected with the interests of the negroes.

At the expiration of his office in the winter of 1869–70 as superintendent of public instruction for the state of Tennessee, General Eaton visited Washington to ask from his friend, President Grant, an appointment as minister to Turkey, in order that he might be in a position to be of service to the American missionaries that were at work in that empire. President Grant, wishing to keep him, where he could be of greater assistance to himself, appointed him commissioner of education. General Eaton was probably the closest and most influential of all President Grant's advisers during both presidential terms. He was also closely associated with President Hayes. Both Presidents Grant and Hayes consulted him freely in the preparation of their messages, even occasionally calling at General Eaton's office to do so.

General Eaton was a member of various religious, philanthropic, and scientific societies. He was one of the three incorporators of the National Educational Association in 1886; one of the early members of the Public Health Association of the United States and a member of its advisory board; vice-president of the American Association for the Advancement of Science; twice president of the American Social Science Association; president of the American Society for Religious Education; trustee of Lane Theological Seminary, Cincinnati, of Howard University, of Columbian University, Washington, and of Marietta College, Ohio.

He edited a *History of Thetford Academy*, was author of *Mormons of To-day; Freedmen in the War* (report); *Schools of Tennessee* (report); *Establishment of American Public Schools in Porto Rico* (report); *Reports of the U. S. Bureau of Education*, together with bulletins and circulars issued during his sixteen years' administration of the office; also numerous addresses and magazine articles. He left for publication the manuscript of a book entitled *Lincoln, Grant, and the Negro.*

In recognition of his distinguished services Rutgers College conferred upon him the degree of Ph.D., and his *alma mater*, Dartmouth, that of LL.D.

General Eaton possessed by nature a strong mind in a healthy body, and grace gave him a strong, unwavering, religious faith in God as an overruling Providence, in Jesus Christ as a personal Savior, and the Holy Spirit as an ever-present daily helper. While firm in his own convictions, he had a broad charity for those who differed from him.

He was endowed by nature with a marvelous faculty of organization that enabled him, as if by intuition, to group and systematize his forces and the essentials neccessary to success, and from his earliest years he possessed the power of imparting his own enthusiasm to others. He had a keen diplomatic sense that enabled him oftentimes to accomplish a distant purpose by using the opportunities that were at hand.

He was not more remarkable for his great gifts and phenomenal success than for his humility. He was ever more anxious to serve than to record his services; to set others to work along his lines of activity and give them the credit of the results, than to receive the honor to himself. His constant

unselfish, loving recognition of the good in others and the value of their work was a prominent trait in his beautiful character. His indifference to recording events connected with himself has made it very difficult to give a full and adequate account of his great work, but it is a satisfaction to his friends to be able to see the large fruitage.

Resourceful in expedients, unwearied and unflagging in work; with a tenacity of purpose that never let go; enthusiastic in any cause that commended itself to him; wonderful in his ability to present the best standards of living in their direct relations to the existing needs of men; unblemished in character; loyal to God, his country and his friends, with world-wide sympathies, it is not strange that he excelled in every position in life to which he was called.

In May, 1899, while engaged in the establishment of American common schools in Porto Rico, he was stricken with paralysis, which finally closed his earthly life at Washington, D. C., February 9, 1906. His body was reverently buried among his comrades of the Civil War, in the National Cemetery at Arlington, Va.

With his departure, the United States, the Christian Church, and humanity are poorer.

An educator, whose fame has gone into all lands, who enrolled nations as pupils, has closed his school.

The adviser of presidents and statesmen has ceased his counsels. A father in Israel has gone to join the long roll of prophets and teachers around the throne of God.

WILLIAM RAINEY HARPER

BY HARRY PRATT JUDSON, CHICAGO, ILL.

It is a significant fact in Dr. Harper's educational life that he was never officially connected with public education in any form excepting only during his three years' service as a member of the Board of Education in the City of Chicago. His direct experience therefore lay in institutions on private endowment. Notwithstanding that fact, he had a most enlightened and keen interest in all questions of public education, and came to problems connected with public schools rarely equipped to contribute toward a wise solution. Perhaps from the fact of his approaching these questions from the outside, he was able in some respects to get a perspective even better and more advantageous than had he been in the thick of the contest. The report of the educational commission appointed by the mayor of Chicago, of which commission Dr. Harper was an active member, and to which report he very largely contributed, was in many ways a remarkable document. While there may be difference of opinion among educators as to the merits of suggestions embodied in it, there can be very little difference of opinion as to its great breadth of view,

its grasp of principles, and its intelligent adaptation of existing means to the ends of public education.

As a student, Dr. Harper's work lay in a field remote from the ordinary pursuits of active life. His scholarly research and his teaching belong to the Semitic languages and literatures. The drift even in the Christian ministry of late years had been decidedly away from Hebrew scholarship. It was Dr. Harper's peculiar contribution to the world of thought that, on the one hand, he was instrumental in bringing about a thoro revival of acquaintance with and interest in Hebrew, and that at the same time he vitalized not merely the Hebrew scriptures but also English understanding of the Old Testament in a way which was beyond the dreams of the generations past. He made the life and thought of the Hebrews of old vivid and real. He was not burrowing into dust heaps of forgotten and antiquated lore. On the contrary he was bringing out from the storehouse of ancient thought treasures of real value to the daily life and thought of our own age. In other words he was a modern man in every sense of the term quite as much when studying the Hebrew prophets as when engaged in the activities of university education. This essentially modern character of the man, rare enough among students of an ancient civilization, suffices to dignify every enterprise in which he engaged and to give it an important practical bearing on life.

He was a great teacher. The history of colleges in this country records not a few men among college presidents who were in the truest sense teachers —Mark Hopkins, Wayland, Nott, Anderson. Dr. Harper was marvelously different from anyone in this list. He had, however, first of all, the teacher's enthusiasm. It was his delight to impart instruction, to invigorate the ambitions of young men, to draw out their strong qualities, to surround his subject with living interest. He had the teacher's faculty of winning young minds. He never ceased to be in thoro sympathy with the thought and ideals of youth. He could therefore fully understand how the mind of the young man worked, how it made its approaches toward grasping a new knowledge, how it grew and developed in many ways. He had the rare faculty of organizing his material in a lucid and rational way. He was always an inspiration in the classroom, and further he had also this very peculiar faculty of the true teacher, that the classroom was always an inspiration to him. If fate had cast his interest in the field of mathematics, of chemistry, of Latin, or political economy, he would have been the same tireless and original scholar; he would have left his mark in the same way on generations of young students.

He was a great educational administrator. His active mind was keenly interested in all problems of adjustment connected with the organization and administration of educational institutions. In his early experience he was principal of an academy connected with Denison University. In this position he showed the same versatility and knowledge which later was so conspicuous in the organization of the University of Chicago. He was by no means narrow in his conceptions of relative values in educational work. The organization

and working of an academy, of a high school, of an elementary school, appealed to him with quite as keen zest as the organization of a college or a university He recognized them all as parts of a common whole and felt that no one of them could be considered by itself, but each had a bearing, and an important bearing, on all the rest. For these reasons Dr. Harper was by no means merely a college president. He was not merely a scholar, a teacher, and a university administrator, but beyond all that he was a student of education in its broadest and highest sense.

Another striking fact in the idiosyncrasies of Dr. Harper was his great personal interest in people. He was concerned not with men and women in the mass, but with individuals. He was eager to know them thru and thru. He was interested in the development of character in all its varied individual forms. He made very warm friendships among men of very different types. This fact was conspicuous at the time of his death. It was a surprise to many to find the close attachment felt for him by men of all sorts—scholars, business men, teachers, men engaged in politics, and students. A perennial source of interest to him was the forming of new acquaintances and learning to appreciate some new kind of life or some new phase of character. Those in the Association who knew him will remember that it was not merely a formal acquaintance; that there was a real personal relationship established in almost every case. In other words, Dr. Harper was not merely an official, but he was to almost everyone he met a personal friend. This fact was true even with those who strongly disagreed with him in his policy. Disagreement on questions of opinion was by no means inconsistent with the most cordial personal relations. He never cherished any resentment against those who opposed him, even if they took the strongest possible ground. He was catholic enough in his mind to realize the wide range of thought and the wide range of opinion necessary in a large community. As he said to one of his administrative helpers in the university: "This man whom we have been discussing you admit has many good points and one or two very objectionable ones. Why not let the objectionable points go and draw upon the good side as strongly as possible?" This was in a way a key to his power in handling men and in getting from them their best.

The National Educational Association, comprising in its membership those interested in every form of educational work, at once appealed to him as being not merely a meeting place for educational experts from all parts of our country and from all fields of educational activity, but also as being a powerful agency for educational advance. He recognized the great potential force of public opinion, and felt that the public opinion of teachers if brought together and brought to bear on some good purposes could be made available for most important educational reforms. For these reasons Dr. Harper became interested in the work of the Association and a regular attendant on its meetings. He valued the personal associations thus formed very greatly,

and took as keen an interest in the problems which the Association has been trying to work out as in any of the questions more immediately concerning him. He was therefore a loyal and faithful member of the Association; and had his life been spared would have continued for many years a zealous participant in its affairs. Indeed it was on the National Educational Association that he based his newly projected Religious Education Association which was just in working order at the time of his death.

Such a man can ill be spared. The cause of education in this country needs unselfish effort and large intelligence without stint. These Dr. Harper gave to the end of his life.

MRS. MARY H. HUNT

BY ALBERT E. WINSHIP, BOSTON, MASS.

Mary Hanchett Hunt born in South Canaan, Conn., July 4, 1830, died in Boston, April 26, 1906. Graduate of Patapsco Institute, Baltimore; teacher of chemistry and physiology in the same institute. Married Leander B. Hunt of East Douglass, Mass., in 1852; life-director of N. E. A. since 1880; superintendent of scientific temperance instruction for World's and National Woman's Christian Temperance Union. This is the simple statement of the life of one of the remarkable women of the nineteenth century.

Born on the fourth of July in the year in which Daniel Webster made the great patriotic address of the century, Mary H. Hunt was entitled to lead the world in the greatest law-making educational crusade for temperance in all the ages. She drafted the law for compulsory scientific temperance education passed by the Congress of the United States, by every state in the Union, by several provinces of Canada, and some of the countries of South America, and enlisted governmental interest in the cause in several European countries.

Mrs. Hunt also placed her personal impress on the textbooks in hygiene used in, presumably, four-fifths of the schools of the United States during the past quarter of a century. Thus in law-making and book-making, with one idea ever in mind, she accomplished more than has often come to the privilege of a man or woman to do.

Mrs. Hunt was not only born on Independence Day in the year of the great Webster-Hayne debate, but she was descended from the celebrated Reverend Thatcher, first pastor of the Old South Church of Boston, and her father was an officer in the first temperance society in the United States. From girlhood she purposed accomplishing something more efficient for temperance reform than anything hitherto attempted. The ineffectual attempts of the church and of specific organizations were early appreciated by her, and she was the first to conceive the idea of using the public schools intelligently and wisely for reducing the evil effect of the misuse of alcoholic liquors.

Mrs. Hunt's first great service was in emphasizing the fact that work

against the saloon and the signing of the pledge were in no wise adequate for an effectual campaign against the greatest material foe of humanity. "Prevention is worth a thousand times as much as a cure," was the keynote of her service in scientific temperance teaching in the schools.

With sublime courage she faced the Congress of the United States, and, one by one, the state legislatures, until she saw laws of her drafting on every statute book, national and state. Nor was the law all-sufficient. It could not execute itself, and she conceived a scheme of moral support for the cause which secured the specific introduction into all textbooks on physiology and hygiene adequate and appropriate facts, theories, and illustrations as to the physiological effects of the use of stimulants and narcotics.

In this great crusade she organized movements that gave her the backing, first of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union, then of the National Educational Association, then of certain medical associations, then, one by one, of the great religious denominations, then, little by little, of the political forces of the country. Never has any other one mind of man or woman planned and effectively executed so far-reaching a scheme for temperance reform as hers.

It is needless to say that all this could be accomplished only by a woman with a relentless purpose, with deep convictions, with a semi-medical training with a legal cast of mind, with brilliant platform power, and keen skill in dealing with men of affairs. Her great talent is best testified to by the achievements which could only have come from the efforts of a person of keen and vigorous intellect, of intense and well-directed activity, of noble inheritance projected toward the coming generation. Mrs. Mary Hanchett Hunt honored the National Educational Association by serving as one of its life-directors for a quarter of a century.

ALBERT GRANNIS LANE

BY JOHN W. COOK, DE KALB, ILL.

It is sometimes said that the biographer is in danger of missing that sense of balance that should characterize his estimate of his subject if time has not lent its perspectives and settings. Doubtless the suggestion has much of value as a generalization. Ordinarily a life does not indicate its significance until its work emerges from the social complex and isolates itself by its destructive or constructive influence. There are fields of endeavor in which the season is long between the planting and the harvest. On the other hand, it is often true that a career can be estimated justly only as it is seen at short range. The personal equation may be the main factor after all. The touch of a hand, the smile of encouragement, a word fitly spoken, a heroic deed in some critical test of character may come to more of pith and moment in the life of a community than the dramatic movements of

Great captains with their guns and drums.

While some men seem to effect their purposes in an impersonal way, others fill whatever they touch with the genial warmth of a vivid and charming personality. In contemplating them we change the sentiment of the oft quoted verse and know instead that

Though we may forget the song
We shall not forget the singer.

So pervading and permanent is the influence of certain rare souls that they and their cause are one. Such men can be understood as they deserve only by those who not only touch elbows with them in the common work of life, but sit with them as well in the scant spaces of blessed leisure, where heart speaks to heart with no restraints of convention nor haunting fear of misconception.

Albert Grannis Lane should be seen from both of these points of view. Perspective brings into finer relief what personal intimacy discovers, just as familiarity with the springs that fed his life explains the deeper meaning of his aims and achievements.

In attempting to understand such a character one naturally turns to his family history and to the circumstances of his childhood and youth. His father, Elisha B. Lane, was of New Hampshire birth and his mother, Amanda Grannis, a native of New York. Both came of Revolutionary ancestry, and both were of good, sturdy stock. They located in Chicago in 1836, six years after the first plat of the village was filed for record. The thriving settlement had already extended beyond the original town, which was about equal in area to the territory now included within the "loop" of the elevated railroad. The county of Cook was only five years old and the city did not receive its first charter from the General Assembly until a year later. They found a community of thirty-five hundred people, most of whom, like themselves, belonged to the pioneer type, the most enterprising element in any population.

The first home was not in the town but, instead, a few miles away on what is still known as the Gale farm, near the present town of Oak Park. There Albert, the eldest of the eight children, was born on the fifteenth of March, 1841. Shortly after the family removed to the town and occupied the one-story wood cottage that had been prepared for their coming. It was located on the northeast corner of State and VanBuren, the present site of Rothschild's department store. Not long since Mr. Lane indicated the exact position of his childhood home for some deeply interested friends. With the growth of the city the little dwelling was removed to West Monroe Street where it continued for many years to be the home of the family. A half-century later it again yielded to the encroachment of the town and on its western journey stopped over Sunday directly before the residence of Mr. A. G. Lane, superintendent of the city schools.

His intimate acquaintance with the city is thus explained. He was

Native here, and to the manner born.

It served him well in many of the situations of his busy life. He saw Chicago change from a town of less than six thousand to a city of two millions. He was thoroly familiar with every aspect of its wonderful growth. No one could be more at home in its cosmopolitan life. The great problems of a metropolis developed under his eyes. It was indeed a rare experience.

Albert was sent to school at an early age. His parents believed in education, and the home atmosphere was very favorable to the development of intelligence. But his father was dependent upon his trade—he was a carpenter—for his income. The family was large, the wages were low, and there were interruptions from bad weather and scant business and all of the inevitable misfortunes of life. A dollar and a half a day seems a pitiful allowance for a family of eight or ten, even with no loss of time. In consequence there was the most evident need of Albert's assistance in securing the ordinary necessities of life, as soon as he was old enough to find remunerative employment. And this time arrived just as he was finishing the grammar school. But the new high school was ready to open its doors to the boys and girls of the city, and he could complete its course in two years because of the advanced work of the elementary school. The ardent boy's desire for further education had been fanned to a flame, and it seemed a cruel despoiling of his hopes for him to be obliged to give up his cherished ambition. There was a family council, and a conclusion was reached which declared his strength and intelligence to have become a marketable commodity whose value was greatly needed by the family. He accepted the situation, asked for an assessment of his obligation, and entered into solemn league and covenant to turn into the general treasury weekly the three or four dollars which his services were assumed to be worth. Giving up his plans for an education was something which he could not entertain.

Of course it was a trying time for the fifteen-year-old lad, but he kept his obligation. At three o'clock in the morning he went to the *Tribune* office, and folded his papers and tramped his round. He herded cows in the afternoon on the prairies of the West Side where the population is now the densest. He picked up odd pennies at odd jobs, and he kept his obligation. Who shall tell how many times, in the nineteen years that he was paying his "national debt," his mind reverted to the struggles of his boyhood to meet the weekly assessment and remain in school.

He entered the high school on the first day of the first term and remained there two years. He fell a little short of attending until graduation, altho a few weeks more would have accomplished it; but he was after the substance rather than the external show, and he accepted the situation without complaint. It had been a great discipline for him, and it gave color to all of his subsequent life. He could sympathize with poverty, for he had experienced it. He could appreciate the inestimable worth of an education, for he had bought it with energy and privation and self-denial. He could meet the

humblest laborer upon his own plane, for he too had been a toiler where the wage was very small. It was worth all that it had cost.

He was no sooner out of school than he was elected to the principalship of a grammar school—the old Franklin, now known as the Lyman Trumbull. He could safely lay claim to the honor of being the youngest man ever elected to such a position in the whole history of Chicago. He was barely seventeen when he entered upon the discharge of his duties. The suggestion of such a situation would now be regarded as preposterous. He retained this principalship until 1869 when his larger career began.

In November of that year he was elected to the county superintendency of schools of Cook County. He was then in his twenty-ninth year and in the full, overflowing vigor of a splendid young manhood. He was good to see. Tall, muscular, handsome, with a clear, ringing voice, a face that won its way to the fullest confidence at the first meeting, and an unusually magnetic manner. He lived in an atmosphere of perpetual sunshine and ardent enthusiasm. His sense of duty was exceptionally keen, and was grounded in a deep religious conviction. Like Abou Ben Adhem, he loved his fellow-man. Like Pestalozzi, he saw the cure of the greater part of our social woes not only in an education of the head but, as well, of the hand and especially of the heart. It was clear that his life had a deeper anchorage than that of most men. This was an impression that he invariably gave to all who knew him at all well. He seemed to draw his inspiration from unfailing hidden springs.

Think of such a man in conjunction with such an opportunity! How beautiful it was to see him press himself against his task with all of the ardor of a crusader. Ready for any drudgery yet idealist to the core! The best schools were poor enough and the rural schools were worst of all. They were held, ordinarily, in poor buildings, with little in the way of apparatus and nothing in the way of libraries. Even blackboards were a novelty in many localities. There was no definite course of study, no uniformity of textbooks, and rarely a trained teacher. And the multiplicity of duties devolving upon the superintendent was something appalling. He must be lawyer, man of business, peace-maker, educational exhorter, inspirer of indifferent communities, teacher, school examiner, and, most difficult of all, perhaps, licenser of teacher. He was all of these and more. And best of all, he brought to the discharge of his manifold duties a sympathetic personality that made him not only a public official, entrenched behind the law and exercising his formal authority, but a warm-hearted friend, as well, all full of gracious courtesies to everyone. Politeness has been defined as "the ceremonial form in which we celebrate the equality of all men in the substance of their humanity," and it found a fine illustration in his attitude toward his fellow-men. He unraveled legal tangles; examined accounts of trustees and treasurers; adjusted neighborhood quarrels; pleaded with parents for the inalienable rights of their own children; urged more generous appropriations upon penurious voters; encouraged over-worked and poorly appreciated teachers;

sympathetically eliminated the inefficient by tactful methods; organized institutes for the instruction and inspiration of all, and did it all with tireless patience and abounding good nature.

Under his guidance the work which that faithful pioneer in education, John F. Eberhart, had started, began to expand and develop. He was especially impressed with the superiority of the town schools over the country schools. It was easy to see that the difference was due mainly to the better organization of the former and, scarcely less, to their relation to the secondary schools. He accordingly introduced into the country schools of Cook County a uniform course of study. Thereafter the children were permitted to move from grade to grade until they had completed in a systematic way the rudiments of an English education. Before this had been accomplished the waste of time and effort was little short of tragic. The constant change of teachers—a succession of three or four in a single year was not unusual—involved constant interruption in the continuity of study. Each teacher was of necessity left almost entirely to his own devices, and could not be informed as to what his predecessor had done. Thus the children in large numbers of schools walked a mechanical round of uninteresting and unprofitable routine. No other one thing was in any way comparable to this one reform. He had the gratification of seeing his plans put into execution in many other localities, both in Illinois and in other states. This one problem put on the way to its solution, he attacked the second and was largely instrumental in the multiplication of high schools, until the country child had within his range the possibilities of a secondary education, and quite at his own door.

In 1873 an event occurred to which an allusion has already been made. Mr. Lane was loaded with a grievous burden which was to require almost a score of years of unremitting self-denial upon his own part as well as upon that of his family. He had in his possession an undistributed school fund amounting to $33,000. The county commissioners approved the Franklin Bank as a depository, and there he deposited the money. With the coming of the panic the bank fell to pieces like a house of cards. Nothing was saved from the wreck, at least nothing of consequence. The deposit was a total loss. It is probable that the action of the commissioners relieved Mr. Lane from all responsibility under the law. But Mr. Lane lived under the higher law. Nothing could persuade him that a legal technicality relieved him from a moral responsibility, and that was enough to settle the matter. The advice of his friends was of no avail. It was all in vain that they declared his design to be quixotic and sentimental. Since he was in no way to blame for the disaster, why should he burden his life in an attempt to restore the fund? The commissioners had relieved his bondsmen as well as himself in approving the depository, and his friends would not be losers as they could not be compelled to make good the deficit. Let the county do it; it would be but a feather's weight for the whole community, while for one man it would be the

severest task for a lifetime, if, indeed, he could ever hope to save so large a sum from the comparatively small earnings of his profession. To make the situation still more desperate Mr. Lane failed of re-election in the following November. But he did not discuss the question. He called his bondsmen together and told them that he expected them to make good what they had assumed in becoming his sureties. He mortgaged all of the property in his possession and thus raised ten thousand dollars. It was immediately applied toward the payment of his debt. His bondsmen paid the rest, and the county did not lose a penny of its fund. No teacher nor child ever knew of the matter except as a news item, for there was no delay on that account in the payment of a single salary, nor was there the interruption of the schools for a single moment. He gave his notes, interest-bearing notes, to his bondsmen for the amount which they had paid, and then he bent himself to the task of redeeming the notes. And there was no complaining; there was the same smile on his face and the same good cheer in his life. Having lost his educational position, he went into business for the next four years, but returned to the work in which his heart delighted at the end of that time. He was restored to his former position by the free choice of the people, and there he remained until his resignation fifteen years later, when he was called to a position of greater honor, responsibility, and financial reward.

It took him more than nineteen years to make himself square with the world but he did it. He repaid to his bondsmen every dollar that he owed them and with interest for every day. When the great task was completed he had put forty-five thousand dollars of hard cash into the enterprise—a snug little fortune for a man of modest desires. In a most touching tribute to his memory Mr. O. T. Bright says:

> It was my good fortune to call at his office at the consummation of this struggle. I found him out of the office but he came in soon after, and I shall never forget the kind of glory that enveloped him as, stretching to his full height, he brought his hand down upon my shoulder and said with the utmost intensity, "Bright, I have paid the last dollar of it." In the annals of Chicago can be found nothing more thrilling than this heroic struggle of Albert Lane. His will be a name to conjure with in teaching civic virtue when that of many a Chicago millionaire will have passed into oblivion.

My own experience is not unlike that of Mr. Bright's. We were coming home together from a meeting of the State Teachers' Association and he told me that his "national debt" was paid at last. I am sure that our hand grasp was intelligible to us, whatever those who were seated near us may have thought.

For nineteen years he directed the educational affairs of Cook County. Colonel Parker came to the head of the county Normal School while he was superintendent, and everyone knows now what that meant for education. He always fought the battles of the Normal School, and there was no dearth of them in those "good old times." Our militant friend, the colonel, never could have survived the shock of the persistent assaults that were made upon

him but for the presence in the ranks behind him of the loyal county superintendent. It was the very irony of fate that Richard Edwards should be defeated for the state superintendency as the assumed father of the "Edwards Bill" when it should have been called, in the interests of historic accuracy, the "Lane Bill." The Saturday before the election he said to me, "Tomorrow the great body of German Lutherans in Cook County will vote for me and against Dr. Edwards, yet I am rather the one upon whom they should visit their wrath. I cannot make them understand that he is not responsible for the law."

On the twenty-first day of March, 1891, the day on which he touched his half-century mark, he was invited down to the Normal School. It was a happy day for him and for the children, all of whom knew the familiar face that had so often smiled upon them in their work. They brought him their gifts, which they had made for him with joyful anticipations of the day, and they sang him their songs, which they had prepared especially for him, and Colonel Parker told him how they all loved him. His sterling honesty, his Christian virtues, his unwearying helpfulness to his teachers, his unobtrusive devotion to the right, "as God gave him to see the right," were most inviting themes, and the orator of the occasion did not spare him. Mr. Lane was deeply moved. He expressed in faltering tones his keen appreciation of the love that had prompted the children to prepare their beautiful souvenirs, and he told them of the inspiration for the future which their touching tributes brought him.

The children of the Sunday school of his church celebrated his fiftieth birthday as the children at the Normal School had done. The pastor of the church presented their offerings of flowers and conveyed their love and thankfulness in words that must have warmed his heart. The leading paper of his denomination in the West published an account of his life and especially of his services to the church of which he was a member.

But he was soon to receive a merited promotion. In the summer of 1891 George Howland retired from the superintendency of the city schools, and that Albert Lane should succeed him was in the thought of almost everyone. The action of the city board in selecting him for the place received the cordial endorsement of the sincere friends of education everywhere. For the next seven years he was to be in the thick of the fight against all of the evil forces that were attempting to use the schools for the furthering of personal and political interests and at the sacrifice of the rights of the children for whom alone the schools exist. The howl of the "gray wolves" was a familiar sound to all who were in any way connected with the dispensing of positions. The savagery of the "gang" passes human belief. They were merciless in their greed and conscienceless in its gratification. The rapacity of the Huns and Vandals was a mild exhibition of ferocity when compared with the methods of the political camp-followers of the modern American city at its worst, and it is hoped that there can be nothing worse than what Chicago has expe-

rienced in some of the stages of her growth. Yet Mr. Lane never lost heart. He forever bent himself to the task of betterment.

In a recent article, Mr. Henry Barrett Chamberlin declares that no period of the school history was marked by so many innovations as his administration. It "marked a new era in the development of educational thought and practice." There are few features of the new education that were not introduced into the schools at that time. It is not strange that so radical a departure from the time-honored traditions of the city aroused a storm of opposition from the conservatives.

> The extension of the manual training into the grammar grades; the adoption of the kindergartens as a part of the common-school system; the introduction of sewing and cooking as a form of manual training; the added importance attached to drawing; the change in the style of penmanship; original investigation on the part of the pupils in laboratory work in high schools; new interest in the sub-normal pupils, resulting in ungraded rooms for the defective pupils in the regular school buildings, in the erection of the John Worthy school and, later, in the law authorizing the parental school; correlation of the child's school life with his home life thru lecture courses and parents' meetings; the vacation-school suggestion; the plan of commercial high schools and of a course in civics; the law authorizing a pension for teachers and employees; simplification of the work in arithmetic; vitalization of the language work—all of these featured in the administration of Mr. Lane and showed that the new education was abroad.

Here was material enough for the critics. The newspaper writers were happy because of the abundance of educational schemes which misrepresentation could transform into startling novelties. The cartoonists sharpened their pencils. Members of the Board of Education actually visited schools. It was inevitable that much of the new work would be imperfectly done, for it was in the first stages of its development. The warfare resulted in the elimination of a portion of it, but its presence had changed the atmosphere, and the schools could never go back to their old formalism after a glimpse of the freer life. But such campaigning was heart-breaking work. The burdens of those years of struggles were heavy enough to break the strongest and most hopeful nature, and Mr. Lane never recovered from the disastrous consequences of these years of storm and stress.

In 1898 he failed of re-election. It is probable that this was the severest disappointment of his life. Many of his closest friends advised him to withdraw from the schools. Business opportunities awaited him. In the presence of his ability and integrity and wide acquaintance doors opened all about him. His faithful wife added her entreaties, but his answers were always the same: "Why should I abandon the profession of my choice and my love simply because I cannot have the highest place?" He was succeeded by Dr. E. Benjamin Andrews, late president of Brown University, and accepted the lower honor of assistant superintendent.

There are few situations in life that try one's character so thoroly as that which now confronted Mr. Lane. A deposed chief is in a way discredited. A certain degree of humiliation quite unavoidably attends such an experience.

Stripped of the supreme authority one often loses all authority. Those who were formerly subalterns now found themselves equals. But it was Albert G. Lane that was superintendent, and it was his intrinsic qualities and not the accident of position that made men follow him gladly. In no other experience of his life did the dignity and sincerity and fidelity of his character have so good an opportunity of displaying themselves. Those of us who knew him thru it all have no words to tell how we honor him. It was beautiful and yet it was all so simple and quiet. One cannot write about it with dry eyes. Respecting his relations to his chief, President Andrews of the University of Nebraska writes me:

No report could be too glowing to set forth the excellence of his character or the value of his services. He was among the very ablest and most extraordinary school men whom I have known. His genius for detail approached the marvelous. He knew intimately his principals and teachers with the peculiarities of each. A large number of the patrons of every school in his charge were in his confidence. He had a kind but true and objective judgment of teachers' characters and abilities, never making a mistake in recommending for promotion. He loved the children and was loved by them in return and he never for a moment fell into the error of forgetting that the schools exist for them. Tho stronger in administration than in theory and not a professed expert in technical pedagogy, no points concerning his work, however far they might reach into theory, were ever misapprehended by him. Tho progressive, and never scorning a pedagogical innovation because it was an innovation, he had a fine contempt for pedagogical claptrap and for novelties that were retrogression in disguise.

He was absolutely just both to those under him and to the board employing him. He worked incessantly; too hard and constantly for his health. Had he been less faithful, as indolent as some of us are, he would have lived longer.

During my years with him in Chicago all my associates were kind and helpful, but Lane was the man from whom I received most assistance. In serious matters I always went to him. He never failed me. His death is an acute personal loss to me and, what is far more, a calamity to the public schools of Chicago and the country.

In a similar vein Superintendent Cooley writes:

I have known Mr. Lane for many years, but never intimately until I became superintendent of the schools. I came into office with some little prejudice—not of a serious nature, but still a prejudice—which I have completely outgrown, and feel in losing Mr. Lane I have lost my most valuable assistant.

He was loyal, honest, and devoted to his work. There was never a time when he was not willing to sink his own personality in the particular piece of work needed for the schools of Chicago. He knew the conditions—the practical questions—in Chicago better than any man I am acquainted with, and was simply invaluable.

He served as the president of the Board of District Superintendents and guided and directed their counsels in trying to bring about a more uniform condition in various parts of the system. His special efficiency lay in his patience, industry, and absolute devotion to the interests of the public schools. The city of Chicago and the entire country have suffered a great loss in his death.

Thus far I have been occupied with the public life of Mr. Lane. What I have written was seen of all men. But men of his character perform a large public service of which the many know nothing. Their broad experience qualifies them for rare helpfulness in those voluntary organizations that do

so much for community and national life. Ordinarily these services are without compensation, except of the kind that comes from the gratitude of those who depend upon the quiet workers behind the scenes for the success of the more public presentations. The National Educational Association is one of the largest organizations of its kind in the world. With the single exception of a similar English association it is without a rival. Any sketch of the life and work of Mr. Lane would be lacking in completeness if it omitted his relation to this educational institution, for such it is in its essential nature.

He became a member of the Association in July, 1884, at the Madison meeting, and his membership was continuous for the succeeding twenty-two years. He served as state director for Illinois for the years 1888–89 and 1889–90. He was elected president of the N. E. A. at the Saratoga meeting for the period of two years, an honor thus far conferred upon no other member. In the first year of his incumbency there were held in Chicago, in connection with the World's Columbian Exposition, the memorable Congresses of Education, in which the most distinguished educators of all countries participated. The volume of *Proceedings* for 1893 is the most celebrated of all the publications of the N. E. A. It is a treasure-house of contributions to the literature of education, in which may be found the reflection of all modern peoples who have given to the subject any serious consideration.

Mr. Lane served as *ex-officio* member of the Board of Trustees during the two years of his administration. At the Denver meeting he was elected a member of the board and was continued in that position until his death, having served as president of the board since July, 1896. He was also a member of the Executive Committee from July, 1892, until the time of his death, with the exception of the year 1895–96. As president, as trustee, and as chairman of the Board of Trustees and as a member of the Executive Committee he held each of the offices for a longer period than any other person in the history of the Association.

During his chairmanship of the Board of Trustees, the permanent fund of the Association grew from $55,000 to $157,000. He had the personal charge and responsibility for the safe-keeping of this fund and of its proper investment for the ten years of his chairmanship, with the co-operation of the other members of the Board of Trustees. Not a single dollar of either the principal or the interest of any investment made by Mr. Lane was ever lost to the Association.

There were certain Kansas school bonds, purchased for investment before Mr. Lane became a member of the Board of Trustees, on which it was supposed, at one time, that the Association would lose a considerable portion of the amount invested thru default of principal and interest. Mr. Lane's management of the negotiations for settlement of these bonds resulted in recovering the principal of nearly all of them with very slight loss.

Secretary Shepard, to whom I am indebted for the foregoing facts, adds:

Mr. Lane's annual reports of the Board of Trustees on the permanent funds were models of clearness, accompanied by detailed explanations of the conditions and policies of management adopted by the board. This great service to the Association was given by Mr. Lane for ten years without remuneration of a single dollar, and often without reimbursement of actual expenses.

Mr. Lane was a frequent and welcome speaker in the general sessions and in the department meetings. Some of the more important of his formal papers may be mentioned, as: a paper read before the Department of Superintendence, in 1889, on "County Institutes;" a paper on "Educational Systems," read before the General Sessions, in 1892, and a paper on "Taxation and Teachers' Salaries," read before the National Council, in 1902. The discussion of this last paper led to the appointment of the Committee of Investigation of Teachers' Salaries, Tenure of Office and Pensions, which resulted in one of the most valuable reports published by the Association.

An important feature of Mr. Lane's services to the Association is little known. Since 1887 the railroads have granted to the National Educational Association a concession, not enjoyed by any other large convention body, in an agreement to collect the annual membership fee in the purchase price of the ticket. In 1893 this concession was not operative, and most members thought it would never be restored. Its restoration and continuance from that date to the present are very largely due to Mr. Lane and his connection with the Executive Committee for the past thirteen years. During his presidency in 1893 and 1894, he formulated and declared a policy of fair dealing with the railroads under which the many abuses of ticket privileges, so common in connection with special rates for conventions, were officially condemned and largely prevented as far as the N. E. A. was concerned. Many of the railroad officers of the country, and particularly in Chicago, knew him personally and had the highest respect for him and entire confidence in his integrity and fair dealing. The care taken to protect the rights of the railroads equally with the rights of the Association won the approval and the willing co-operation of railroad officials in continuing this valuable concession.

His death is to me a very great personal loss. During the entire period of my service as secretary of the Association he has been a member of the Executive Committee and has been a constant and generous adviser and helper in all the changes and problems of administration.

In this connection President Andrews writes:

His devotion to the N. E. A. you know as well as I. He carried it upon his heart and gave to it his best intelligence and effort. I suppose that no other man has done more to shape its history thus far; few, certainly, have done half or a tenth as much. I wish that the Association had funds for erecting a monument to the memory of so deserving a public-school champion.

President Nicholas Murray Butler, who succeeds Mr. Lane as president of the Board of Trustees, writes: "I have been deeply saddened by the death of Mr. Lane and feel it as a personal loss." In the *Educational Review*, for October, he writes editorially:

The startling announcement, on August 23, of the death of Albert G. Lane, district superintendent of schools in Chicago, brought with it a sense of grief and personal loss to, literally, thousands of persons. In Chicago, in Illinois, and in the wider circle of the National Educational Association, Mr. Lane had been for more than a generation a central figure. No one of her merchant princes or railway magnates ever began to do for Chicago the great service that Mr. Lane has done thru a life filled with patient, devoted, and unselfish service for the city's children and the city's citizenship Determined but never aggressive, sincere without being dogmatic, and persuasive with no trace of dema

gogery, Mr. Lane was a tower of strength. He was almost universally liked and universally trusted. . . . .

For the National Educational Association, the loss of Mr. Lane is the most severe with which it could meet. Since his retirement from the presidency in 1894 he has been a member of the Board of Trustees, and the executive officer of the board during the intervening years. To Mr. Lane, far more than to any other man or body of men, is due the present most satisfactory state of the Association's permanent fund. The wise handling of the unfortunate investments made in earlier years, and the admirable choice of new securities, were both his personal doing. The Association repaid his loyal service with its unfailing confidence and affection.

Not many months ago a well-known citizen of Chicago died, leaving a vast fortune behind him. It was chiefly in money and in money-values. Mr. Lane leaves to the city a far richer legacy—a pure and good life lived for his fellows, and an upright character tested and tried in every furnace that tempers the human heart.

The Board of Education of the city of Chicago adopted a memorial reviewing his life and distinguished service to the schools of that city, closing with the following:

The Board of Education, recognizing, appreciating, and acknowledging his valuable services in the cause of public-school education, and especially regretting the loss to which his demise has subjected the public schools of Chicago,

Resolves: That in all the public schools of the city, the last hour of the afternoon session of Friday, October 5th [at meeting of Oct. 10, date was changed to Oct. 19], be devoted to exercises commemorating the upright and honorable life and educational services of Mr. Lane;

That on one of the public school buildings of the city, the name, Albert G. Lane, be inscribed;

That this memorial and these resolutions be entered upon the records of the Board and a copy thereof be transmitted to the family of the deceased.

On Sunday, November 4, a large company assembled at the Auditorium theater to pay their tribute of respect and affection to their lamented friend and fellow-worker. Superintendent Cooley presided and introduced the exercises of the afternoon by a brief address that was full of appreciation and tenderness. Fidelity, devotion to duty, loyalty and good cheer—these were the keynotes of his eulogy. The chief address was delivered by President James, of the University of Illinois. President James began his career as a teacher in the schools of Evanston while Mr. Lane was county superintendent of schools. His theme was a fitting one for the occasion—

The possibility of national advance depends after all upon the existence in the average man of certain fundamental qualities; intelligence, industry, sobriety, economy, patience, and, above all, a pervading, ever-present sense of duty.

His illustrations were mainly drawn from the German nation, the secret of whose success

is not to be found in the transcendent ability of its leaders but in the extent to which the simple sense of duty has been inbred and developed in the common man. Such a sense as predominates and controls the entire life of the nation, so that the average workman plies his task to the best of his ability—not because his boss is eying him, but because he would disdain to skimp his work, exactly as he would disdain to do any other dishonorable thing.

It is to this pervading quality of the German character that we may attribute the superiority of that remarkable people in so many departments of life.

All this I have said, because it seems to me that the most striking characteristic of our departed friend was this very sense of duty, developed and given free rein, until it became his guiding motive and principle of life.

Dr. James traced the manifestation of this quality in the faithful discharge of all of the countless petty duties of a teacher's life, in the fuller development of a higher sense of public duty, and in the consecration of his life to a noble cause. He declared that such a spirit in the masses of men is the only possible salvation of the state and the only hope of survival of the great principle of democracy. In exemplification of this principle Mr. Lane has given to his time the richest contribution which it is possible for any man to make.

Dr. Gunsaulus followed in a similar vein, expressing his personal sorrow that a life so sweet and uplifting should be taken away in the full flush of his completest usefulness. The writer of this sketch gave a brief account of the inestimable service which Mr. Lane has rendered to the Association. The exercises were closed by Dr. Rufus White, of the Board of Education, who characterized him as the man who loved children. This aspect of his gentle nature was vividly portrayed with touching faithfulness and beauty. The Chicago Imperial Quartette sang the songs that he loved, the pastor of his church pronounced a benediction, and the assembly went out into the autumn afternoon, saddened by a sense of great loss yet thankful for the years of companionship with a consecrated life.

Mr. Lane in his relations to the church in which he was a worker for many years is a theme for others. I can easily imagine what he was in his long service as class leader, and teacher, and superintendent of the Sunday school, and in many kindred offices. He was deeply religious in his nature, and there was about him an atmosphere that suggested constant communion with the unseen, however humble the duty in which he was engaged. The fires were always burning on his altars and their incense filled his being with its sweetness. Yet there was never anything obtrusive about it; it was always healthful and human and inspiring.

The arduous cares and labors of his strenuous life began to tell upon his vigorous constitution within the last few years. Occasionally he had been obliged to drop his work for a season and seek a milder climate for recuperation of which he stood in great need. There were haunting fears in the hearts of some of his friends, yet they were unprepared for the tragical ending. He was much run down at the close of the last school year, and went reluctantly across the lake in the hope of a speedy recovery. His faithful wife had pleaded with him to give up his work before it should be too late, but it was very hard to induce him to yield until his increasing weakness made its necessity apparent even to him. He did not gain as he had hoped, and returned in the middle of August to linger only a few days in the home that his presence had made beautiful for so many years.

In "Morituri Salutamus," one of the sweetest of our American singers chants his valedictory to his surviving classmates of half a century before:

O ye familiar scenes,—ye groves of pine,
That once were mine and are no longer mine,—
. . . . . .
. . . . we who are about to die
Salute you; earth and air and sea and sky,
And the Imperial Sun that scatters down
His sovereign splendors upon grove and town.

Ye do not answer us! ye do not hear!
We are forgotten; and in your austere
And calm indifference, ye little care
Whether we come or go, or whence or where.

And so thruout the larger part of this beautiful poem there is everywhere the haunting echo of a pensive melancholy. Yet the good poet was not old. The love of his fellow-men had crowned him with unfading laurels. He had not escaped sorrow, it is true; but it is the common lot of mortals, and it had come to him as it comes soon or late to all. At last a more hopeful spirit inspires the theme, and the note of repining sinks to a minor undertone as he consoles himself with the reflection that

. . . . As the evening twilight fades away
The sky is filled with stars invisible by day.

Ulysses had a braver spirit.

Come, my friends
'Tis not too late to seek a newer world.
Push off, and sitting well in order, smite
The sounding furrows; for my purpose holds
To sail beyond the sunset, and the baths
Of all the western stars, until I die.

The Board of Managers of Lewis Institute, of which he was a member from the time of its original organization, adopted resolutions on October 9 that only repeat the universal sentiment—thankfulness for such a life of consecration to duty and sense of profound loss at his untimely death.

The City Normal School held a beautiful service in his memory, and again the fine old theme of devotion, gladness, inspiration, touched the hearts of the listeners.

On Sunday, November 18, the Centenary Methodist Episcopal Church devoted the morning and afternoon to Memorial Services. In the morning the Sunday school, of which Mr. Lane had been a member for more than sixty years, unveiled a bronze tablet which had been placed in the wall to commemorate his worth. Addresses and music expressed the children's love and their sorrow for his loss. In the afternoon a large gathering assembled to do honor to his memory, Dr. Quayle gave the address.

Albert Grannis Lane was not old, yet the assaults of disease had made him battle for his life more than once within the last few years. But it was

the unconquerable spirit of Ulysses that inspired the heroic figure so familiar to us all. The eyes lost none of their luster and the earnestness and fervor of the uplifted face were undimmed. He was never younger in his spirit than when he fell asleep.

Mr. Lane was married on July 18, 1878, to Frances Smallwood. She had taught ten years in the city, nine of which were in the old high school. She stood by his side whether in sunshine or in shadow. They have two daughters: Clara Lane Noble, and Harriet Lane. I would not invade the sanctuary wherein they dwell with the radiant memory of their dead, but upon the threshold of that inner chamber would lay a wreath of simple flowers, mute messengers of the love we bear him.

CHARLES DUNCAN McIVER

BY EDWIN A. ALDERMAN, CHARLOTTESVILLE, N. C.

At Lake George last summer in the home of a dear common friend, looking out over a scene of peace and quiet beauty, Charles McIver and I were talking of life and death and the flight of time that had carried us so swiftly past boyhood to middle life. Our moods alternated between boyish, unrestrained merriment and a certain strain of premonition and sadness. I recall saying, "Charles, you will outlive me and you will probably have to write some resolutions or say something about me when I am gone. Make it short. Just say that we had a good time together, pounding away at real things." He answered quickly, "Ed. Alderman, tho I look stronger than you, you may outlive me after all, and I will give you the same counsel." We were talking like children in the dark, as all of us poor mortals must talk, but I realize today how impossible it would be for me to speak of this strong and faithful friend, whom I knew and loved so well, and with whom I worked so intimately in the service of society, in any stately form of funeral eulogy. My very nearness to him, the elemental and vital character of his personality, make it most difficult for me to set down even this brief appreciation of him in formal sentences.

All of us who were close to him have the impulse to say simply, "Here was a great, strong, hopeful, buoyant, friendly soul who loved his fellows and builded enduringly for their welfare, and should be forever honored by them." Further words seem vain. Certainly, I shall not seek to recount the details of his career, nor to enumerate the positions he held, or could have held; nor, in any fashion, to use this memorial hour in a formal biography of him.

Charles Duncan McIver was born in a rural Scotch home, in the simplest part of the simplest democracy in America. This Scotch home was full of cleanness and reverence and faith in the dignity of humanity and the power of knowledge, and all of its ideals were ideals of self-respect and manly ambition. In the existence of a multitude of such homes lies the antidote for the

dangers of our over-nourished civilization and the safeguard of our republican ideals.[1]

I saw him for the first time in the autumn of 1878 at the State University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, whither he had preceded me as a student by one year. There was no mistaking the quality of this great big country boy, eager, restless, purposeful, hopeful, with a face and an eye wherein humor and sympathy and shrewd discernment struggled for the mastery. He had already become a leader among his fellows. There was no better place, I think, for the making of leaders in the world than Chapel Hill in the late seventies. The note of life was simple, rugged—almost primitive. Our young hearts, aflame with the impulses of youth, were quietly conscious of the vicissitudes and sufferings thru which our fathers had just passed. "The conquered banner" and the mournful threnodies of Father Ryan were yielding place to songs of hope. A heroic tradition pervaded the place, while hope and struggle, rather than despair or repining, shone in the purposes of the resolute men who were rebuilding the famous old school.

All of us were poor boys. Those who came from the towns looked, perhaps, a trifle more modish to the inexperienced eye, but they were just as poor as their country fellows, and had come out of just such simple homes of self-denial and self-sacrifice. The unconscious discipline and tutelage of defeat and fortitude and self-restraint had cradled us all. We had all seen in the faces of our patient mothers and grim fathers something that we knew, if we could not express, was not despair, and, somehow, life seemed very grand and duty easy and opportunity precious.

Reflect upon just a few of the names of the boys that were there then, and perhaps you will agree with me: Aycock, McIver, the Winstons, Doughton, Strange, Phillips, Murphy, Gattis, Noble, Joyner, Thomas, Peel, Battle, Dancy, Worth, McAllister, and many others high in industrial and commercial life. Student ambitions in that day tended almost entirely to law, or politics, or scholarship. The great industrial awakening, which has since beckoned, and now beckons, to so many of our young men, to take a hand in transform-

[1]Dr. McIver was born Sept. 27, 1860, on a farm near Sanford, Moore County, N. C. His paternal ancestors were from the Highlands of Scotland while on his mother's side he was a descendent of the McNeills of Scotland. His first seventeen years were spent on his father's farm and in attendance on private schools of the neighborhood. He entered the State University of North Carolina in 1877, graduating with high rank in 1881. In the following fall he became an assistant in a private school in Durham, N. C., and within a few months was elected prineipal of the school. He served as principal of the Durham public schools in 1883, and of the public schools of Winston in 1884 and 1885. In September, 1886, he was elected principal of the the literary department of the Peace Institute at Raleigh, N. C., where he remained until June 1889. In 1891 he assumed charge of the State Normal and Industrial College for Girls at Greensboro which he had labored so earnestly and successfully to establish and in which the most important part of his life work was done.—[Editor.]

ing our civilization from an agricultural into an industrial democracy, had not begun to make its appeal.

After four happy years of steady growth in scholarship and character, McIver passed from the university to the schoolroom in 1881. I followed him into the schoolroom in 1882, and our intimacy as fellow-workers began in 1886, lasting unbroken and curiously interwoven, until that quiet hour at Lake George, and in a deep spiritual sense, forever. He did his duty as an undergraduate respecting his body and his spirit. He even won Greek medals, but his thought was on men and student issues and college policies.

The story of his life from 1882 to 1896 is a clear, high story of human idealism and human achievement, which every boy in North Carolina should know and ponder, and which should cause the older men and women, who listen to the strident voices of unrest and pessimism, to know that the heart of this republic is true and sound, and that a heroic and noble simplicity lies at the root of our life. It is not an eventful story. It is not a story of thrilling vicissitude or startling change of circumstance. It is a story of earnestness and insight, of faith and purpose. His marriage to a noble woman, who sustained and strengthened him every day of his life; his clear sight of a great institution for the education of women in North Carolina; his brief and resistless battle for the attainment of that vision; a widening of that great conception into a passionate and whole-hearted dedication of himself to the education of all the people; the expansion of his nature under the spur of these high ideals; a splendid, joyous growth of his powers as they faced and overcame the difficulties that blocked his pathway; a serene and noble satisfaction in beholding his youthful dreams embodied in the school which he founded in forms of dignity and beauty and human training; the recognition of his worth, and the deep national value of his services by the whole republic, and a sort of unconscious apotheosis of him as the most useful citizen of his native state; the leader in all of its good causes. Is there not essential grandeur in the unbroken unity of this upward-striving story?

There are some scenes in our common experiences between 1886 and 1890 that my heart recalls, and that I shall mention even at the risk of bringing myself into a picture, which I would fain fill with his own glory and his own worth. The original idea of the establishment of the State Normal and Industrial College in North Carolina was born in the brain of Charles McIver. He did not borrow the idea from Massachussetts or New York. The whole scheme forced itself upon him out of the dust of injustice and negligence right under his eyes. I recall the day at Black Mountain in 1886, when he spoke of it to me in his compelling way, and won my quick sympathy and interest in the idea. His busy brain and unwearying energy rapidly drew friends to the movement, for no one who met him failed to hear of it. Together we drew up the first memorial to the legislature in its behalf, and I remember the day in 1886 that he as chairman, and George T. Winston, Edward P. Moses and myself as associates, presented this matter to the Committee on Education.

We knew that it was doomed, but we came away elated and somewhat excited over our first contact with legislative responsibility and greatness. We might not have been so elated, if we could have forseen how much contact we should have in the years to come—tho, if he were here, I believe he would agree with me in saying that the contact did us good, and surely he gave back more than he received.

I recall Commencement night at Chapel Hill in the year 1889. We were to start out in a few days on a new and untried experiment in North Carolina or the South, a deliberate effort by unique campaign methods to create and mold public opinion on the question of popular education, involving taxation for the benefit of others. We were in the twenties, and there were young wives and children at home, and the work we were undertaking was a temporary creation, due to the suggestion of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction and the good impulses of the legislature, which could not quite make up its mind to have done with us once and for all. There was no precedent for what we were trying to do, except Horace Mann, and he seemed so far off and so great, that each one of us would have laughed at the other for mentioning the comparison. I remember that we talked about our plans and purposes and difficulties until the cocks began to crow. I told him to let me say one more word and then let us both go to sleep. He replied, in his hearty, wholesome way, that he did not propose to be put to sleep and let me have the last word at the same time. We then decided to make a night of it, and talked on until the sun arose. I am inclined to think it about the best night I have ever spent, for an intelligent and unselfish idea held our youth under its spell, and bound us for life to a service, which was not the service of self. As I think of it today, the grim old room in the inn at Chapel Hill, and the silent watches of that night are lit with the light that never was on land or sea.

For three years, in every county of this state, we sought to mold public sentiment and direct public opinion toward the development of an adequate system of popular education and toward the establishment of a school for the training of teachers. Some day I shall hope to tell in detail the story of this crusade, for such it was in spirit and purpose. It had its discouragements and its comedies and its mistakes; but it was a time of full-blooded enthusiasm, exaltation, and faith in the people, and the experience taught McIver and it taught me the essential lovableness and justice and dignity of character and openmindedness of the average North Carolinian in a way we could never have otherwise learned. And some good seeds were sown, I think, which have increased some thirty, some sixty, and some an hundred fold. McIver was doubtful at first of his ability as a public speaker, but forgetting self in his purpose, he achieved in an amazing way the very thing that he did not think himself equal to, and quickly became the most effective speaker for public education that I have known in America. It was a dull and senseless audience that did not respond to his earnestness, the breathless onrush

of his appeal, heated red hot in the glow of his personality, and lighted with a homely humor and a shrewd adaptation of story and anecdote, unequalled in North Carolina since young Zeb Vance won his triumphant way. His task was to plead with an individualistic and conservative community, hating overmuch by reason of robbery and suffering the very word tax, for a democratic and communal institution costing large sums of money and a world of patience. His weapons were persuasion and charm and earnestness and humor and pleading and sympathy. They seem feeble weapons as compared to the money of the plutocrat or the force of the despot, but they found the heart of this just and reasonable democracy, and seem to prove that the solution of our peculiar difficulties must come not by might or force but by the spirit of love, justice, humanity, and progress. In company with Major Sidney M. Finger we wrote the law now upon the statute books, creating the State Normal and Industrial School of North Carolina at Greensboro, and selected the location for the building; and I should be false to justice and generosity, if I did not here pay tribute to the earnestness and enthusiasm and faithful support given to us during these days by Sidney M. Finger.

An interesting characteristic of the inspiring career of Charles McIver was its large unity and freedom from complexity. In studying either the man or his work, one does not meet with subtleties or whimsicalities or irritating contradiction, but one beholds rather a large movement of beneficent purpose, struggling onward to perfectly clear ends, and a big hearty nature ever "greeting the unseen with a cheer." In a true sense, his earthly career began with his sight of the school, over which he presided to the day of his death, and it ended where it began, but behold the all-embracing character of such spacious singlemindedness. As a consequence of this stimulating vision, came increased interest for popular education; as a result of his philosophic grasp of the meaning of popular education to a democracy, came a whole great theory of civic service and community helpfulness, and common-sense patriotism that tied him in closest sympathy to everything helpful, from hanging pictures on the walls of dreary country schoolhouses, to large sentimental schemes of relighting the fires of love for the homeland in the hearts of those who had strayed away. A clear vision, therefore, and a clean consecration of himself, in the generous ardor of youth, to the pursuit of that vision, wrought and molded him into a kind of perfection as an American citizen, exhibiting all the moral persistence of the Puritan in a setting of sunshine and sympathy.

> One who never turned his back, but marched breast forward,
> Never doubted clouds would break,
> Never dreamed, though right were worsted, wrong would triumph,
> Held we fall to rise, are baffled to fight better, sleep to wake.

The personality of Charles McIver interested and attracted men more than any sum of his attainments. His scholarship was not the scholarship of the schools, but rather a genius for sympathy with scholarship. Life was his thesis and men were his books and Love his method. The Scotch passion

for metaphysics had passed him by, leaving in its stead, a certain large understanding and a hearty insight that revealed any matter to him whole and entire. He gave the physical impression of being in a hurry, but he was never in a hurry mentally. He was a wilful man in a good sense, and loved to have his own way, but I have known no man with fewer blind prejudices to obscure his vision, He was not the sort of man who wanted everything, but the few fundamental things he sought, he kept a searchlight upon, and his hurrying figure could be seen moving toward them with resolute purpose. This freedom from hindering prejudices, and this singlemindedness, gave him a fine genius for co-operation and made him a beautiful man to work with, for you knew that his pride was not sticking out to get wounded, or his feelings to get hurt, or his toes to be trod upon. You were dealing with sanity and good will that knew when to compromise, when to surrender and when to fight. Men called him a good politician and so he was, if you will let me define a good politician as one who knows how to compel men to do deeds of public service that they would not have otherwise thought of. He was a royal good fighter, too, if you will let me define a fighter as a peaceful man, who is clear as to his purpose, who will not be gainsaid, who will not be set aside, who will not be cajoled, and who will come to his point. Besides, he was a Scotchman and had to fight something, and ignorance was his natural foe. Men of strong character are sometimes good haters. McIver was a very poor hater. He could not hate men and always exhibited a sort of pained surprise, unaccompanied with any ill-will or malignancy when men despitefully used him. He simply could not waste his moral strength in that most immoral of all passions, hatred.

If I were asked what was the greatest thing about Charles McIver, I should say that it was his interest and sympathy and love for men and women; not attractive men and women alone, or good men and women, or great men and women, but men and women. To him had come perhaps dimly the feeling that in rights and opportunities the final manhood of earth will be "classless and tribeless and nationless." A crowd always interested him and stirred his powers no matter how weary he was, and he moved about the crowd with a vast human interest shining in his face. I have seen him stop and speak to a young boy, half-formed and immature, with an interest informing his countenance, like that which shines in the face of a natural-history collector, who has just found a new object for his collection. The story of the rise of man is full of men like Thomas Jefferson, who loved humanity, and were willing to die for it, but often they were shy of the units in the mass of men. McIver loved men and women as he found them, and they returned his love. Few men have worked thru so busy a life, with so much sympathy and appreciation. He simply got what he gave.

Men who build or develop institutions, men who strengthen or preserve the social forces of their times, do so thru the exercise of faith and enthusiasm and patience and courage and energy, and these words might form a

brief biography of Charles McIver. As our revolutionary age demanded the prophet of human freedom, and the civil war period demanded steadfast courage, and the industrial period, the man of imagination and daring, so the decades between 1880 and 1906 in southern history demanded men with faith in education as a great agency for molding social and economic forces, and with power of personality and of brain to influence that most majestic of all human agencies—public opinion. Our institutions needed to be democratized; our thought to be nationalized; our life to be industrialized, and the whole process was one of education. The school was the heart of the South's problem and McIver saw that truth, and he will live forever in the history of this state as a great leader in this movement of transformation. It was, besides, his unique distinction to build outright a great institution. The State Normal and Industrial College, planted in the love and in the hearts of the people, will grow fairer in outward form, and richer in inward power, and as it grows the great traditions of his devotion will grow with it. In Emerson's fine phrase, this institution will be for all time the lengthened shadow of one man's life.

It is the purpose of those who love him to erect a statue to his memory. In so doing they will honor themselves and teach objectively a great lesson, but his school is his real monument. An institution of learning is the best earthly type of immortality. It is the only thing under the heavens that grows younger and stronger with the years. It is a creature of deathless function, of endless needs, of immortal youth. Great-grand-daughters will journey to it as to a pilgrimage, while young children will be playing about its knees, and the influence of all influences that will guide its life will be the influence of Charles Duncan McIver.

As for me, his death struck close at the foundations of my life. It was a thing my mind had never contemplated; for a certain unconquerable boyishness in him precluded the very thought of silence and the grave. I could not think of death in connection with this happy-starred, full-blooded man, in love with life and work. His passing closes for me a cycle in my life, a companionship of dreaming and work, of hope, and accomplishment, associated with the morning of life. Such work as he did must always go on and I would fain be in it and of it, but his absence somehow gives it another hue and quality. After I left North Carolina, by a strange coincidence to which he often alluded, we drew closer to each other in actual intimacy than ever before. Benign fortune set us to doing over an area extending from the Gulf to the Potomac, what we had once tried to do over the hills and valleys of North Carolina. We met often each year, sleeping in the same room, and talking in the night. I saved my stories for him, and he saved his for me. He incarnated North Carolina to me, suggesting its wholesomeness, telling me its incidents, its ambitions, its progress, and bringing me news of our old friends—those that had died and those that had married and those that were fighting the battles of ambition and life. Each meeting with him was

a bath of youth and good feeling and courage, that left me cleaner and stronger and fresher for my own tasks. I shall miss him sorely, in this breathing world, tho he is not dead either to my sight or spirit. Not only is he alive in the vague spiritual sense of the choir invisible molding the ideals and purposes of men, but he is alive and vital somewhere upon some mount of faith, and busy at work upon some good cause.

O strong soul, by what shore
Tarriest thou now? For that force,
Surely, has not been left vain,
Somewhere surely, afar,
In the sounding labour-house vast
Of being, is practiced that strength,
Zealous, beneficent, firm.

THOMAS BLANCHARD STOCKWELL

BY DAVID W. HOYT, PROVIDENCE, R. I.

Thomas Blanchard Stockwell, son of Amos W. and Susan Le Baron (March) Stockwell, was born in Worcester, Mass., July 6, 1839. The family removed to Chicopee, Mass., when Thomas was two years old, and his early education was received in the public schools of that place. When he was thirteen years of age, his father died, and he was thrown upon his own resources, with his mother and a younger brother dependent upon him. He provided a home for that mother many years, and tenderly cared for her as long as she lived.

He fitted for college in the Chicopee High School, of which George D. Robinson, afterward governor of Massachusetts, was principal; and the future career of Mr. Stockwell was to a great extent the result of Governor Robinson's influence over him, in that school. Mr. Stockwell entered Brown University in 1858, graduating in 1862, and receiving the degree of A.M. three years later. Here he came under the influence of that noted teacher, Professor S. S. Greene, for whom he was accustomed to express great respect and admiration.

After graduation, he served a short time as submaster of the Eaton Grammar School in New Haven, Conn., and then was appointed principal of the high school in Holyoke, Mass.

In March, 1864, he became a teacher in the Boys' Department of the Providence High School, and continued to serve in that capacity for eleven years. From 1867 to 1875 he was also associate editor and manager of the *Rhode Island School-master.*

In 1875 the monthly teachers' publications of the New England states were merged in the weekly *New England Journal of Education*, published in Boston. Hon. Thomas W. Bicknell, then commissioner of public schools for Rhode Island, resigned his position and became editor of the new periodical. Mr. Stockwell, thru his association with Mr. Bicknell in the publication of

the *School-master*, was already somewhat familiar with the duties of the commissioner's office, and his experience as a teacher in different grades of schools was an important qualification for the position. He was at once appointed to the office of commissioner of public schools for Rhode Island, and continued to fill that office till 1905, a period of thirty years of continuous service, longer than that of any other official occupying a similar state position in this country. He was also secretary of the State Board of Education and Board of Trustees of the State Normal School.

Mr. Stockwell commenced at once to make himself acquainted with every school district in the state. As a result of his travels and conferences thru many years, he became more thoroly acquainted with the condition and the people of the country towns than any other person has been, and this knowledge added much to his influence in those towns and in the General Assembly. His office was far from being that of a mere collector of statistics, tho that received due attention. He was constantly striving to improve the methods of instruction in the schools, and interest not only the teachers, but the parents, in the cause of education. This he did by meeting the people in their own towns, and by frequent conferences with them in his city office. The General Assembly was accustomed annually to place at his disposal a sum of money to be used for conducting institutes and obtaining lecturers for the purpose of securing these results. He was, of course, as commissioner, the most important member of the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction, whose annual meetings in Providence have been so fully attended by the teachers of the state.

The duties of his office were partly judicial. Many educational difficulties and controversies were brought before him for settlement, and it is much to his credit that so seldom was an appeal taken from his decisions to the courts of law.

His ability to recall the names and faces of those whom he had not seen for some time, and the hearty greeting with which he met them, added much to his fitness for the office he held. The teachers, of both public and private schools, regarded him as their personal friend, and often sought his counsel, in personal as well as educational matters.

The members of the General Assembly looked to him for information and advice, whenever a measure was proposed which affected public education. Notwithstanding the well-known disinclination of Rhode Islanders to make changes, during his long term of service he was able to secure important reforms—like the free textbook law and the certification of teachers—by quiet, patient, constant effort, year after year. The abolition of the school district system and the adoption of the town system he had long labored for, but hardly dared to hope that the change would be made during his lifetime. However, some of the more populous towns, one after another, voluntarily made the change, and at last, more than a year before the close of his administration, a law went into effect making the change binding upon the whole

state. The erection of the splendid building for the Rhode Island Normal School, the increase in the facilities for secondary education, the establishment of a large number of public libraries, and many other improvements, might be mentioned, were one to write a history of his administration.

He wrote *Annual Reports*, 1875–1905; also *A History of Public Education in the State of Rhode Island from* 1636 *to* 1876, a volume of 458 pages, published for the Centennial Exposition, now out of print, and highly valued by educators.

He was an influential member of the Barnard Club, an organization composed of male teachers of Rhode Island, of all grades, from university professors to grammar-school teachers. He was its second president, after its reorganization upon its present basis. He was for many years an active member of the American Institute of Instruction, and, since 1891, of the National Educational Association.

His efforts and influence were not confined to strictly educational circles, but were extended to various moral and philanthropic organizations in Providence and vicinity. Especially was his influence felt in religious matters. Soon after he became a permanent resident of Providence, he united with the Central Congregational Church, where he was highly honored and esteemed, and, for the last thirty years of his life, held the office of deacon.

His constant and conscientious devotion to the duties of his office after he became commissioner of schools prevented his taking proper vacations. Had he been more careful of himself, his life and usefulness might have been prolonged. In September, 1902, he suffered a slight stroke of paralysis, which was repeated two years later, in August, 1904. He soon after lost the control of his voice, so that it was with difficulty he could make himself understood, tho he retained, to a large extent, the use of his mental powers. Thru his own desire and the kindly consideration of the State Board of Education, he remained in office till the summer of 1905, thus retiring after thirty years of service.

For the next six months, he was able to walk about the streets near his home, but died very suddenly, in his own house, February 9, 1906, without being confined to his bed.

Mr. Stockwell was married May 15, 1866, to Miss Harriet E. Davis, of Westfield, Mass., who survives him, with their three sons: Rev. Frederick E. Stockwell, of Beverly, N. J.; Arthur M. Stockwell, of Oil City, Pa.; and Edward A. Stockwell, Esq., of Providence.

Soon after he was laid aside from active duties, the Barnard Club entered upon their records, and sent to him, a minute in which the following language was used:

> Teachers will miss his cordial greeting, his cheering presence, and wise counsel. All citizens will appreciate the helpful visits he has made to the schools in all parts of the state, his influence in securing wise and just laws for their guidance, his wise decisions of legal questions submitted to him, his unremitting application to all his varied duties, and his upright Christian character.

The State Board of Education passed the following resolutions upon the retirement of Mr. Stockwell:

In view of the resignation of Hon. Thomas B. Stockwell, the Commissioner of Public Schools and the Secretary of this Board, who for nearly the period of a lifetime has discharged the duties of the high office with great credit to himself and equal honor to the State;

Resolved, That this Board in accepting his resignation takes occasion to assure him of its very high esteem and deep regret that impaired health and consequent disability have rendered this act on his part necessary. In this connection the Board recalls with deep sensibility its own indebtedness and that of the state to the singularly devoted and efficient services by him continued with unflagging zeal thru thirty years. When the history of education in Rhode Island during these years shall be written, it will present Mr. Stockwell as the foremost among many able men and women doing effective work for the better education of all the children of the state.

A born teacher, i. e., having the ability and aptitudes for the nurture and training of youth, and enthusiasm that was nothing else than a consecration to the cause as his mission in life, ambitious for visible results, he welcomed the office he now retires from. An impulse of new life and interest in education was soon felt in all parts of the state, and it did not stop with the boundaries of Rhode Island. Teachers felt a new strength as of a leader and helper come to their aid. Parents were awakened, and legislators listened courteously to calls for appropriations that the new possibilities might be realized. In a word, the wheels of progress began to turn and the movement has gone grandly forward to this day, when we can justly and proudly say Rhode Island is quite abreast of the noblest states in our country in the matter of popular education.

Mr. Stockwell is an American of the best type, public-spirited, patriotic, with the courage of his convictions, progressive, his whole character seasoned by liberal studies and the spirit of a Christian gentleman. Quick to see opportunities of improvement, he has been wise and prudent in creating the public sentiment necessary to the adoption of new measures. Crotchets and fads have never beguiled him. With singular discrimination he has followed the verifiable paths of real progress. Educational forces have been concentrated, harmony promoted, a system established that has the prestige of the world's approval.

In it all the place of Mr. Stockwell is unique, for it is largely his monument. The Board congratulates him upon the fact that he retires from the field of his labors as the victorious soldier retires when the battle has been won and a grateful people give him joyful greeting.

This Board voices the general sentiment of this commonwealth when it wishes him a glad future, sweet and inspiring, with the love of a generation he has served and blessed.

The following is from a minute adopted by the Central Congregational Church of Providence.

On the ninth of February 1906, Deacon Thomas B. Stockwell entered into rest. Had another year been allotted to him, he would have completed forty years of membership and thirty years in the office of deacon in the Central Congregational Church.

During that long period of time his active co-operation has been constantly at the service of the church in all its Christian activities, making him prominent in the conference meetings, in the Sunday school, and in the social interests of the church.

His kind and cordial manner and his open sincerity made his acquaintance a pleasure to old and young; while his ready sympathy prompted him to minister as far as possible to the relief of the sick and afflicted by visits of condolence or other tokens of interest and brotherly love.

Brother Stockwell was firmly attached to the old standards of Christian belief. Amid

all assaults upon the credibility and authority of the Sacred Scriptures, he remained unmoved in his adherence to them as the only safe guide, and in loyalty to "the faith once delivered to the saints."

This church desires to place on record the esteem with which it regards the character of our departed brother, and its sorrow for his loss. His best memorial will be the recollection of his many valuable services to his fellow-men in public and private.

ALBERT PRESCOTT MARBLE

BY CLARENCE E. MELENEY, NEW YORK CITY

Albert Prescott Marble was born in Vassalboro, Maine, May 21, 1836, and died in New York City March 25, 1906. He was a son of John and Emeline Prescott Marble, of old New England stock. His early life was spent on the ancestral farm where he developed a robustness and vigor which laid the foundation of a well-developed physical and mental force that carried him thru a long and active career. By his own industry he laid up a small sum, sufficient to enable him to attend the academies at Yarmouth and at Waterville, and to begin his college course. He was over twenty-one years of age when he entered Colby University, then old Waterville College. It was the practice of students in that institution in those early days to earn their way thru college by teaching school during a winter vacation, and to pursue their studies thruout the rest of the year, except three or four weeks in summer. This short vacation was spent in the hay fields upon the home farm. Mr. Marble inherited not only a strong physique but marked intellectual ability and the moral qualities that characterized the men and women of New England communities. In college he was a diligent student and, having acquired more than the average of maturity thru years of labor and application to his books, he was able to excel in scholarship and to take high rank in his class. He won prizes in oratory and carried off many honors during his course. He graduated in 1861, and when later the Phi Beta Kappa was established he was enrolled as one of the early members of the chapter. In 1864 he received his master's degree, and later was honored with a doctorate. Dr. Marble had already begun his long life work as a teacher in elementary and high schools. He was principal of the Boynton High School in Eastport, Maine, of the Berkshire Family School in Stockbridge, Mass. In 1862 he went to Wisconsin, as professor of mathematics in Wayland University at Beaver Dam. Returning east, Dr. Marble became principal of Worcester Academy. At this time the academy was in the depths, both financially and educationally, and the trustees decided to give up the undertaking and turn over what funds there were to Newton Theological Institution. Power was asked from the legislature to do this, but Dr. Marble had the wisdom and courage to oppose the proposition, and his opposition was so effective that the power was not granted for the transfer. Thus a useful and worthy institution was saved for general education, which became under his management and during recent years one of the most important and successful secondary

schools in the country. His success in this institution led to his election as superintendent of schools in Worcester in 1868, which position he held till 1894. During these twenty-six years Dr. Marble became one of the most active and prominent superintendents in the country and a leader not only in his own state but in the nation. He took charge of the schools in Worcester when there was practically no organization, and built up an effective city school system. He gathered around him a group of masters and a corps of teachers that worked in the greatest harmony with him during his incumbency of this responsible position. He was an administrator of tact, discretion, and power. He showed remarkable wisdom and foresight in what he did and a constructive force of the highest order. He anticipated what the requirements of the future would be, and fitted the present needs to these conditions. He was able to win to his support rival elements in his school committee, to conciliate opposition, and to direct and control both radical and conservative forces. He gave much attention to the proper construction and equipment of schoolhouses, realizing the importance of modern sanitary and hygienic conditions. For many years the school buildings in Worcester were regarded as the best models in the state, and his leadership in this work had a great influence in establishing in Massachussetts the system of schoolhouse sanitation which has made the state famous. Dr. Marble was the author of a work on School-House Construction and Sanitation published by the U. S. Commissioner of Education. In the administration of the schools of Worcester, Mr. Marble recognized the ability, the resourcefulness, the integrity and the loyalty to the system of the principals of his schools and the directors of the special branches. He had absolute confidence in them and they believed in him. He realized that they were able to work out the details of instruction, and to put into that effort their individuality, their enthusiasm, and their professional spirit. He never hampered or retarded progress by petty criticism, too close oversight, or the obtrusion of his own theories. He was recognized as a friend of the teachers, observant, sympathetic, appreciative. He never occasioned fear in the breast of the timid or inexperienced teacher, nor did he worry the moderate or anxious seeker after truth. He realized the limitations of human effort, and accepted the results of faithful and conscientious service. The State Normal School in that city supplied the schools with many of the teachers, and they found under his supervision the necessary opportunity for apprenticeship and for the development of efficiency.

In those years Worcester like many other cities in the country proved to be a field where it was always necessary steadfastly to maintain the position, the rights, and the prerogative of the superintendent. There were earnest and well-meaning people who were impatient of delays and eager for the adoption of the most advanced ideas on school work. To them Dr. Marble appeared to stand in the way of progress. Nevertheless the elementary schools maintained a high standard and the high schools became models of

efficiency. Dr. Marble was one of the first superintendents to recognize the importance of the English high school as differentiated from the old-time classical school, and he had the honor of founding an institution of that kind that had the effect of raising the standard of secondary education along all lines of training and culture. When the advocates of manual training became active and proclaimed this feature of school work as the measure of educational progress, Dr. Marble was not carried away with it, nor did he join in the procession. He had little respect for "newness," and placed his confidence in the "presumption of brains." He was wise enough to recognize the value of a system which could be worked out by a conservative study of all the elements that contribute to a complete education. In his mature experience as an educator he came to realize the broader means of training of the young, and contributed his strength to the establishment of all-round courses of instruction.

From Worcester Dr. Marble went to Omaha as superintendent of schools, but remained only about a year in that city. In 1896 the school system of New York City was revolutionized by an act of the legislature which authorized the appointment of a new board of education and provided for a board of superintendents which should institute all educational measures, examine candidates for principals and teachers, and establish eligible lists, make all nominations, recommend the establishment of schools, the courses of studies and textbooks, and administer and manage the schools. In June the new Board of Education elected several men who had acquired experience in other states to membership in the Board of Superintendents, one of whom was Dr. Marble. This was a field in which he was qualified by years of persistent and energetic work to undertake great responsibility. His knowledge and ability was soon recognized and he was made chairman of the Committee on High Schools. In this position Dr. Marble achieved a success which was the crowning work of his long career. It made him the leader in the organization of the three first high schools established in the city of New York, the preparation of courses of study, and the selection of principals and teachers. To support him in the Board of Education in all legislation and in financial matters necessary for the erection and equipment of new buildings, he had a committee headed by Hon. Henry W. Taft whose wisdom, foresight, and energy were essential to ensure the success of so great an undertaking. When the new charter of the greater city was put into operation, by which the schools of all the boroughs were placed under one management, Dr. Marble was elected to the new Board of Superintendents and appointed chairman of the new committee on high schools. His knowledge of high-school work and his wide acquaintance with high-school principals and teachers qualified him in an eminent degree to undertake the work of organizing and extending this department of the school system. He retained this position until his impaired health and declining powers made it necessary for him to be relieved. He also retained his intereest in and relations to the

elementary schools. He was an intelligent and sympathetic advocate of the progressive yet conservative development of the school system in all its varied activities. He encouraged the development and extension of kindergartens, manual and industrial education, and the vacation schools. He took a large view of the important educational problems being worked out in the metropolis, realizing the breadth and comprehensiveness of all their relations. He was not easily disturbed by the slow development of great undertakings and seldom ruffled by opposition or criticism. He always had absolute confidence in his associates, respected the opinion of others, and co-operated unhesitatingly in every undertaking of importance. He made friends among the teachers by his genial and sympathizing interest in their work and was always welcome in the classroom.

In New York, Dr. Marble was identified with many organizations of school men, including those engaged in public and private institutions. He contributed from his wide experience to their deliberations and discussions of live subjects. He was warmly greeted in social circles, and his ready wit and good common-sense always contributed to social enjoyment. He was blessed with an even temper, an open-hearted generosity and a cheerful disposition. He was always approachable, courteous, dignified. He commanded respect at all times and was admired for his courteous and gentlemanly qualities.

During the last quarter of the century Dr. Marble has been recognized as one of the prominent educators of the country. He was active in state and national gatherings of teachers, contributing by service and by his papers to the success of the organizations. He was one of the founders of the N. E. A. and held the office of secretary and president. He was the president of the Department of Superintendence of the N. E. A. in 1869. In those years he was a fluent and engaging speaker, winning his points by his practical and common-sense views. He contributed much to educational discussions by his addresses, his school reports, and his articles in educational periodicals. Dr. Marble did not confine his interests and his activity to the public schools. His counsel was sought by other educational bodies, he having been a member of the boards of trustees of several of the higher institutions of learning. An editorial estimate of Dr. Marble in a New York paper was expressed, perhaps justly, as follows:

> He was an outgrowth of the independent, self-respecting New England school of educators, who have taken a leading share in establishing the standards of public education in the country. He was perhaps not in close touch with many of the extreme ideas that became current and popular during the last decade, but he lived to see a tendency to reaction towards his own views. He did not take educational progress too seriously, recognizing that there was always a dividing line of experiment. He was in harmony with the best human methods. He was a trained teacher in all branches of school work, more particularly in high-school studies, and if he came to the schools of this city [New York] somewhat late in life to enter fully into the deeper interest and detail, he never failed to present a broad, pleasant, and congenial attitude to that work. He would contribute

a cheerful and timely word or thought to aid teachers in their efforts at progress, and his kindly presence will be often and tenderly recalled.

In closing this brief sketch of the career of Dr. Albert Prescott Marble, I can employ no language more fitting than the following paragraphs taken from the resolutions adopted by the Board of Superintendents of this city which appears in the minutes of March, 29, 1906:

Among the educators of the United States he was a leader, and among the school superintendents at large he was eminent. He brought to the work upon which he entered in the city of New York a ripe scholarship, a broad experience, a knowledge of educational problems, and a capacity for administration that have been exhibited by few of his contemporaries. In the organizaiton of the great high-school system which is now found in the boroughs of Manhattan and The Bronx, and also in the work of the Board of Superintendents during the past four years, he took a leading and active part. His counsel was always sound and his judgment could safely be followed.

Those qualities which most endeared Dr. Marble to his associates and to all who came in contact with him were a rare sweetness of temper, a courtesy that never failed, a geniality that knew no difference of rank or station, an unswerving steadfastness of purpose, an unconscious dignity of bearing that marked him as distinguished, and a high and noble conception of duty and honor. His circle of friends was as wide as his acquaintance.

To his associates in the Board of Superintendents the news of Dr. Marble's serious illness came with deep regret, and the tidings of his death brought the keenest sorrow. The loss is not only that of an associate, but of a friend and comrade. It is the loss of one whose knowledge was at our service, whose advice or assistance was ever at our command, whose sympathetic interest was always alive, whose fellowship we prized.

PAPERS CONTRIBUTED FOR THE ANNIVERSARY VOLUME

BY MEMBERS IN THE UNITED STATES

FIFTY YEARS OF AMERICAN EDUCATION

ELMER ELLSWORTH BROWN, COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION OF THE UNITED STATES

The National Educational Association, in its inception, was one of the earnest endeavors to arrive at a national view of the common interests of all sections of this country, which marked the third quarter of the nineteenth century, both before and after the Civil War. It followed after the great educational revival of the second quarter of that century, which was in fact a revival, if not a new creation, of public conscience in the matter of the education of the whole people. In the year 1857 that revival had passed its first enthusiasm, but it had already carried the American people forward to an educational position far in advance of any which they had previously attained, a position from which they have never receded and are not likely ever to recede. The tangible results of the revival were seen in the spread and the strengthening of school supervision in state and city and county; in the growth of state school funds and local taxation for schools; in the organization of schools in a well-graded system; in the earlier provision for compulsory education; and in the rapid growth of public high schools and of state normal schools.

The revival had to do primarily with education of an elementary grade, but its influence spread slowly upward and was felt in the highest institutions. In spite of the rapid growth of public high schools, the standard agency for secondary education was still the privately managed academy. Between the public high school and the college there was still a wide gap, and the thought that this gap ever would or ever could be bridged by the high school was not a widespread conviction. The colleges were pursuing in the main their old traditional course of classical training. Some faint beginnings had been made in the differentiation of their courses, but the established tradition was hardly shaken as yet. It was only a very brittle and hardly recognized bond which joined them with the schools of the people. Some of them had contributed mightily to the development of elementary school systems, but it was by way of a missionary propaganda and not by way of an identification of interests. The earlier state universities had already come into being, but they had not yet been able to emancipate themselves from the current tradition of higher education. They, too, were old-line classical colleges, only holding in their form of organization an unrealized capacity for responding to the still unformed aspirations of new commonwealths.

The tendencies of naturalism in education had not yet come to their full influence. The first Pestalozzian wave in this country was past, and the second wave had not yet culminated. Across the seas, Darwin and Spencer and Huxley and Helmholtz had begun their great work, and the soil of America was already prepared for the seeds of their sowing. Agassiz was at Harvard and Arnold Guyot at Princeton, and American natural science, still drawing some of its inspiration from Benjamin Franklin and from the group of scientists gathered at Yale by the first Timothy Dwight, was preparing to utilize, to the full, the forces which Europe had set in motion. American invention was already in full swing. A population of twenty-three millions in 1850, and thirty-one millions in 1860, was annually taking out in the intervening decade two thousand patents for their inventions; yet American technical instruction, the training of hand and eye to follow the guidance of constructive imagination in the field of material things, had made only the smallest beginnings. The national government had its schools of war at West Point and Annapolis, and their influence was felt in the training of engineers; the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute and one or two other institutions were doing pioneer work in the technological field; agricultural education was much talked about, and was actually attempted here and there, but had not yet found itself; the first kindergarten had been established in Germany less than twenty years before this time, and the few kindergartens opened in America before the Civil War were educational curiosities; manual training in the schools was hardly a dream as yet, and drawing for technical ends and the whole range of training for the fine arts existed only in a crude and provisional way.

If this were a review of the fifty years preceding the eighteen-hundred-fifties, it would be easy to show that the time had been one of very great improvement. But the really glorious advance of that period had still left a greater work undone. The task which faced the men of the fifties was truly formidable, and it called for a closer co-operation of educational forces thruout the land.

Shortly after the founding of this National Educational Association, the continued existence of the nation in its entirety was threatened, and civil war was the result. The re-established unity was in many respects a different nation from that which had been, a nation equipped for greater undertakings, and in the course of time bound together by stronger ties than anyone in that time of strife could have hoped to see. The thirty-three states of 1860 had increased to forty-five in 1900. The population of thirty-one millions in 1860 had increased at the end of the century to seventy-six millions, and is now fast approaching ninety millions. In addition to the natural increase of a flourishing people, there has been a tremendous increase by immigration from all parts of the world, of people representing all manner of national and racial history, an immigration which has never in any one year of that period fallen below 72,183, the number for the year 1862, and which rose in the year 1906 to 1,100,735. The 387 daily newspapers of 1860

had risen in 1900 to 2,226, and the circulation of weekly journals and monthly magazines had increased enormously. The number of volumes in public libraries increased from eleven and one-half millions in 1875 to fifty-four and one-half millions in 1903. The whole industrial system of the South has been changed by the abolition of slavery. The accumulation of large capital and the growth of gigantic industrial operations have introduced new forms of organization of both capital and labor, and have brought to the front the weightiest problems of industrial administration that any people have ever faced. The morals of a crude, young society, a large part of whose inhabited territory was on or near the frontier of civilization, have had to undergo readjustment to new conditions of public and private life. Where 16 per cent. of the population lived in cities in the year 1860, 33 per cent. lived in cities in the year 1900, and the ideals and usages of urban life have been so spread abroad by improved means of travel and communication that already the city is dominant thruout our civilization. The increase of urbanity in American life has already affected the American character most profoundly. With this urbanity has come a cosmopolitan tendency and interest in the affairs of the world. As our nation has come to take a new place among the nations of the earth, our people have shown a readiness to interest themselves in the larger interests of mankind.

All of these various movements and tendencies have been interwoven in the most intricate and interesting relationships. The realistic movement in the several arts, the ethical trend in religion, the economic influence in political life, all of these things have entered most intimately into the tremendous complication. We are to see, in the rudest outline, how American education has engaged in the movement of these fifty years, and, with more or less of inspiration and guidance from the National Educational Association, has played its part therein. Here as everywhere the educational movement has been both cause and effect of the large development of our civilization.

Few people understand how great is the first, elemental responsibility of educational institutions, that of holding successive generations up to the culture level of their predecessors. This alone is a tremendous task, which the schools are not always able to discharge in the face of adverse circumstances. The difficulty of that task is vastly increased when the people to be educated are spreading out into new territories and are taking into themselves large elements of population from foreign civilizations. Add to this the responsibility which modern and democratic aspirations impose, of educating each generation better than its predecessors, more extensively and more variously, and the task with which our schools have wrestled during these fifty years is seen to be one of almost overwhelming difficulty.

Only a few of the countless aspects of our educational life during this half-century can be mentioned here, and they can be mentioned only with the utmost brevity.

1. The enormous growth of public high schools in this period has frequently been mentioned. It is not only the numerical increase of such schools and of their attendance of students which is notable, but the fact that in this period the public high school, occupying a central position in our series of educational institutions, has come to exercise a most significant influence upon the whole educational system. Closing up, by an irresistible growth, that great gulf between the schools of the whole people and the institutions of higher education, the high school and its problems have come to constitute a very center of interest in all American education, an interest shared by schools both above and below the high-school grade.

The historical table carefully prepared by Dr. Harris shows that there were in existence in the year 1860 only 69 high schools having a well-defined high-school course of study. The number of incomplete high schools at that date was much larger; but the standard American institution of that period, for secondary education, was still the privately managed academy. With the increase of population in the decades following the Civil War, the attendance on both public and private schools of secondary grade steadily increased, but the public high schools grew more rapidly than their competitors. In the decade between 1880 and 1890 the center of gravity of our secondary education, as shown by the attendance of students, shifted from the side of the private academy to the side of the public high school. Since that time the privately managed institutions have continued their steady growth, but the growth of public high schools has been so great as to constitute one of the most striking features in our educational history. The 202,963 students in attendance on these high schools in the year 1890 had increased in the year 1905 to 679,702 students. In the same time there had appeared many of the most notable publications yet issued in this country relating to the problems of secondary education; and the influence of schools of this grade, and of various bodies of teachers representing the schools of this grade, had grown enormously.

2. The period last referred to might indeed be designated as the age of the high school, were it not that with even more reason it may be called the university age of our history. Indeed, the last half-century has been a time of remaking of our higher education. Practically the whole history of the American university falls within that period. It is a most significant fact in our American life that the university, which has come into being so rapidly, yet so largely without observation, has come to exercise so powerful an influence in the higher life of the nation.

Before the time of our Civil War there had, to be sure, been foreshadowings of the American university. Harvard, bearing the university name, had already begun to experiment in the elective system. Francis Wayland, one of the seers among our college presidents, had dared propose radical changes in the college system of his time. Scientific courses had begun to appear in the colleges side by side with the ancient course leading to the degree of Bachelor of Arts. President Tappan, of the University of Michigan, had received a

profound impress from the university system of Germany, and had published large plans for the development of the institution over which he presided. But the real university movement in this country followed the Civil War. Some of its characteristic signs were private endowments of university instruction, the upbuilding of instruction in natural science, the introduction and spread of laboratory methods of teaching and of the modified German *Seminar*, the rapid extension of technological training, the development of graduate schools, and the spread of the conception of independent research. Among the landmarks in this movement may be mentioned the establishment of Cornell University in 1868, with the purpose that it should be an institution where any man may receive instruction in any subject, and the direction given to the first embodiment of that purpose by President Andrew Dickson White; the presidency of Charles W. Eliot at Harvard, beginning in 1869, and extending over three-fourths of the period represented by the history of this Association—a presidency marked by positive leadership in the making of many-sided academic freedom, in the advancement of American standards of professional training, and in the vital co-ordination of elementary and higher education; the long leadership of Michigan University among the state universities of this country, under the presidency of James B. Angell, beginning only two years later than that of President Eliot, which in large measure fulfilled and in many respects surpassed the vision of President Tappan, and contributed greatly to the unification of public education in our state systems of schools; the opening of Johns Hopkins University in 1876, and its early organization under Daniel C. Gilman, as the first American institution to give precedence to the advanced study and research distinctive of the modern university; the decisive emphasis upon the idea of graduate work in the establishment of Clark University in the year 1889, and its organization by President G. Stanley Hall as an institution definitely raised above the baccalaureate rank; the long development and all-round organization of the various elements that go to make an American university in the history of Columbia College, later Columbia University, under President Barnard and his illustrious successors; later endowments of great magnitude, such as those of the University of Chicago and the Leland Stanford Junior University, together with new endowments of older institutions. It is a record of vast significance, and this brief enumeration has only begun to mention the names of those who have borne large responsibilities in its making, the foundations thru which it has been promoted, and the intellectual and spiritual achievements with which it has been attended. The 225 colleges and universities of 1860 had risen to 317 in 1870, and to 512 in 1905; the 23,392 college and university students in 1872 had increased to 126,404 in 1905; while the 198 graduate students of 1870 had increased to 6,829 in 1905. These figures, however, give no adequate indication of the growth of the university spirit in American affairs. The very idea of free scientific research, as it has gained ground with the American public, has helped in a remarkable degree to educate and mold the American character.

The university extension movement in its various forms, and to a vastly greater degree the organic integration of American educational systems, from the lowest schools to the highest, has given a general currency to university conceptions, which had probably never been reached before over so wide a territory and among so numerous a people. The university insistence upon pure competence, impartially determined, and upon the willingness to wait, in any controversy, for the word of the man who knows—a spirit which is none too widely spread abroad even at the present day—has, I think, gone further in the thought of our American people than was ever known in any preceding age.

3. It is in these fifty years that the constructive side of education has fairly begun to assert itself—that side of education which represents the skilled hand, under the control of a disciplined imagination, and guided by knowledge of the physical world and of the products of human history. Here, as in the teaching of natural science, there have been movements from the side of both the highest and the lowest in our educational systems, which have met and mingled in the intervening grades to make some semblance of a continuous education of a constructive sort. The kindergarten has played its large part in this movement. That brilliant invention of the pure-minded German enthusiast has indeed aimed at other and larger things than merely intelligent work of hand, but in no one direction has its influence been more discernible than in that of making the hand the ally of the spirit in the process of education. The growth of schools of technology has given new dignity to the higher constructive activities, and the intermediate development of manual training, through many maladjustments to the philosophic purpose of the kindergarten and to the professional purpose of the school of technology, has been finding its place and doing its work, till it has come to be a marked feature of our American systems of education.

There were 42 kindergartens in this country in the year 1873. This number had grown in the year 1902 to 3,244, of which 2,202 were connected with public-school systems, and 1,042 were private institutions. The earliest report of manual-training schools, that of the year 1890, shows that such training was given in 37 cities of this country. The number had increased in the year 1905 to 420 cities. These figures do not take account of the considerable work which has been done in the establishment of manual-training schools under private auspices, and privately managed trade schools. Some very small beginnings have even been made in the introduction of regular trade schools into public-school systems, and it is not unlikely that this movement may go to great lengths in the coming years.

Since the close of the Civil War the establishment of technological schools and of technological courses in universities has been very rapid, there being now more than one hundred institutions offering courses in civil engineering and almost as many offering electrical and mechanical engineering courses.

There are enrolled at the present time 29,200 students in engineering and other technical courses of college grade.

4. In connection with the development of higher technical instruction in this country, special attention should be paid to the great national system of agricultural and mechanical colleges, which was inaugurated by the Morrill Act of July 2, 1862, and has been greatly furthered by later acts of Congress and by legislation in the several states. The initial act of this series constitutes the great contribution of the war period to the development of a national system of education, and is in some sense the crowning educational service of President Lincoln. The deep devotion with which Justin S. Morrill fathered this measure and labored for the improvement of the schools which he had helped to call into existence, forms one of the finest passages in our educational history. It was a matter of the utmost difficulty to bring into being, at that period, efficient institutions for instruction in agriculture and technology. Without the encouragement of the national government, and the painstaking labors of educational pioneers in the several states, the great results which the Morrill Act sought to accomplish could hardly have been attained. It may be doubted whether the nation fully appreciates to this day the magnitude of the resulting system of technical institutions. Fifty state colleges and universities have either sprung directly from this national endowment, or have received from it new direction and encouragement, in addition to sixteen schools specifically for colored students in the southern states. The terms of the national endowment, as embodied in the first Morrill Act, were so liberal as to enable the institutions founded thereon to be comprehensive universities of the American type; they must lay due emphasis on instruction in agriculture and the mechanic arts, but are enabled to bring such instruction into organic integration with a well-rounded system of higher education. Here is already a national university, in sixty-six free and independent schools. The secondary influences which have flowed from this foundation are already of very great importance, and promise to be still more largely influential and useful in the future. Particularly in those states in which the benefits of the Morrill Act have been concentrated in the state university, as in Wisconsin, Illinois, and California, there has come into being a remarkable type of higher education. We see here a whole people engaged most intimately in the conduct of a higher institution of learning, which at the same time is educating the whole people.

5. The movement toward a more effective supervision of the public schools, which was greatly furthered by the educational revival, has gone steadily forward during the period now under consideration. In every one of the states is now found a regularly organized state department of education, Delaware, the last of the older states to organize such a department, having taken that step in the year 1875. In recent years the tendency to centralization of educational control in these state departments of education has con-

stituted a well-defined movement, some of the states, as New York, Wisconsin, and Minnesota, having taken very long strides in this direction. By town and county organization, the country schools of all of the states are brought under some form of inspection and guidance. Supervision has, however, reached its most complete development in a number of our larger cities. In fact the whole movement in the organization of city school systems, which has gone over into a distinctly new stage in the past ten or twelve years, is one of the most marked changes which this half-century has brought about. It is a change which, along with the other urbanizing tendencies of this modern age, is spreading its influence to the remotest school districts of our land. One could hardly begin to set forth the characteristics of this recent movement in such a paper as this, nor is it necessary, in view of the fact that the movement has been widely discussed in books and monographs and articles in our magazines. The careful separation of the business side of school supervision from the pedagogic side, the constitution of boards of education with a view to a fair representation of the educational purposes of the community and the suppression of political partisanship in their affairs, the organization of such boards in efficient working committees, the provision for systems of school finance intended to secure adequate funds and to accomplish a wise distribution and expenditure of such funds, the organization of large supervising bodies, with deputy and district superintendents, supervisors of special subjects, and principals of separate schools; and all manner of special provision for different subjects of instruction and for the training of different classes of pupils, for hygienic management, for school extension of many kinds—all of these things have combined to render the educational systems of our large cities among the most interesting social engineries of modern times.

6. This movement in school supervision in state and city and far-outlying country community has taken on the greater part of its active efficiency during the lifetime of this Association. In accordance with the early historical character of our government, we have no centralized national system of education. But while the supervision of our state school systems does not devolve upon the national government, the fact was early recognized that a great work was needed in the form of a wide dissemination of such information as makes for educational progress, and that this work and many incidental services connected therewith could be adequately performed only by a national, governmental institution. At an early stage in its history the National Educational Association called public attention to the urgency of this need, and out of its agitation emerged the Bureau of Education of the United States. This education office, ten years younger than the Association, has, in the first thirty-nine years of its existence, been under the administration of only four commissioners, the present incumbent being the fifth in the line. Without attempting any summary of its history I may mention the following facts with reference to these four administrations:

The office was first organized by Henry Barnard, who was already, and had

been for many years, in his individual capacity, a national collector and distributor of educational information. Under General John Eaton, who presided over its activities for the term of sixteen years, the system of annual reports took definite form, together with the publication of circulars of information and miscellaneous educational bulletins. In his administration, the conduct of education in Alaska was placed under the direction of this office. The three years' commissionership of Colonel N. H. R. Dawson is remembered especially for the inauguration of that comprehensive series of state educational histories the publication of which was extended over many years of the administration following his own. That fourth administration, of Dr. William T. Harris, marked in many ways a great advance in the history of this office as regards its educational dignity, its reputation, national and international, and its personal influence in our American civilization. The course of Dr. Harris' administration was signalized by the more thoro organization of the statistical work of the bureau, by a great increase in the volume of its publications, by the extension of its special activities to include the supervision of the allotment of the national appropriation for agricultural and mechanical colleges under the second Morrill Act, of August 30, 1890, and by the addition to its other educational service in Alaska of the introduction of domestic reindeer and of industrial training in connection therewith. In the prosecution of these various educational activities, this education office, this foster child of the National Educational Association, has collected a truly national library of educational documents, and has brought into being a system of practical relationships with educational movements thruout this country, which have enabled it to share in one way or another in a large part of the distinct educational achievements of this past half-century.

7. The period under review has been characterized by an enormous increase in the funds made available for education in the several states and territories of our Union. In the year 1870, with a population of thirty-eight millions, the expenditures for education in the several states aggregated sixty-three millions of dollars; in the year 1905, with a population estimated at eighty-two millions, the expenditures for education in the several states aggregated two hundred eighty-eight millions of dollars. That is, an expenditure per capita, for education in the public schools in the year 1870, of $1.64, had increased in the year 1905 to an expenditure per capita of $3.49, while an expenditure of $2.10 in the year 1870 for each $1,000 of estimated true value of property had increased to $2.70 for each $1,000 in the year 1905. These figures relate to public systems of education alone, and do not include expenditures for state universities. The expenditures for higher education, public and private, within that same period of thirty-five years, have advanced from seven millions of dollars in 1873 to forty-two millions of dollars in 1905. It is estimated that the total expenditure for all forms of education in this country, public and private, in the year 1905 had reached the truly colossal sum of $376,996,472. This amount equals 26 per cent. of all expenditures for governmental

purposes in this country, national, state, and local; while the expenditures in all of the states for publicly supported education constituted in the same year 22 per cent. of the total public expenditure of all the states, counties, and lesser political units for all purposes whatsoever.

8. In no other direction has this enormous expenditure of funds for public education produced such conspicuous and tangible results as in the erection of buildings for educational purposes, and the furnishing and adornment of those buildings, together with provision of laboratories for teaching purposes, and other appliances. This is one of the first aspects of American education to strike the attention of our visitors from abroad. It may be said that in the main these expenditures for the material equipment of our schools have been justified, and the results have been such as may rightly arouse our national pride. Especially is this the case where adequate care has been taken to secure in our school structures not only suitable proportions and well-considered lines of architectural beauty, but more particularly where care and expense and inventive genius have combined to produce structures which are hygienic in plan and construction; where such buildings have been provided with gymnasiums, playgrounds, baths, and other appliances for promoting the health of pupils; and where these appliances in turn have been supplemented by instruction, medical inspection, and personal oversight, directed to the making of sound health in our school population.

9. When we come to consider dominant tendencies in our ordinary school education, in city and country alike, we are met with a fact which is strongly emphasized by foreign critics of American schools, a fact, too, which we may easily recognize here at home. I refer to the great regard which is paid in American education to the characteristics and inclinations of individual pupils —to what one of our recent foreign visitors calls our American respect for "the right of personality." There is no doubt that we have gone further than most of the nations of the earth in our deference to the leadings of nature, as shown in the varying bent and tendency of childhood. We pay respect to the leadings of personality and of individuality in our education of every grade, looking upon these things as the very data from which our educational doctrine and method are to be constructed. The elective system in our colleges is of a piece with this regard for the leadings of child nature in our elementary schools. We have here a well-defined tendency in our American democracy. It has been made in part and in part discovered by some of our best-known leaders of educational thought and practice. In some sense, this tendency all goes back to the Pestalozzian movement, back to Rousseau and the Émile. It received vigorous emphasis at the hands of Francis W. Parker, whose virile leadership and whole-souled devotion to his ideal were at once intensely Pestalozzian and intensely American. A new direction of a most significant sort has been given to this tendency by the philosophic insight of John Dewey. And with it all, a veritable fire mist, which may be for the making of new

worlds, psychological and educational, has spread abroad from that central glow at Clark University.

This is all very democratic and very American. In our democracy we have had many leaders of public thought who in large measure were men self-educated. We know something of the weakness of self-education but we know also very much of its strength; and it is hardly too much to say that our American educational ideal has come to be the ideal of organized self-education. We would make of every school a favoring environment, in which each pupil shall find his own opportunity and stimulus, and shall begin the working out of his own true destiny.

This is well-nigh an impossible undertaking—to present in a few pages even a bare hint of the movement of American education in the fifty years which are under review. Nothing has yet been said of the slow development of our commercial education, which has taken on new promise within the past few years; of the movement in coeducation and the higher education of women, in which the first difficult problems have already been solved, and others equally difficult and important are immediately before us; of the new education in physiology and hygiene, with its regard for both hygienic and moral values; of the peculiar and noteworthy development of school systems in the southern states since the close of the Civil War; of provision which has been made for the education of the negro and the Indian in our states and territories, and of peoples both of our own race and of alien races in our more recently acquired dependencies; of the special education of members of both defective and delinquent classes; of the great development of public libraries, those indispensable adjuncts of a highly developed educational system; of summer-school instruction and university extension in all of their numerous forms; of movements for making a more varied use of both the public school "plant" and of systems of public parks for manifold purposes of public education; of the remarkable growth of the text-book business and the varied business of school supply, which have been an essential element in the making of American education, while new evils and new problems have grown up with their growth. And nothing has been said of the integration in single institutions of many diverse intellectual and spiritual interests, touching the fine arts, technology, commerce, journalism, and others without limit, which has become a characteristic of the American type of university; of the transformation of our professional schools, particularly those of law and medicine; of the development of learned societies and the increase of productive scholarship in the higher fields of learning, which made possible, on American soil, the Congress of Arts and Science at Saint Louis in the year 1904; of princely benefactions for education of every grade—ten millions for the endowment of research, a like amount for the endowment of college teaching, again a like amount for the furtherance of general education, and other gifts that are comparable with these; nor of the significant advance of that international spirit which is

binding the schools of all civilized nations into one great world-institution—a new world-power which transcends even national lines. All of these matters and many others call for extended and careful consideration, which they cannot receive in this paper.

While there is much in the history we have been considering that adds of right to our national pride, we must not overlook the fact that even now we are only at the beginning of things. The end of this fifty-year period finds us on the threshold of a new age, with new problems before us and difficulties greater than those we have surmounted. Some of these unfinished ends of the work of the years now past have already been referred to above. Our secondary schools must become better differentiated to meet the needs of our people, and more widely extended to meet the needs of all. Their adjustments to schools above and below must be made closer and more vital. Our universities have only begun to deal with the problem of educating vast bodies of immature students in single institutions, and their problems of professional and graduate study are numerous and are pressing for early solution. The great unsettled question, too, of the new place and purpose of our old national type of higher education, the American college, is one that cannot be ignored. Our schools and colleges for trade and technical instruction have not yet come into their full adjustment to either our educational or our industrial system. We can not doubt that these institutions are to see a very large development in the near future, and with that development will come new and difficult and often extremely delicate readjustments between our education and our national life. The external organization of our school systems and our systems of inspection and supervision still calls for great improvement, particularly at that weakest point of all, the county superintendency and the supervision of country schools. Here very great improvements are urgently required. Here, too, important beginnings have already been made, in the consolidation of rural schools, in township supervision, and in the establishment of educational requirements for the county superintendency. But it is clear enough that much remains to be done.

Thru all of these fifty years the country has been endeavoring to bring its population of school age into the schools. Compulsory education laws have been adopted and are now in force in 36 states. Such laws are now supplemented with their natural and necessary accompaniment, that is, with laws restricting the employment of children, in 32 of these 36 states, while in 11 other states there are child-labor laws unaccompanied by laws for compulsory education. Vigorous organized efforts are making to improve the operation of these laws and secure their adoption in states in which they are not now in force. By truant schools and truant officers and children's courts, this movement is, in various parts of the country, receiving added reinforcement. In spite, however, of all these efforts, our school attendance still falls far below that which we ought to have if we are to be a thoroly educated people. In the year 1870, there were 57 per cent. of the children of school age in this

country enrolled in public schools. In the year 1905 this proportion had risen to 70 per cent. Another hard campaign is before us, to bring this very moderate percentage up to what may be regarded as a normal standard. Even of the children enrolled in the schools, only 70 per cent. are in average daily attendance during the school year; and that school year, on an average, is only 150 days in length, instead of 200 days, which may be regarded as normal for our more favored American conditions. If we should take only that part of our school population which is actually enrolled in the schools, with its irregular attendance for a short school year, and bring it up to regular attendance for a school year of reasonable length, we should thereby increase by over 90 per cent. the amount of education enjoyed by our American children.

But modern education calls for schooling for those who are no longer in school. By means of evening classes and correspondence courses and various other provision, the range of schooling is indefinitely increased. Such increase must be regarded as extremely desirable and worthy of being regarded as among the first things to be considered in our next educational advance.

That all of these various improvements may be made, the central and vital need is that the schools be provided with an adequate supply of adequately trained teachers. When this Association came into existence, there were, all told, 10 state normal schools in the United States. This number has now been increased to 130. Near the middle of this fifty-year period there began a definite movement for the higher training of teachers at the colleges and universities of the land, with particular reference to the needs of secondary schools. Early experiments in this field had been made at the University of the City of New York (now New York University), at Brown University and the University of Iowa, when in 1879 the University of Michigan established its chair of the Science and the Art of Teaching, which has had a highly influential history. The University of Wisconsin and other institutions followed in the eighteen-hundred-eighties, the movement reaching at length the large development seen in the professional schools of university grade at Columbia and Chicago universities, the University of Missouri, and several other institutions. Yet the proportion of teachers whose training is fairly well suited to the grade of school in which they teach is still relatively small. Such figures as are obtainable show that in Massachusetts 61 per cent. of the teachers in the common schools are normal school or college graduates. In Maine 24 per cent. are graduates of normal schools. In many of the states the proportion is undoubtedly much lower than these figures indicate.

With such advance as has been made in the training of teachers, there has been an equally marked advance in the production of an American pedagogical literature. Especially as regards the literature of secondary education, we may say that it has grown from practically *nil* to its present proportions within the past twelve or fifteen years. The National Educational Association has had a direct and honorable part in this movement, in that the report of its Committee of Ten and the later report of its Committee on College Entrance

Requirements have been two of the most notable landmarks in this advance. Yet with all that has been done, our pedagogical literature is not yet up to the standard of the literature of the older professions, and the work that still remains to be accomplished in this field is very great indeed.

If our teacher-training and literature of teaching are still relatively backward, it will not be questioned that the actual teaching in our schools and colleges still leaves much to be desired. Some of the best teaching in the world is unquestionably done in America, and our average has probably advanced by many stages within these fifty years. But it is easier than many suppose to gain a reputation for excellence in this field without the substance of excellence; and a really high standard of sound instruction and thoro intellectual achievement is hard to attain and hard to maintain. As a people we still need to go on for many years learning to discriminate between positive excellence in teaching and in all forms of intellectual and spiritual productivity, and the superficial show that so easily may take its place.

It remains to speak of two of the highest aspects of educational achievement in which extensive beginnings have been made, but beginnings which nevertheless must be regarded as wholly inadequate. Our instruction in the fine arts, whether regarded on the side of production or on the side of appreciation, has made very great advance within the past half-century. Particularly within the past ten or fifteen years the effective teaching of music in the public schools has made gratifying progress, and much has been done in the higher teaching of music in special schools of that art. In painting and the plastic arts, too, both as regards the public schools and as regards the more advanced institutions, usually under private control, the repeated stimulus of international expositions, of varied contact with the art of more artistic peoples, and of the more enlightened call for the exercise of good taste and artistic invention in our public buildings, have all had a beneficial effect. Yet so far as the country at large is concerned, we must believe that our development in music and the other arts belongs mainly to the future, and that with that development there will come some of the finest things that may be hoped for by our democracy.

Secondly, and finally, there is that most subtle and baffling, and yet that finest and most indispensable portion of all educational endeavor, the fostering of moral character and the furthering of religious development. The nonsectarian character of our public schools has become firmly established within this half-century, and that is a great and lasting gain. The exclusion of instruction in any distinct system of religion from the public schools throws definitely a large responsibility for religious instruction on private schools and ecclesiastical institutions. There remains to the public schools a weighty responsibility for instruction and training in the field of morals. No one can reasonably doubt that these schools, even where they have been most cautious and reticent in all that pertains to religious belief, have exercised an influence which has made for righteousness. Yet the present situation is

beyond question still unsatisfactory. The fact that our people are not fully satisfied with what has thus far been accomplished is shown in the earnest activities of such organizations as the Religious Education Association; and another indication, which cannot be disregarded, is the growth, along with our public-school system, of great systems of denominational and parochial schools, the schools of that religious denomination alone which is foremost in this movement having enrolled in the year 1905 over one million pupils, or 6 per cent. as many pupils as the public schools. While the problem of religious education and moral education are interwoven in many ways, experience shows that where occasion demands, the problem of moral education can be sufficiently isolated for large treatment in such an institution as the public school. But it is also clear that effective training in morals involves approach from many sides by a great variety of agencies and methods. Definite instruction in morals is not sufficient of itself, yet such definite instruction seems clearly needed as one of many ways of making for the growth of moral character. Here is a problem thickly set with difficulties; and we know that in this very field we must do a work and reach results which to the present day would appear almost impossible.

Yet, after all, taking all sides of our education into the account, the attainments of the past half-century must be regarded as colossal in their extent, and tremendously vital in their quality. We go forth to the work of the new age well aware that it will bring new and larger needs, to be met by new means and efforts more effective than those of the past. But the period we have been considering showed at the outset its new and greater needs as compared with those of the age preceding; and its large demands have been met with such fertility of resource, with such energy and self-sacrifice, with such command of material means and spiritual power, as shall give us ground for hope and confidence in all that the future may unfold.

HOW THE SUPERINTENDENT MAY CORRECT DEFECTIVE CLASSWORK AND MAKE THE WORK OF THE RECITATION TEACH THE PUPIL HOW TO PREPARE HIS LESSON PROPERLY

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In the American school, to a greater extent, perhaps, than in the schools of other countries, the recitation is the important means of teaching the pupil how to study the book and get information and insight for himself. The American teacher relies on the use of the textbook more than the teacher of England, France, or Germany does, and expects more of self-preparation on the part of the pupil than is expected there. Our greatest danger, therefore, lies in the tendency to permit the mechanical habit of memorizing the textbook, instead of requiring the pupil to master its thoughts. Each recitation ought to develop in the pupil a greater power of self-help. There must be

individual work on the part of the pupil—the work of preparation of the lesson; then there must be the examination on the results of his study, conducted by the teacher. The examination is conducted in the presence of a class; it does not take each pupil, one by one, by himself. For the chief point in the recitation is to ascertain the degree of understanding which the pupil has attained, and correct and enlarge it so that he shall come to the study of the next lesson with more care and attention. Each pupil learns most from his fellow pupils.

While the poor teacher labors with pupils individually, dividing up his time into small portions, and is obliged to flit from one subject to another with such precipitation as to preclude the possibility of doing justice to the subject, the good teacher knows how to manipulate his class as a whole. He knows how to bring every part of it to the support of every other part; how to help each individual by means of the insights of his fellows.

He thereby gains time to consider each subject thoroly. But not only this; he manages the class in such a way as to bring out the details of the lesson in a variety of different aspects, each pupil giving the results of his own study, and learning from the others their results. This kaleidoscope view of a subject as reflected from the minds of a whole class, when sifting and criticizing are carried on under the teacher's direction, is of far greater benefit to each and every pupil of the class than a private recitation of the same lesson could have been, even with the teacher's whole time devoted to the one pupil. This will appear from the following consideration:

The immature mind of the pupil does not know how to study the printed page—it reads the words, but thinks under the words only its small mouthfuls of meaning, seeing only a very little of the precise import, and missing the generalizations altogether. The object of the study of the book—the chief object of the modern school—is to learn how to get out of the printed book the wisdom that is expressed there. The race ought to reinforce the individual. The pupil comes to his task with a small stock of words and a few narrow ideas. Yet he must, by means of the little that he has, unlock the great world of thought that is spread out before him in books.

The first object of his recitation is to draw out each pupil's own view of the subject-matter of the lesson. Accordingly, as one after another recites, our teacher probes beneath the mere first statements for the more comprehensive phase which should lie in the pupil's mind if he understands what he is reciting. By a few searching questions the pupil is brought up against some phase of his lesson that his thoughts had not reached. Now begins the real work of the recitation; this pupil shall now supplement or perfect his own views by those of others. The teacher rapidly calls out from a dozen other members of the class, all eager to add their statements, just what is needed to correct the one-sided character of the recitation of the first pupil. It will always happen, in getting at this result, that several new views not

even in the mind of the teacher at the moment are elicited, all tending to clear up and amplify the exposition.

The teacher is well aware that by drawing out from the different members of the class before him these statements and corrections, he is accomplishing far more for them than his own statements or corrections could do. Not what he does directly, but what he gets his pupil to do, is of value. There are two aspects of this which deserve special note:

1. The statement of an idea in a pupil's own words is apt to be better fitted to the capacity of comprehension which his fellows possess, and therefore to arouse more vivid ideas in their minds. The necessary crudeness and narrowness of such ideas get corrected by the variation of statement which is obtained from different members of the class. Each pupil sees several phases that entirely escaped him in the course of his own investigation, and even the particular view that he himself seized is made clearer by the discussion.

2. The pupil is aroused and stimulated to a new method of study on the next lesson. He has obtained a peep thru the lenses of other minds, and cannot fail to remember these different points of view in preparing a new lesson. It is, moreover, a practical collison of one intellect with another, and acumen is sharpened and habits of the closest attention are engendered.

The pupil in the recitation is to be taught how to study the book properly. He is to be shown what his fellow-pupils have got out of the words of the lesson. Each fellow-pupil is an immature individual like himself. But partial views differ one from another, and only agree by luck and chance; only whole views agree with each other. The ideas of his fellow-pupils are different from his own—not contradicting his own, but supplementing them. The good teacher takes pains to develop, one after another, these partial views, and complete them into whole views. All come to agreement when the whole is before them. Disagreement exists as long as the views are partial. The pupil must paraphrase any words and sentences that he quotes from the book lest he shall hide his ignorance behind the mere words. Again, if he gives the thought entirely in his own words, there will be occasion for discussion of the merits and demerits of the mode of expression used in the book; and this is the best possible form of what we call "language lessons." One increases rapidly in the command of language when he is required to paraphrase and to discover the advantages and disadvantages of the modes of expression employed by himself and others.

The pupil is perpetually discovering how much is implied in language; that is to say, he is finding the ideas that belong to the words that he sees. The language has been made, not by individuals in their private capacity, but acting together as a social whole. For each word is such because it is a conventional expression for some thought. The individual cannot make a word. If he calls a thought by some vocal sound, that sound will not become a word until his fellow-men accept the sound as expressing that thought.

Thru this it is that the immature mind may be helped by others, for the words used are problems to him the solution of which helps him into new thoughts discovered by his fellows. Given the word, he must discover its meaning by the context and by the explanation of others.

In the other form of recitation, that of the private pupil to his tutor, all these advantages are lacking. By what means can the teacher make up for the want of that powerful stimulus to activity which the presence of enthusiastic classmates gives to the pupil? How can the teacher so adapt his own explanations and corrections to the mind of his pupil as to produce the same enlightening results as the restatements of his classmates do? Finally, by what means can the teacher arouse himself to that height of thought which the presence of a class of eager pupils excites in him? One pupil looking one way is nothing to a score or more with different points of view; they take in the whole horizon, and the teacher must ascend to the most comprehensive platform in order to be equal to the occasion.

Those educators who would look for superior instruction from the private individual tuition of the teacher certainly mistake the nature of true educacation. Self-activity, power of independent research, acute, critical insight—how can these be obtained apart from contact with one's fellow-men striving toward the same goal? There can be no doubt that such people are misled into the belief that cramming or one-sided, capricious insights are better than these qualities.

Many educational reformers fall into the error of supposing that the business of a school is not, primarily, for the purpose of training the pupil to learn from books; they would teach the pupil to observe nature directly. It is surprising to discover, upon careful examination, how little one can get from his own unaided observation of nature, even under the most favorable circumstances. Humboldt learned to know nature wonderfully, but he arrived at this knowledge mostly thru reading the results of observations made by others. Each observer contributed only his mite to the aggregate of knowledge, and it took the collected insights to make up what would be worthy to be called knowledge. If Humboldt made more original discoveries than anyone else in his time, yet even in his case his original observation constituted only one part in one hundred of his knowledge. The individual apart from the social whole is a weak, puny affair. The social whole of humanity is something very powerful. The individual reinforced by the whole is elevated to a potence far above his simple, natural self; he becomes a spiritual self thru sharing in the labors of his race.

We must never lose sight of this relation of the individual to the social whole if we are to judge rightly in affairs of education. That which gives the pupil only special skill, and no power to participate in the labors of others, is not of the highest value.

The educator who has looked widely over the field does not need to be told that just here lies the most important point in pedagogy. The initiation

of the youth into the great secret of combination with his fellow-men—where can it be done so well as in the school? The school should help each struggling boy or girl to ascend above his idiosyncrasy and achieve the universal forms of activity which will make the free man or free woman. It is clear that, with the close, personal relation of the private tutor, the chances are against that emancipation of individuality which the school secures. The privately educated youth is apt to be non-sympathetic, and to be uncertain and hesitating in his dealing with men. He has not learned by early contact with youth of his own age how to suppress what is merely subjective and peculiar to himself, and how to square his views with what is objective and universal. Hence he lacks directive power among his fellow-men, and this is the most serious defect in the culture of life. He must borrow directive power from others. Such an education is a preparation for a misanthropic, unhappy life, and only the force of circumstances can overcome its damaging defects.

There goes on necessarily with the learning to understand the lesson a process of verification on the part of the pupil. The assimilation of the new thoughts is principally this. In case it is the report of facts in nature, the pupil must verify them by comparison with what he has previously learned, and with what others know about the matter. Only in a narrow field of study can he verify the facts by going over all the original observations. In natural philosophy and chemistry this is very important. He should see everything verified by actual experiment there. In botany and in geology this is not possible to nearly so great an extent. In physical geography and meteorology and zoölogy to a much less extent. But most of the studies of school are studies that chiefly demand reflection on the material furnished in the lesson, and do not require great addition of illustrative matter from outside. Mathematics, for example, requires the reflecting mind to discover the links of necessity that connect one formula with another. Language lessons require reflection on what is given, and it is not sense-perception that is needed there to any great extent. History is assimilated by recurrence to the pupil's experience with people, and not by an object lesson on a specimen brought in for the occasion. Literature, again, makes the same appeal, for its understanding, to the child's experience, sentiments, and convictions.

Is it not clear how far the memoriter recitation is from the recitation conducted by a good teacher? The teacher who allows parrot-like repetition of the words in the book to pass unquestioned is not a teacher who deserves to have charge of a class at all. He has not learned to manipulate the instrument placed in his hands, and would accomplish just as much with pupils taken individually as in classes.

While the good oral teacher secures many of these advantages, he is not able to secure all. The pupils come before him to receive information on the day's lesson, and not to be critically tested on what they have done, and on the methods which they have used. It is true that they can be tested on

the previous lesson, but it would be better to have them responsible, also, for a definite amount of labor on the lesson of today. Meanwhile, if the oral instructor is comparatively no better than a majority of teachers in schools as they are, it is evident that the pupils will not be powerfully aroused to self-activity of any sort except play. Yet even memorizing the words of the book is self-activity, altho of a low order; it is certainly a higher activity than the process of repeating statements after the dictation of the teacher.

But the good teachers will strive by all means to develop in his pupil the most rapid growth of mental independence. He will teach him how to pursue his investigations on any topic by sifting to the very bottom the statements made in the book. Under the good teacher a pupil will learn to compare one assertion with another, and one man's view with another; to verify his ideas by consulting different authorities, and to gain a comprehensive insight by exhausting the sources of information on a given subject. Original investigation should not so much precede as follow a mastery of what has already been accomplished. No one in his senses would recommend a young man to spend his time endeavoring to make discoveries in electricity or chemistry before he had made himself acquainted with the present developments in those provinces.

Let us pause here to consider the bearing of this work of the class in recitation upon the training of the pupil's will-power.

No matter what the lesson is, whether language, mathematics, history, geography, grammar, manual training, cooking lessons—all these require two kinds of industry, the private individual industry and the social industry or class work. These involve two applications of will-power. Let me discuss this more at length.

School industry.—Industry may be of various kinds, but the industry of the school is essentially the study of books. The pupil, as we have shown, is to add to his own feeble and undeveloped powers of thought and observation these faculties of thought and observation as exhibited in the strongest of his race. The printed page is the chief means by which he adds to his own observation and reflection what has been observed and thought out by fellow-men especially gifted in these things. The pupil shall learn by mastering his textbook how to master all books—how to use that greatest of all instruments of culture, the library. He shall emancipate himself by this means from mere hearsay information.

In the case of oral information the pupil must wait upon the leisure of his good-natured neighbor or gossiping friend, trusting to his memory for the words told him, and pondering them on some future occasion. In the presence of the book he can take the sentences one by one and reflect carefully upon the meaning of each word and each sentence. The book waits upon his leisure. The book contains the most systematic presentation of its author's ideas. Thru the book the observers and thinkers of the past become present. Those of distant and inaccessible countries come to his side.

This shows us the significance of the kind of labor which the pupil performs in his school industry. In the schoolroom industry—let us repeat the assertion—there are two kinds of attention which the pupil must cultivate and exercise. There is, first, the attention already discussed at length—the attention which the class must give collectively to the recitation and to the teacher who conducts it; and there is, second, the individual industry of the pupil working by himself in the preparation of his lessons. But it is in the development of these two kinds of attention that the chief value of schoolroom industry consists. In the recitation the teacher examines the work of his pupils, criticizes it, and discusses its methods and results.

The pupils in the class, we have said, all give attention to the questions of the teacher and to the answers of their fellow-pupils. Each one learns both positive and negative things regarding the results of his own studies of the lessons. He finds some of his fellow-pupils less able than himself to grasp certain points in the subject of study. He finds others who are more able than himself—pupils who have seen farther than himself, and developed new phases that had escaped his attention. He is surprised, too, at sides and points of view which the teacher has pointed out; items of information or critical points of view that had escaped his own attention and the attention of his fellow-pupils in the class.

The pupil gains an insight into human nature such as he never had before. He sees the weaknesses and the strength of his fellows; he sees the superiority manifested by the teacher who is maturer than he, and who has reinforced his own observation and insight by the observation and insight of observers and thinkers as recorded in books. The pupil measures himself by these standards and comes to that most important of all knowledge—self-knowledge.

This kind of attention which he exercises in recitations or class exercises is a kind of attention which I have called critical alertness directed outward to the expression of other minds, namely of his fellow-pupils and teacher. Step by step he watches carefully the unfolding of the lesson, comparing what is said with what he has already learned by his own effort.

After the recitation is over, he takes up the work of individual preparation of another lesson, but he has improved in some respect his method, because he is now alert in some new direction. He has an intellectual curiosity in some new field that he had not before studied; what the teacher has said or what some bright pupil has said gives him a hint of a new line of inquiry which he ought to have carried on in his mind when he was preparing his lesson of the day before. Now he is consciously alert in this new direction, and he reaps a harvest of new ideas that would have been passed over in neglect had he not received the benefits of the kind of attention which I call "critical alertness" in the work of the recitation or lesson.

This kind of attention is something that cannot be developed by the pupil in any other way so well as in that school device called the "recitation" or "lesson."

Let us now consider the other kind of attention which the pupil cultivates and exercises in school. While pupils of one class are reciting, the pupils of the other class (I assume that there are two classes in a room) are preparing their lesson. Each individual is or should be absorbed in the work of preparation, not jointly with his fellows, questioning them or answering them, but by absorption on the part of each in his own work, having no communication with the other pupils in the room or with the teacher; each one must be able to study his own book and resist the tendency to distraction which comes from the recitation that is going on with the other class.

To shut out from one's mind all objects that do not concern it and concentrate one's thought and observation upon a special given subject, whether it be a scientific presentation of the textbook, or whether it be the investigation of some subject by means of objects themselves, or by the use of many books—this kind of attention is of the utmost importance. It is that of individual industry, or absorption, while the other kind is that of critical alertness.

Critical alertness follows the thoughts of others; takes an active part in the dialogue which is going on. The ancients called this business of questions and answers and critical alertness the dialectic, and this kind of attention is that which is trained in the old dialectic. But the attention which is absorbed upon its object is a different matter, altho of equal importance.

The pupil should learn how to neglect the distracting circumstances of the schoolroom, the movements of pupils in the tactics of the class, the dialectic of question and answer going on with illustration and points of interest, and equally the work of his fellow-pupils in the class preparing themselves by absorbing study like his own. He lets these all slip by him, disciplining himself to abstract his attention from them and to hold himself in utter indifference to these outside events. He brings to bear his best intellect upon the problems of his task, critically questions the meaning of his author, and applies himself to the work of veryifying by his own observation and reflection what is compiled for him by the author. He is learning by this private industry how to reinforce himself by the work of his fellow-men; he cannot help himself thru the help of others unless he verify their results. Verification is always an act of self-activity. Memorizing the text of the book, committing to memory what has been told one, this is not self-help until the internal work of verification has been accomplished.

The second kind of attention that we are here considering has therefore its most important feature in verification. What someone else has seen and recorded the pupil must see for himself if possible. What someone else has reasoned out by inference he must reason out for himself, and test the result by the activity of his own intellect.

At first the pupil finds himself with feeble will-power and unable to absorb himself in his own task. He is easily distracted by what is going on around him. By using his moral will in self-control he gains strength from day to

day in concentrating his attention and neglecting all that is not essential in his individual industry.

The two kinds of industry, the recitation and the preparation of the lesson, form the work of the school and furnish a ready test to the principal of the school, or to the superintendent, of the quality of teaching. Upon entrance into the room the supervisor notices the two kinds of industry going on without interference with one another. The pupils in the class are alert, paying critical attention to the teacher and to the answers of the pupil reciting. The pupils not reciting are concentrating each his attention upon his own task, apparently oblivious of all else in the schoolroom.

The superintendent knows by this that the teaching is good. The pupils have acquired the essential methods of school industry and will become stronger from day to day.

The teacher cannot produce this condition in his room as an empty show. If his pupils are careless and do not pay real attention in the recitation, or do not acquire the habit of genuine absorption in their work of preparation, they cannot simulate it upon occasion to deceive the supervisor or the visiting examiner. Listlessness will show itself in the faces and attitudes of those affecting to study; those in the class will lose the thread of the recitation and the teacher will not be able to draw out their knowledge to correct the mistakes or supplement the deficiencies of the pupil reciting. One or both of these kinds of attention will be found wanting and the teacher's work will be noted as failing in the essential purpose of the school.

I have tried to set down some of the features of the true method of conducting a class recitation, and to point out their advantages over the teaching of a private tutor or over the old *memoriter* system supposed to be still in vogue in many schools in this country. I have also shown how the industry of the school, its essential purpose, consists in the two kinds of attention, one of which is developed in the well-conducted recitation. The supervisor can judge of the efficiency of the work of the teacher by a brief inspection of these two kinds of industry in his school. I sum up the conclusions of my thesis as follows:

SUMMARY

In the ungraded schools the naturally bright pupils accomplish a fair amount of work if they happen to have good textbooks. They are able to teach themselves from the books. But the rank and file of the school learn a little reading, writing, and arithmetic, and probably study the same book for several winters, beginning at the first page on the first day of school each year. Those who need no help from the teacher learn to help themselves and enjoy a delightful freedom. Those who are slow and dull do not get much aid from the teacher. Their industry may have been in earlier times stimulated by fear of the rod, which was often used in cases of real or supposed indolence. Harsh measures may succeed in forcing pupils to do mechani-

cal work, but they cannot secure much development of the power of thought. Hence the resources of the so-called "strict" teacher of our childhood were to compel the memorizing of the words of the book.

With the growth from the rural to the urban condition of population, the method of "individual instruction," as it is called, giving it a fine name, has been supplanted by class instruction, which prevails in village and city schools. The individual did not get much from individual instruction, for the simple reason that his teacher had only five or ten minutes to examine him on his daily work. In the properly graded school each teacher has two classes, and hears one recite while the other learns a new lesson. Each class is composed of twenty to thirty pupils of nearly the same qualifications as regards the degree of progress made in their studies, but the first class is from ten to thirty weeks in advance of the second class. The teacher has thirty minutes for a recitation (or "lesson," as it is called in England), and can go into the merits of the subject and discuss the real thoughts that it involves. The meaning of the words in the book is probed, and the pupil made to explain it in his own language. But besides this, all pupils learn more by a class recitation than by an individual recitation to a tutor. For in the class each can see the lesson reflected in the minds of his fellow pupils, and understand his teacher's views much better when drawn out in the form of a running commentary on the mistakes of the duller or more indolent pupils. The dull ones are encouraged and awakened to effort by finding themselves able to see the errors and absurdities of fellow-pupils. For no two minds take precisely the same view of a textbook exposition of a topic. One child is impressed by one phase of it, and another by a different phase. In the class recitation each one has his crude and one-sided views corrected more or less by his fellows, some of whom have a better comprehension of this point, and some of that point, in the lesson. He himself has some glimpses of the subject that are more adequate than those of his fellows.

The possibilities of a class recitation are, therefore, very great for efficient instruction in the hands of a teacher who understands his business. For he can marshal the crude notions of the members of the class one after another, and turn on them the light of all the critical acumen of the class as a whole, supplemented by his own knowledge and experience. From beginning to end, for thirty minutes, the class recitation is a vigorous training in critical alertness. The pupil afterward commences the preparation of his next lesson from the book with what I have called new "apperceptive" powers, for he finds himself noticing and comprehending many statements and a still greater number of implications of meaning in his lesson, meanings that before had not been seen or even suspected. He is armed with a better power of analysis, and can "apperceive," or recognize and identify, more of the items of information, and especially more of the thoughts and reflections, than he was able to see before the discussions that took place in the recitation. He has in a sense gained the points of view of fellow-pupils and teacher, in addition to his own.

The good school continually develops in its pupils two kinds of attention, and its success in this constitutes the surest indication to the supervisor of the value of the teacher's work.

RECENT INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS AT LIÈGE[1]

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In recent times the kingdom of Belgium has taken an active part in the educational affairs of the world. At the international expositions and congresses held at Paris in 1889 and 1900, and at our recent exposition held at St. Louis, she was creditably represented. Three times during the past quarter of a century she has herself held expositions and congresses that have been more or less international in scope—at Brussels in 1880, at Antwerp in 1894, and at Liège in 1905.

The educational congress held at Liège in 1905 was in all respects international. Germany, France, Spain, Russia, Portugal, Servia, Switzerland, Holland, Great Britain, the United States, Mexico, Bolivia, Argentine Republic, and Japan co-operated with a representative committee of Belgian educators in the direction of the international congress held at Liège September 18, 19, and 20, 1905.

The organization of the congress included three honorary presidents—M. Jules van den Heuvel, minister of justice in the Belgian cabinet, Emile Dupont, vice-president of the Belgian senate, and Henry Delvaux, member of the Belgian chamber of deputies; the officers of the four departments of the congresses; and national committees appointed by the sixteen foreign countries participating in the congress. The committee appointed for the United States, by the Honorable the Secretary of State, included: Chairman, M. V. O'Shea, professor in the University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.; secretary, Will S. Monroe, professor in the State Normal School, Westfield, Mass.; Alfred Bayliss, state superintendent of public instruction of Illinois, Springfield, Ill.; Charles F. Birtwell, superintendent of the Children's Aid Society, Boston, Mass.; William H. Burnham, professor in Clark University, Worcester, Mass.; A. Caswell Ellis, professor in the University of Texas, Austin, Tex.; Mrs. Ellen M. Henrotin, Chicago, Ill.; E. G. Lancaster, president of Olivet College, Olivet, Mich.; William H. Tolman, director of the American Institute of Social Service, New York; and Richard H. Tuthill, judge in Cook County, Chicago, Ill.

Twelve hundred individuals and institutions were members of the congress, the leading countries being France, 469 members; Belgium, 460; Holland, 112; United States, 70; Germany, 20; England, 12; Russia 12, and Italy 10. Three medical societies and thirty educational associations (in twelve

[1] For additional accounts of the congress see an article by Miss Anna Buckbee in the *Pennsylvania School Journal*, September, 1906; also articles by the writer in the *School Journal* (New York), November 4, 1905, and the *Pedagogical Seminary*, December, 1905. The proceedings of the congress—both papers and discussions—have been published in French in eight volumes.

different countries) were represented in the congress. Among American organizations represented were the National Educational Association and the National Congress of Mothers.

The congress was organized in four departments or sections. The first section had for its central theme of discussion the study of children; the second section, the care and training of children in the family; the third section, the education of defective children; and the fourth section, agencies for the protection of childhood and youth. The second section, which was the largest of the congress, was again subdivided into four subsections—(1) general problems touching family education; (2) education in the family before the school age; (3) education in the family during the school age; (4) family education after the school age.

Professor J. J. Van Biervliet, of the University of Ghent, presided over the first department; and sixteen papers on various aspects of child-study were presented by representatives from France, Belgium, the United States, and Holland. Professor Alfred Binet, director of the psychological laboratory of the University of Paris, gave two papers. In his first paper he suggested a plan of co-operation among the scattered fields of genetic psychology, and he asked the congress to name an international committee to co-ordinate and unify the labors of the numerous workers represented at Liège. Such a committee was subsequently appointed, including Binet of France, Schreuder of Holland, Ufer of Germany, Diess of Austria, Popovisch of Hungary, Pereira of Spain, Van Biervliet of Belgium, Monroe of the United States, Mme. Koschkine of Russia, and Miss Pycroft of England. In his second paper Professor Binet pointed out the need of definite studies on the aesthetic reactions of children.

The problem of mental fatigue, and its relation to mental work and school life, was presented in two papers—one by Professor P. Malapert, of the Lycée Louis le Grand in Paris, and the other by Professor Van Biervliet, of the University of Ghent. The question of school hygiene was discussed by Professor William H. Burnham, of Clark University, Worcester, Mass.; and Mr. L. Laberthonnière, editor of *Annales de philosophie chrétienne*, pointed out the relation of the results of experimental and genetic psychology to pedagogy and education.

Methods of studying children were discussed in a half-dozen papers. Professor Anna Buckbee, of the State Normal School at California, Pa., gave an outline of the methods of studying children in American normal schools; Principal J. Klootsema, of the Reform School at Alkmaar, Holland, pointed out the scientific value of current child-study methods; M. Marius Dupont, of the National School for the Deaf at Paris, suggested the needs and methods of studies in anthropometry; and Will S. Monroe, of the State Normal School at Westfield, Mass., traced the development of child-study methods in the United States. The subject of child-study in clubs composed

of parents was discussed by Miss Harriet A. Marsh, principal of the Hancock School, at Detroit, Mich.

The second section of the congress—education of the child in the family—appealed to a wide range of interests; and, because of the large membership and the numerous papers presented, the department met in four subsections. Mme. Lucie Felix-Faure Goyare presided over the subdivision devoted to the education of the child in the home, and forty papers were read. Among the notable papers were the following: Family Instruction Concerning Sex, by Dr. F. L. Blanchard, of Grenoble, France; Study of the Child in the Home, by Mme. Nadine Koschkine, of St. Petersburg, Russia; The Art in the Home, by Dr. Ernst Buss, of Glarus, Germany, and An Appeal to Workingmen and the Clergy for Co-operation in Family Education, by the Abbé Simon, of Namur, Belgium.

The second subdivision of the department, which considered family education, had as its special theme the care of the child in the home *before* the school age. The Baronne de Pitteurs de Budingen, of Liège, presided, and thirteen papers were read and discussed. The topics discussed included: Personality of the Child, by Dr. Frederick Eby of the United States; Relation of Play and Education, by Leo Claretie; Value of Kindergarten Training, by Maurice Wolff; Spinal Troubles of Young Children, by Dr. A. Kaisin; and The Training of the Child's Senses, by Mme. Gest.

Education in the family *during* the school age was the general topic of the third section of family education. Thirty-three papers were presented for discussion. The following titles will give a notion of the range of the papers: Collaboration of the Family with the School, by Eugraph de Kovalevsky, of the Russian ministry of public instruction; The Reading of Children, by Mrs. Heller, of Omaha, Neb.; The Influence of the Weather on Children, by Professor Edwin Grant Dexter, of the University of Illinois; Pedology, the Science of the Study of the Child, by George Walforce, of Liège; The Utility of Parents' Clubs for Child-Study, by C. Lachal, of Quincié, France. A notable speaker before this section of the congress was the eminent French historian, Professor Ernest Lavisse, of the University of Paris, who made an earnest plea for inculcating in children a genuine love of nature.

The fourth section of family education discussed the child *after* the school age, and some of the problems of adolescence. Hon. M. Prüm, of the Duchy of Luxemburg, presided. Twenty-four papers were presented, including: Training for Social Service, by Mlle. S. Lefebvre, of Amsterdam; Aids in the Choice of Careers, by G. Bille, of Fontaine-l'Eveque; The Protection of Young Girls, by Mme. de Montenaek; Instruction of Girls for Motherhood, by Dr. E. Cordier, of Brussels; Domestic Instruction of Girls, by Mme. Gautier-Lacaze; Training in Social Purity, by J. Renault, of Namur; Instruction in Sexual Hygiene, by Professor F. Gache, of Alais; Influence of Military Training on Young Men, by Alice May Douglass, of Maine; and The Rein-

stallation and Revivification of the Hearth-Side as a Factor in the Education of the Adolescent, by Pastor Charles Wagner, of France.

The third section of the congress was composed very largely of medical men and directors of institutions for defective, dependent, and delinquent children. The general topic of the section was the care and training of the defective child. Professor Jean Demoor, of the University of Brussels, presided, and thirty-nine specialists presented addresses and papers. Dr. Bourneville, the distinguished director of the Bicêtre in Paris, opened the congress with a comprehensive address on the problems touching abnormal children. Dr. Decroly, of the policlinique of the medical faculty of the University of Brussels, suggested a scheme for the classification of abnormal children. Professor Alfred Binet, of the University of Paris, and Dr. Simon, of the Hospital of Sainte-Anne, discussed the mental training of backward children. Dr. Guillaume, of Berne, traced the forces which had decreased cretinism in Switzerland during recent years. Dr. George E. Shuttleworth, the most distinguished English authority on the education of feeble-minded children, told the congress what was being done in England for feeble-minded and other mentally defective children by voluntary and state appointed agencies. Dr. Fletcher Beach, also a well-known English alienist, discussed the care of mentally and physically abnormal children and epileptics in England and Scotland.

The juvenile delinquents and incorrigibles were discussed by Professor Jean Demoor, of Brussels, Mlle. Muller, of Rouen, Charles L. Brace, of New York, and Miss Anna Gamewell, of Glen Mills, Pa. Orphans, illegitimate and abandoned children were treated by Director Dario Trentini, of Matarello, Tyrol. Speech instruction for the deaf was the subject of a valuable paper by Miss Mary S. Garrett, of Philadelphia. Professor Edouard Drouot, of Paris, also discussed the family training of deaf children. The education of the blind was presented in papers by Michael Anagnos (since deceased), of the Perkins Institution for the Blind, Boston, and by J. Sternheim, of the National Institution at Paris.

Speech defects, aphasia, and kindred disturbances were discussed by Drs. Jean Gresslar, M. Dufour, and Georges Rouma; and Dr. Bourrillon, of St. Maurice (France), gave an account of educational establishments for crippled and deformed children. The nature of the care and training of epileptic children was presented by Dr. Alexandre Paris, of Nancy, Dr. Kölle, of Zurich, and Dr. Fletcher Beach, of London.

The fourth section of the congress concerned itself with associations and other agencies for the protection of youth. Professor Dejace, of the University of Liège, presided and thirty-eight papers were presented. Eight papers discussed the alcohol problem and the nature of temperance instruction and societies. Two papers dealt with the tobacco habit and its effect on the development of youth. Moral purity was presented by several speakers. School excursions and vacation colonies, school and postal savings banks

and other thrift agencies, literary societies for young people, and a dozen other topics of a like nature were discussed. Two important papers before this section were: The Juvenile Courts of the United States, by Richard S. Tuthill of Chicago, and Benevolent Agencies for Children in the United States, by Professor Charles R. Henderson, of the University of Chicago.

THE TEACHER AND THE LIBRARIAN[1]

NATHAN C. SCHAEFFER, PRESIDENT OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION, HARRISBURG, PA.

When I accepted the invitation to meet the American Library Association on this day I made up my mind that I would resist the masculine tendency to give advice. The proverb, 'tis more blessed to give than to receive, must have been written of advice. I am here rather for the purpose of glorifying the vocation of the teacher and the librarian, and of uttering a sort of Macedonian cry, "Come over to us and help us;" for the National Educational Association—especially the library section—needs very much the help and co-operation of the American Library Association. We need that help quite as much as the teacher needs the help of the librarian, and I might announce my point of view as being strictly in accord with the sentiment expressed in this report, namely, that the library as well as the public school forms an integral part of a system of free and public education.

We who teach and supervise schools need your help, for the sake of uplifting the industrial classes. Will you look at this matter for a few minutes from my point of view? I live in the richest agricultural county in the United States, a county that has more money deposited in its national banks than any one of seven southern states that might be named, and the wealth of that county is due to the fact that it is a great tobacco county. There is perpetual warfare between the school and the tobacco factory. The boy and the girl leave the school just as soon as the law allows them to go to work, in very many cases, and the owner of one of those industrial establishments assures me that during the noon hour the telephone is kept in constant use by the young people who are engaging seats upon the roof garden for the evening. I confess to you I have sympathy for those young people. I have heard of industrial establishments where it takes 22 persons to make a pin; where the leather passes thru 64 hands before the shoe is ready for the market. I have never been able to ascertain thru how many hands the tobacco passes until it ends in smoke and ashes. But think of a human being spending his time on every working day from the first of January until the last day of December making the twenty-second part of a pin, the sixty-fourth part of a shoe, the infinitesimal part of a cigar, and you can realize for yourself the monotonous drudgery of that sort of life and the innate

[1] An address before the American Library Association, at its Annual Convention at Narraganset Pier, R. I., July, 1906, by President Schaeffer as the official representative of the National Educational Association.

impulse driving those operatives to seek recreation. Now, how much better would it be if these workers in the tobacco factory and in other industrial establishments could at the close of the day go to the public library and there find the recreation which their nature craves, instead of seeking that recreation in the saloon and upon the roof garden. So long as our workers, our industrial classes, do not frequent the library, there to associate with the choice spirits of all the ages, but seek recreation in lower forms of enjoyment, so long, I claim, there is important work to be done by the teacher and by the librarian.

I am not willing to accept for the teacher all the blame for this state of affairs among our industrial classes. I find that when anything goes wrong in the public life of the American people, people always look to the school for a remedy and the teacher is blamed for what is wrong, or at least she is expected to correct it. See what the teachers are expected to do. If, for instance, someone is found cruel to an animal, straightway there is legislation that teachers must give instruction upon the humane treatment of the brute creation; if it is found that cigarettes and stimulants sap the life of the nation, straightway we have legislation that in every school we must teach physiology with special reference to the effect of narcotics and stimulants upon the human system; if too many boys leave the farm to go to the city, the school is expected to give instruction in agriculture in order to revive an interest in country life; if there is danger that our forests will be all cut down and reach extinction, straightway there is legislation for Arbor Days, in order that the children may know how to plant trees and take care of them; if there is trouble in learning a trade, straightway we must have manual training, in order that the boys, and the girls even, may learn how to use the tools that lie at the basis of all the different handicrafts; and if there is trouble in getting domestic help, straightway we must have the introduction of domestic science into the school curriculum. Indeed, no prophet can tell what problems will be shied at the school in the next fifty years. We are now to celebrate the eighteenth of May in order to prepare the world for international arbitration, and somebody out in the state of Ohio, which is prolific in new ideas, recently proposed that the school children of this country, thru their teachers, shall raise $400,000 to build a bronze ship in memory of those who died in the explosion of the "Maine."

Now I am prepared to say that the school can, of course, help to solve some of these problems; but here is the difficulty, and it should come very near to the hearts of you librarians: the things which did not originally belong to the school curriculum have been emphasized to such an extent that many teachers have a bad conscience with regard to their legitimate school work. Many teachers feel conscience-stricken if somebody catches them teaching the three R's; and I have found it absolutely necessary to show the fundamental relation of that which called the school into existence to the preservation of our modern civilization. There are many people who think

that the library and the school are a burden which our modern civilization must carry. I claim, on the other hand, that modern civilization is a burden which the school and the library must carry. Once a good woman who, in preparing herself for the duties of the schoolroom, goes to summer schools and annual gatherings of teachers, came to me and in a tone of despair said, "I would like to know what we are to teach?" "Well," said I, "what makes you ask that question?" "Why," she answered, "the editor of the *Ladies' Home Journal* says that a crime is being committed before the eyes of American parents thru the overcrowding of the school curriculum, whilst President Eliot says that the school curriculum must be enriched." Said she, "I have listened to a professor from Chicago who advocated that no child should be taught to read until it reaches the ninth year; and another professor gave us an interesting lecture on a whale, and another lecture on a butterfly, and still another lecture on a Baltimore oriole, and he made us feel that this is the kind of information that we should give in the schoolroom."

I saw that this woman's notions of the original purpose of the school needed clarifying before she could again be happy in her school work, and I said to her: "You know as well as I do that Pennsylvania has been made the dumping-ground for the illiterate populations of southern Europe. Let us watch one of these men who cannot read and write, let us see his experiences during a day. I saw one of them get on the train in the vicinity of Pittsburg not long ago to go to some point where he was sent by the firm that employed him. Every now and then he asked the brakeman the name of the next station for fear he might be carried beyond his destination; he couldn't read the names that have been put upon tablets on each side of the station. When the noon hour came he was sent to a hotel to get his dinner, and there he was confronted by the hotel register. He made some excuse about his name and got the clerk to write it. When he entered the dining-room he was confronted by the bill of fare, but he couldn't read a word of it. In despair he asked for something to eat. That evening he got a letter from his daughter who was attending the public schools. The child thought this was a fine opportunity to show papa she could write a letter. But he couldn't read a word of it. There were ink and writing material in that hotel, free to everybody, but he could not do what he wanted to do, write a letter to the dear ones at home. Somebody handed him a newspaper. Not willing to acknowledge his illiteracy, he held it in the customary position, but soon there was a laugh, for someone saw that he was holding the paper upside down. Now what was it that this man needed all day long? Was it knowledge of a whale, of a butterfly, of a Baltimore oriole, or was it the ability to read and to write?"

The good woman said, "Hereafter I shall teach reading and writing as tho the fate of the nation depended upon it."

The illiterate man is not adjusted to our modern complex civilization, and no matter what the school teaches, the school is a failure if it does not

develop ability to read and, in addition to that, the reading habit and the library habit.

Look at this whole question from the point of view of John Fiske and Lewis Morgan and other scholars who hold their views with regard to the development of ancient culture. I believe that if you look at your own work for a few moments from that point of view every one of you will go home an inch taller, glorifying your work as librarians in a way that you never magnified that work before. According to this theory, you will recall there were three great epochs in the development of ancient culture. The lowest, the stage of the savage, had in it three upward steps: first, man lived on nuts and fruits, then man learned to fish and how to build a fire, finally man learned to hunt with bow and arrow. Did any one of those occupations call the school and the vocation of the schoolmaster into existence? Far from it. And the next stage came when man stepped from the savage to the barbarian plane of life. And there I would like to make my bow to a woman. Did it ever occur to you that whenever the average girl begins to study a history she wishes she were a boy? And why? Because our textbooks on history devote about 499 pages to the achievements of men, and if women get half a page in the ordinary textbook on history the sex is fortunate. The average girl is made to think that everything heroic in the world—yes, everything worth doing—belongs to the other sex. Now I want to say that I had a good deal of sympathy for that New England woman who, when an assembly glorified the Pilgrim fathers and talked of the hardships that the Pilgrim fathers endured, rose and proposed a toast to the Pilgrim mothers, who endured all the hardships of the Pilgrim fathers and then had to endure the Pilgrim fathers besides.

Three epochs man passes thru before he reaches civilization. First, his life is nomadic and his wealth consists in cattle grazing on the adjacent hills. But does that call the school and the library into existence? Far from it. The teacher and the librarian come later. The next upward step is made when man learns how to till the soil, to practice the art of the husbandman. But does that call the school and the library into existence? Altho the school makes the farmer a better farmer, still farming did not call the school nor the library into existence. The next great upward step was made when man learned to work in iron, in metals. But that did not call the school into existence. According to John Fiske and Lewis Morgan, civilization dawned when man learned how to record his thoughts and how to transmit them to distant peoples and to future generations. It is in the need of recording man's thoughts and achievements and of preserving them for future generations that you have the origin of the school and the origin of the library. So that the vocation of the schoolmaster and of the librarian lies at the basis of our modern civilized life. And civilization, I repeat, is the burden which the school and the library must carry and preserve.

Now, from that point of view we can well glorify these two vocations.

The library is of course useless if the teacher fails to teach the children how to read and write. On the other hand, as this report points out, the school life of the average child in this country is five years, and the rest of life belongs to the librarian and to the library, if the reading habit and the library habit have been developed in these five years. Undoubtedly, even during the short period of the school life of the child it is possible not only to teach the child how to read—and she is the best teacher who with the least expenditure of time and energy makes the child an independent reader—but it is also possible during that school period, if the librarian and the teacher work together to develop in the child a love of good books, to develop the power to use books aright; and in spite of all the talk we have had about *things* against *words*, the school is a failure if it does not teach the right use of books. And it is at that point that the teacher needs the help of the librarian.

To my mind the vocation of the librarian has the earmarks of a profession. What are they? Well, in the first place, every profession has its own *esprit de corps*, and the first thing I heard when I got into this building was talk about "the library spirit." There is a professional spirit springing up in this organization that will finally pervade the entire vocation in this country. Then, in the next place, every profession requires technical training, and you have your library schools fulfilling that function. More than that, every profession presupposes a liberal or a general education, and the day has come when the brightest of those who graduate from our schools do not hesitate to use their learning, their training, their liberal culture, as a basis upon which to build the vocation of the librarian. In addition, I notice that every profession has certain operations that are not merely mechanical but that are based upon science. Anybody can chop off an arm, but it takes a skilled surgeon to amputate an arm. There is science at the basis of that professional operation. You throw a man, however learned, into a modern library and let him manage it, and he will find how little he has of the technical training and the science that underlie the work in our libraries. And then, last of all, I find that every profession has a noble aim. The theologian seeks to save souls, the physician seeks to save life—and the librarian has a noble aim. It is to fit men and women, not only to get knowledge from the bookshelves or the books on the shelves, not merely to get recreation, but it is to enable men and women to live the higher life of thought. So many of our industrial classes are dissatisfied because they think money makes life worth living and because they think the millionaire has that which they themselves cannot get. Now, money stands for food and drink, for the garments we wear and the houses we live in and things of that sort; but let it never be forgotten that money cannot make life worth living. If you have plenty of money you can buy a fine house, but you cannot buy a happy home; that must be made by you, and by her who occupies it with you. If you are rich you may buy a fine copy of Shakespeare, but you cannot buy the ability to appreciate a play of Shakespeare.

Plato wrote above the door of his academy, "Let no one enter here who is destitute of geometry." Why did he value geometry so highly? Not merely because he thought it was the best introduction to the study of philosophy, but Plato had still another idea, and he expressed it when he says, "God geometrizes." Plato had an idea that when a youth learns to think the thought of geometry, he is thinking God's thoughts and he is tasting the pleasures of a life that does not turn upon what we eat and drink and upon the things that the almighty dollar will buy. When Kepler discovered the laws of planetary motion he exclaimed in ecstasy, "O God, I think thy thoughts after thee!" And when the youth at school learns to think the thoughts that God has put into the starry heavens above and into all nature around us, that youth is learning to think God's thoughts and is enjoying the pleasures of the higher life of thought.

Here is where I glorify the library and the vocation of the librarian. No human being can expect to discover for himself all the thoughts that God has put into the starry heavens above and into all nature around us, but if he has acquired the library habit he will find upon the shelves of the library the books that give what man has discovered of the thoughts that God has put into the heavens above and into nature around us; he will learn that the books upon the shelves of the library enable him to associate with the ch ice spirits of all the ages and to think the best thoughts of the best men whenever he enters that library and makes a right use of books.

For that reason I believe that all over this land teachers and librarians should emphasize as one of their chief functions the acquisition of the power to make the right use of books, the development of ability to enjoy a good book. And it is there that the library must help the teacher, for few teachers have leisure enough to select the best books upon the shelves of the library. It is there that the librarian must act as a guide to both teacher and pupil.

Now one word about the National Educational Association. We have a library department of the National Educational Association, as you have been told, and when I was president of the department, about 600 special letters of invitation to the meeting of that department were sent to people in different parts of the country. What response did we get? I think we had present at St. Louis, if my memory serves me right, four librarians and less than a score of teachers. The National Educational Association has money; it has an invested fund now of about $150,000, and some of its finances have been used to print this library report, which has come into being largely thru a committee of the American Library Association. I am not here to advocate either organic or federal union between these two organizations, but I wish to raise in your minds the question whether it is not possible to have a closer affiliation between the librarians and the teachers, especially between the National Educational Association and the American Library Association.

I rejoice in this opportunity to bring to you the greetings of the National Educational Association, and I shall never miss an opportunity to glorify the work which you librarians are doing for humanity and for civilization.

BY CORRESPONDING MEMBERS IN OTHER COUNTRIES

THE EDUCATIONAL AWAKENING IN ENGLAND

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During the last ten years more thought has been given to educational questions in England than during any earlier half-century in our national history.

Changes of great significance and magnitude have been made in the machinery of educational administration. The central authority has been unified and reorganized. It now deals with primary, secondary, and technological education, as well as with the administration of educational endowments. In some respects these separate branches of its work are still unnecessarily divided from one another, but year by year they become more closely adjusted, and we can see signs of more complete fusion in the future. At the other end of the administrative chain the local educational authorities have been entirely remodeled. New blood has been brought into the local offices: new forms of experience into the committee rooms. But we have not yet reached a lasting settlement as to the form of local authority for educational government. So far as one can discern the future, we are likely to have some diversity in the mode of election of the local educational authority in different districts according to the magnitude of the task devolving upon it. The old school-board system with its cumulative vote has probably gone forever. We have derived much benefit from the new county administration, and yet that system, too, has its drawbacks and the new administrative model, which owed much to Fabian inspiration, is already beginning to show some weak places. In London especially there are some signs of a reaction (not wholly justified) against the County Council administration, and it is possible that there may be a return in public thought to the conception of a semi-independent local public authority for educational purposes. Thus, on the administrative side, English education wears today a very different dress from that of ten years ago. The whole drift of things is toward greater public control in educational matters. But whether that control is to come from a government office in London, or from the offices of local authorities scattered all about the country, is still far from certain. The centralizing and the cantonal principles are struggling with one another for the mastery. Here the one scores a point, and here the other. Practical convenience rather than political theory is settling this new balance of powers: the probability is that

we shall have a composite system of educational government in which the central power of the state and the decentralized power of the local authority will play the part of the different metals in a compensating pendulum.

Modern administrative education is dogged by one great danger. It is very costly. If the new educational movement in England breaks down on any one point other than dissidence in social ideals, it will be upon the question of expenditure from national and local funds. We have much leeway to make up in educational provision, according to modern standards. A great deal has had to be done very quickly to overtake arrears. And modern elective bodies seem to delight in bricks and mortar. The result is that the mass of local indebtedness in Great Britain is already considerable. Yet very much of it represents expenditure which is directly remunerative. Much that is not directly remunerative has been indirectly beneficial. But the aggregate of indebtedness is none the less serious. According to the last published returns (those for 1903–4) the local debt of Great Britain is £469,231,417. Twenty-five years ago it was less than £100,000,000. The difference marks the change in our conception of the functions of local government. Educational expenditure will steadily become a more important fraction of the whole. The local rate-payer already raises cries of distress. Governments take a popular step when they shift the financial burden from local rates to the central treasury. And the result of this tendency is that the expenditure from the imperial exchequer upon education in the United Kingdom is advancing by leaps and bounds. Last August, on the motion of Mr. Thomas O'Donnell, the government issued returns relating to the cost and to other statistics of education. All statistics are a dangerous ground on which to tread. Educational statistics are particularly full of traps for the unwary. These government returns,[1] the first of their kind and interesting from many points of view, show that the total expenditure from the imperial exchequer on primary, secondary, technical, and university education in England, Wales, and Scotland in the year 1904–5 was £14,985,135. This means that, apart from the cost of central administration, the amount paid in grants from the imperial exchequer for the different forms of state-aided education was 6 *s.* 11 *d.* per head in England and Wales. By a curious coincidence, exactly the same contribution per head was made in Scotland. But when we come to add together the educational expenditure from national taxes and from local taxes, we find that England and Wales run ahead of Scotland. Out of local taxes every man, woman, and child in England and Wales paid, in 1904–5, 5 *s.* 5¼ *d.* for education. The corresponding figure in Scotland was only 4 *s.* 10½ *d.* The total expenditure on education from the imperial exchequer and from local rates in 1904–5 for the whole United Kingdom was £26,913,364. Of this amount, England and Wales were responsible for £22,303,156.

But changes in the form of educational administration and the rapid

[1] *House of Commons Return*, No. 305 (1906). Price 1½ *d.*

increase in the cost of educational supply are only symptoms of a much deeper change in public opinion. It is not too much to say that the last ten years have worked a revolution in the standpoint from which the more thoughtful of English citizens view the problem of how best to train boys and girls for social efficiency and for the duties of citizenship. Educational thought is broadening. The old bad habit of speaking of education as if it were simply a matter of school-teaching is losing its hold. It is now coming to be more clearly understood that the physical side of education is not less important than the intellectual. Ever since the time of Locke, English people have been predisposed to take this view. But modern science has emphasized the importance of physical training, of proper and sufficient food, of adequate sleep, of pure air, of wise limitations of labor. England too, especially since the time of Dr. Arnold, has always laid stress on the moral side of education as at least equal in importance to the intellectual. But it is now being dimly perceived that this requirement of right physical, intellectual, and moral conditions in training really involves the provision of a suitable social environment for young people from their earliest years. And thus there is breaking in upon our thoughts the view that all education worthy of the name is but one aspect of the social question. The shrewder sort of English thinkers on education have always seen this. Robert Owen saw it; Carlyle saw it; Ruskin saw it; and the teaching of these three men is part of the intellectual and moral influence which lies behind the rise of the new Labor Party. We in England, however, are not agreed about our social ideal. The result is that there is opening up a new field of educational controversy which really turns upon an ideal of social environment. Happily there is a large field of agreement in which common action will be possible.

The educational awakening in England, with its broadening of view and new complexity of varied purpose, is the result of many influences, social, economic, ethical, and scientific. Always in the welter of our educational thought, influences from abroad have played their part. The social organization of the German empire, tho clearly unsuited in many respects to the temperament of the Englishman, has never before had so powerful a influence upon English political thought. And not less penetrating have been the influences from beyond the Atlantic. American zeal for educational reform, American faith in free public education as a factor in the well-being of the modern state, have had a profound influence upon English opinion. And may I, without doing injustice to the work of others, mention five names among great American educators, which are of especial significance to English workers in the educational field? Dr. William T. Harris, late U. S. Commissioner of Education, has won an abiding place in the affections of every English teacher and student who has had the honor of becoming personally acquainted with him. And the *Reports* from the Bureau of Education issued under his direction are among the best-used books of educational reference on an English educational worker's shelves. President Eliot, of

Harvard University, is another household name in this country, and some of his inspiring addresses, notably that on Education for Efficiency, have been very widely read among all branches of the teaching profession. President Butler, of Columbia University, by his unfailing helpfulness to English students and his unsurpassed knowledge of the various departments of educational work, has become as it were a *proxenos* for English students of education. The influence of President Stanley Hall has also been penetrating and far-reaching. The child-study movement, which also owes very much in Great Britain to the insight and originality of Professor Earl Barnes, looks to Dr. Hall for much of its inspiration; and it is not too much to say that numbers of English teachers think of the educational bearing of the problems of adolescence from a different point of view in consequence of Dr. Hall's teaching. Fifthly, in its power of challenge and in its freshness of disintegrating criticism, the writing of Professor John Dewey is potent in English educational thought. I am not sure that it may not turn out that conclusions indirectly drawn from Professor Dewey's suggestions may divert from its old channels much of the traditional democratic thought on educational problems. But, tho I have mentioned my five names, there are others which cannot be omitted. Dr. Maxwell, of New York, and President Hadley, of Yale, come at once into the thoughts of any one who would attempt the briefest catalogue of American influences in English educational thought. Nor should the influence of American schoolbooks and theoretical writings on education be forgotten. You can hardly find an English teacher's room without well-used American textbooks upon the shelves. And yet more important than all these influences, personal and otherwise, are the great streams of experience and of comment and the friendly interchange of view which are the outcome of the increasingly frequent visits of Americans to the United Kingdom and of travelers from here to America. For their encouragement of travel in America with a view to the study of educational methods and institutions, the efforts of Mr. Alfred Mosely are held in high and deserved honor.

It is important that the distant student should not forget that there are virtually four separate educational systems in the United Kingdom. England and Wales, Scotland and Ireland have each of them their own educational legislation and government. But there is much reciprocal influence between the educational ideals and the educational experience of the four countries. The Scottish system is the most homogeneous, the Irish is the most divided, the Welsh the most emotional and enthusiastic, the English the most complicated and various. For historical reasons, we are not at one in our thoughts about social organization. Regarded as a composite figure, the Englishman may seem to some to be a Mr. Facing-Both-Ways. But the real truth is that at his best a sober-minded Englishman has the candor and good sense to look at both sides of the case. He likes what in the intellectual sphere is, in Pascal's words, the combination of opposite truths, and what in

the practical sphere is workable compromise. One of his best qualities is a certain temperateness of judgment. He feels sympathy with what is true in opposite theories. The better educated he is, the more distrustful he is of abstract formulas. Like Richard Baxter, he thinks that "more light and greater truth are with the reconcilers than with either of the two contending parties." But looked at from a distance, he must sometimes appear to stagger about in muddle-headed inefficiency. He is always maintaining what must look to the distant observer to be quite unnecessarily duplicated institutions. He is prone to compromise; he seems to set no store by lucidity of thought. His acts of Parliament are a marvel of obscurity. He has no written constitution. Daily, when he dares to do so, he thanks Heaven that he has not. In the armory of his ancient precedents he always keeps ready for use some justification of whatever political revolution he has next a mind for. Everything is loose and free and easy-fitting, like an old coat or a well-worn shoe. He admires the German spick-and-spanness, but, after inspecting its results, he walks away with his mind set upon his own way of doing things and upon his own comfortable habits. He likes to hear himself scolded, because he knows it is good for him to have the discipline of abuse, especially when he is aware that at bottom he is right. And this state of mind, this habit of thought, reflect themselves in his education. He has not one system, but a score of systems. His educational organization is a conglomerate. It works behind the scenes a good deal better than one would think. It has its compensations, its private balances, its tacit checks, and it is in an incessant state of change, buzzing at present in all directions with new and unregarded experiments.

But, after all, the great question remains unsolved. How will this mixture of bold novelty and venerable tradition bear the strain of the new forces, first of democracy, secondly of scientific competition.[1] We feel ourselves, at any rate in England, in the power of a new current: we are passing rapidly forward to fresh issues and to unexpected change. But nothing will help us more in the difficult times which are upon us than a certain out-of-door sanity of view which the best kind of Englishman never quite loses and which indisposes him to take up with the intellectual fashion of the moment. So long as he can, he walks in the old ways. He does not like to cast aside people and institutions which have served him well. He is not very hopeful of any rapid changes in human nature. Most of all he distrusts the vendors of educational panaceas: he thinks them quacks. But now he finds himself compelled to make trial of general education on a much more serious scale than ever before. He comes to the new task with very little experience. He has crude ideas about it. Perhaps what will serve him best is a certain shrewdness of temperament which makes no pretense to cleverness, but sometimes hits a truth which cleverness does not observe. And

[1] The fact that in some industrial districts the population is increasing much less rapidly than heretofore has social and educational bearings of deep significance

among the truths to which the wiser English statesman attaches especial importance is the wisdom of not pressing social reform to the point at which it unnecessarily estranges one class of the community from another.

THE TEACHING OF MODERN LANGUAGES IN ENGLAND

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The reorganization and rearrangement by the local authorities thruout England of our whole system of education, and especially of that branch of it known as secondary, offers us a unique opportunity for putting the teaching of modern languages on a sound basis. Now or never we have to bring home to the powers that be the importance of due recognition and support for French or German, or both, in any curriculum that professes to provide a liberal education. Moreover, with the supremacy of Greek being challenged in our larger schools and that of Latin in the smaller, it is essential that those who believe that every well-balanced curriculum should contain a certain minimum of literary elements should develop and strengthen the teaching of the mother-tongue and of modern languages in order to provide an adequate alternative for the classics which it will otherwise be difficult to replace. Our task is therefore twofold, to convince not only the head-master who controls the hours of study, but also the local authority who provides so largely the ways and means. But this implies the necessity of sketching out as far as possible a modern-language course in its fullest and completest form, indicating *en passant* where it must be curtailed and abridged in those cases in which it only occupies a prominent in place of a predominant position in the cycle of studies. Our task would be far easier were the subjects as yet untaught in English schools. We should merely have to outline new methods and indicate the qualifications requisite in those who should apply them. As it is, the field is largely occupied by teachers employing an almost infinite variety of methods, some good, others the reverse, some well applied, others spoilt in the application. In framing the *grandes lignes* of a complete course, the wisest way seems to be to make a rough analysis of existing methods with a view to selecting among the different types the strands of teaching likely to form a sound staple of instruction. By thus indicating how the new and old are combined, we shall make the transition easier for existing teachers by suggesting to them how they may readjust their teaching, instead of asking them to "scrap" all their existing experience—a proposal that none can regard with complacency, and few with equanimity.

Amid the infinite variety of methods at present in vogue, we may distinguish three main tendencies which for the sake of convenience may be labeled the Right, the Left, and the Center. The first group is composed of old-fashioned orthodox teachers, who, reared in the atmosphere of classical traditions, believe that the aim of their teaching is to give a mental discipline

of the best possible kind, to teach the language in a scholarly fashion, and to utilize the foreign tongue as a means of teaching the king's English. They are thorogoing believers in a liberal application of grammar, translation, and composition. The foreign language is treated *perinde ac cadaver*. The ear is quite untrained, accent is largely neglected, conversation is practically ignored.

The aim of the Left is to enable the pupil to understand, speak, and later on to write the language. They point out that excessive grammatical analysis defeats its own object; they ridicule the employment of methods suitable for the mature scholar for teaching the language to the small boy of nine; they insist on the rôle of imitation. They put in the front of their program the education of the ear and tongue. So far from using the mother-tongue as a medium for learning the foreign language, they insist that the two should be kept as far apart as possible, while so far from neglecting the mother-tongue, they consider it should be the subject of independent study. If rather careless of the literary side, they give concreteness to their teaching by a liberal use of *Realien*, and by affording the pupil an insight into the country itself, its institutions and inhabitants. They thus give background to their teaching, as well as infusing it with a moral aim. The pupil involuntarily acquires a better appreciation of his neighbors across the water, and this makes for international good-will.

Between these two extremes come the Center, who steer a middle course between the two extremes. Thus they believe in training the ear and tongue, and they likewise believe in the usefulness of grammar. Unsuccessful compromise naturally ends in a jumble, but skilful compromise combines the best forms of opposing schools. The future does not appear to lie with the extremists of either party, but rather with those who are keen on new experiments, while refusing to throw over what has proved of value in the past, with, in fact, that section which, being nearer the Left, than the Right, I would call the Left Center. The fault of the conservatives seems largely to lie in the application of methods at the outset which have their place to a certain extent later on; the weakness or rather incompleteness of the reformers seems to be their apparently tacit assumption of the adequacy of certain methods which produce excellent results in the *débutant*, yet are of themselves insufficient to cultivate the finer literary and critical instincts of the maturer pupils.

What then would be the program of the Left Center? At the beginning they would decidedly incline to the Left. They would insist that the younger the child, the more oral the teaching should be. In fact, with young children they would probably hold that what with pictures and pantomime they could largely dispense with a textbook. Such kindergarten French involves the employment of all sorts of concerted movements and games, which may be judiciously varied by the introduction of songs and simple dialogues. Under cover of these exercises the simple elements of grammar may be taught, but always incidentally, and never in a formal abstract fashion. Not merely

correct accent but correct articulation must be insisted on from the start; clearness and distinctness of speech are far too often ignored in English schools. There is no harm in beginning a foreign language early, provided the mother-tongue is not neglected.

With pupils of nine and older the teaching may be much more formal. Such pupils will already have learned the art of reading and writing. The phonetic script may be used and phonetic drill practiced by means of *Lauttafeln*. If the pupil is not allowed to write the script, it does not apparently upset his acquisition of the ordinary spelling later on. Songs and dialogues have here their place. A reading-book should be introduced early, but it must not be composed of disconnected sentences, but of short stories. Nothing is more fatal to the sentiment of interest than a succession of sentences which have no connection with one another. Great stress should be laid on class reading, both singly and in chorus. In all oral exercises all mumbling and gabbling must be strictly forbidden. Grammar should be learned inductively, especially syntax. But the grammatical knowledge thus amassed should from time to time be classified—supplemented if necessary—by the learning by heart of kindred forms in simple accidence, and reduced to a logical shape in the pupil's mind by means of a small grammar. The ordinary class directions should be given in French, but care must be taken that the French is beyond reproach. The mother-tongue should not be excluded, but when employed should be used as sparingly as possible, as a sort of temporary scaffolding to be taken down at the earliest possible moment. If the teacher attempts to dispense altogether with it, it is almost impossible to guard against vagueness or even positive misconception. Besides, to explain everything in the foreign tongue is very laborious for the teacher, and undoubtedly tiresome for the more quick-witted boys in the class. The home work in the opening stage should mainly consist of recapitulation and revision of what has already been done in school. In this way alone is it possible to keep down the percentage of mistakes to a reasonable figure. A good proportion of the work should be oral, whether it be poetry to commit to memory, or a page of French to read over aloud.

So far the teaching is mainly based on the theory of the Left, but when we come to the question of reading *versus* translation, we find expert opinion deeply divided. The advocates of reading only insist that the exclusion of the mother-tongue enormously strengthens the *Sprachgefühl*. The partisans of translation admit the contention to a certain extent, but point out how they are able to cover a vast deal more ground, and can certainly teach conversation from the reading-book in a more rapid fashion. The "new methodist" can and does practice conversation in a similar way, but he cannot go the same pace, because he is not certain that his class understand the meaning of the words. As conversation taught off the reading-book is one of the chief aids to the practice of oral composition, which in its turn should form the stepping-stone to written composition, the question of the rapid acquisition of

vocabulary is obviously of great importance. It is in fact one of the three capital problems which confront the learner, the other two being the acquisition of accent and grammar. He who has not mastered all three has not mastered the language. Moreover there are two kinds of vocabulary to acquire. One which consists of words the pupil uses and the other, a far larger one, of words which he understands when he hears them or meets with them in print, but rarely if ever uses. If an adequate speaking vocabulary consists of (say) some five thousand words, the other amounts to at least ten or fifteen thousand. Translation, therefore, is one of the best ways and means for acquiring this second vocabulary, tho later on, when a good vocabulary has been got together, the use of a second reading text, exclusively reserved for rapid reading without translation, is also of considerable assistance in strengthening and adding to the pupil's vocabulary.

So far we have assumed that French should be the first foreign language to be studied. Most persons will agree with this conclusion. There is, however, a minority who contend that we should rather begin with German. Such people argue that owing to its accent, intonation, and spelling, which is largely phonetic, as well as to its closer kinship with English, it is the more suitable language for beginners. As regards accent and intonation they are probably right, tho these are not such formidable obstacles with younger as with older children. In respect to word-relationships, everything depends on the age of the learner. If he is already able to read fairly fluently, he comes across quite as many words of Latin origin in English to which French is generally a trustworthy key. On the other hand, German, with its more abundant inflexions, its numerous inversions, its complicated word order and involved sentences, not to mention the difficulties connected with the genders and prepositions, far more intricate than similar problems in French, appears to become the harder of the two as the pupils go farther into the language. German, no doubt, is the language of research, yet it is often forgotten how much the French have done in these matters, especially in the way of putting into shape the disconnected investigations of others. Again, as far as commerce is concerned, French is certainly the more useful language. Most German merchants know English, a large percentage of French do not. Our traders can therefore far more easily do without German than without French. Where, however, French as a school subject seems so immeasurably superior to German is that, as the direct descendant of Latin, it is a better stepping-stone to the study of that language than German. But its chiefest claim to the premiership seems to be in its unrivaled lucidity and its cult of form. If there are any qualities which we as a nation specially lack, they are the habit of lucid and logical thought, and the art to express ourselves in a clear and concise fashion.

Of course, while German should in most cases be the second language, it does not mean that Spanish, or even Italian should never be taken up. In some towns, notably Liverpool and Swansea, Spanish might well be the

second string. In such cases, it is worth considering whether German should not be made the first, for such boys as take it up, to prevent their studying two languages of the same group. But the question which modern language should be studied first is bound up with the much larger ones of the relation of classics to modern languages in classical and semi-classical schools, of the general order in which languages should be taught, and indeed of linguistic teaching as a whole. At present the several languages as a rule are taught on exclusively analytic lines, or else as diversely as possible. The study of two, or even more, is commenced almost simultaneously. Classics are begun at so early an age that many get disgusted with the subject, either because they began too young or ought never to have studied the subject at all. What is wanted is, as far as practical, similarity of method in linguistic attack. Each language has, of course, its own idiosyncrasies, and there are certain common features, certain general grammatical notions common to all. Again, in language teaching, as in everything else, we must start with the easy and proceed to the less easy. Hence the mother-tongue must be the basis of linguistic study. And finally, we must make certain of one language before we open accounts with another, otherwise our mental book-keeping is apt to get mixed, and we shall be liable to form cross-entries between the different languages, like the school-boy who wrote "*Nous avons duos frères.*" These conditions appear to be largely satisfied by the so-called Frankfort method, which bids fair to become the normal system of language-teaching in Germany in the near future. The mother-tongue is made the basis of instruction. French is begun at nine and studied intensively for three years. Then comes a parting of the ways. The absolutely modern boy can now take up a second modern language, English, while those classically inclined study Latin intensively for two years. And finally, there is a second bifurcation between the full classical section, in which Greek is taken up and studied intensively, and a Latin-modern languages section. Further, the work is so arranged that a boy who leaves at sixteen has received a complete education of a kind, tho the full course is for pupils of eighteen to nineteen. Could such a system be adopted in English schools, the gain would be very great. The choice between Latin or no Latin could be postponed to a more reasonable age, and the classical side less blocked with hopeless duffers whose *métier* is really elsewhere. The problem of Greek would be solved in the same fashion. One can hardly expect the big public schools at once to reverse their methods, but we may reasonably expect the new local authorities to require the introduction of the experiment in the schools under their authority or patronage.

But we have not as yet come to the end of the list of obstacles to the formation of an ideal curriculum. The present widespread system of external examinations is still a serious hindrance to the evolution of a proper course of study in individual schools. Happily, there are abundant signs of improvement in the near future. That thing of shreds and patches, the grammar

paper, which formerly bristled with all the *lusus naturae* in the language, looks like being replaced shortly by a *questionnaire* of sentences and phrases to turn into French. The introduction of oral examinations on a large scale, tho still only optional, is a move in the right direction, for which the Cambridge University Syndicate may take much credit. The attempt to combine inspection with examination on the lines suggested by London University is equally promising, especially as examination is treated as a branch of inspection, or one of the ways, and not the sole and unique way as heretofore, for testing the work of the school. No one can at present forecast the future of the Leaving Certificate, which has been exposed by the Board of Education on the Educational Taygetus on the chance of the various authorities rescuing it from destruction. But one thing is plain enough. With the spread of the direct method, the difficulty of examining the lower classes of a large number of schools by means of written papers will increase, and the case for individual inspection and examination will grow. It will be a mercy if we can get some of the cup-tie spirit out of our schools, and replace it by higher ideals.

But there yet remains a final question. What ought the curriculum in our higher classes to be, supposing that the Frankfort method be adopted and the disturbance produced by external examinations be reduced to a minimum? This is a point that has not received the attention it deserves in England. Historically, the explanation is easy. The reformers who have been fighting the battle of oral French have had no time to consider the second stage. Still, it is clear our aim must be something more than to turn out animated phonographs, if indeed from the point of view of literature and culture we are to produce persons of something like the same intellectual caliber as the scholars who owe their training to a classical discipline. Probably a study of the curricula of the German schools would supply us with many abundant hints. What we need is a regular *catalogue raisonné*, not a mere alphabetical bibliography, of textbooks as short notes to say for what classes they would be suitable, and above all, we want set out a clear and definite idea of the aim that each school—whether classical, scientific, or literary—should adopt, with suggestions as to the best methods for its attainment. As before, the reading-book should be the center of instruction, but, as the pupils proceed, the bias given to the teaching should be more and more literary in the true sense of the word. Thus, with pupils of sixteen and upward, Racine and Corneille, so out of place in the lower classes, should now be studied rather than second-rate modern novels. Such pupils should be able to appreciate the fine literary flavor of these classic authors, having by this time become possessed of a standard of comparison, thru their acquisition of the modern idiom. The reading of selections and snippets should be reduced to a minimum. Authors should be read in large quantities or in works complete in themselves, such as poems and plays. The teaching should as far as possible be conducted in the foreign medium. Gram-

mar should not be pushed to excess, nor its modern supplanter, philology, tho a little handbook on historical grammar would not be out of place. But the instruction should be, above all, literary and critical. It should include discussions on the subject-matter of, say, the play the class was studying, with an analysis of the plot, of the principal characters, and of the stage-craft displayed by the writer, dealing with such questions as why such and such a person or incident is introduced. These matters might also be utilized as materials for original composition. That parasite of modern education, the annotated edition, should as far as possible be dispensed with. Instead of studying a poem or play as an artistic or literary whole, the pupil has his attention perpetually called off and distracted by some footnote of fifth-rate importance, while his taste and judgment are formed in advance for him by the critical appreciation prefixed to the text. What external information is required should be supplied by the teacher or hunted up by the pupils themselves in the reference library of the school. Alongside of the comparatively careful study of some classical masterpiece, the pupils should employ for rapid reading a play by the same writer, or by one of the same or even a later epoch, which would afford scope and subject-matter for comparison and contrast, while the writings of some great French critic on the author in question might be simultaneously studied. At the same time, certain modern standard authors could be recommended for home reading. In the highest class an introduction might be made to the study of philosophy by reading in class Descartes' *Discours de la méthode*, or some of Pascal's works.

Such, then, is a very rough sketch of a full curriculum.

It will doubtless have been noted that no attempt has been made to draw a line between the teaching of modern languages in secondary and primary schools. The reason is simple. Granted that the teachers are capable, the beginning stage should always be the same, tho the scale on which the methods are applied must naturally depend on the time allotted. Even in evening schools, wherever the teaching of modern languages is properly organized, it would probably be better to make accent and pronunciation the *pièce de résistance* of the first year's course, translation of the second, leaving the commercial study of the language to the third year. In the same way, in those schools whose pupils go into business, the teaching of commercial French and German should be postponed till the last year of the school course. The pupils will pick up the technical side all the quicker, the better the foundation they have laid in the general knowledge of the language.

The successful realization of any curriculum, however complete in theory, demands in practice the elimination of certain all-too-prevalent disabilities and the fulfilment of certain indispensable desiderata. Some of these have been more or less touched on already. They deserve, however, separate treatment in order to give them their proper focus and proportion.

1. Allusion has already been made to the need of treating the mother-

tongue as the basis of all linguistic instruction. This means that the teaching must be brought into line with that of French and German, and the old classical methods abandoned. The reading-book must be made the center of instruction. Great stress should be laid on reading aloud and recitation as a means not merely of teaching simple elocution but of encouraging literary appreciation. Questions should be employed to lead up to the practice of oral narration based on the reading-book, and this in its turn should prove a stepping-stone to written composition, which at the start should also be largely reproductive. Grammar should be principally taught inductively from the reading-book. A simple grammar might be used for reference or revision, but the bulk of the work should consist of botanizing in the text itself. Literature, again, should be studied for the sake of the subject-matter and thought-content, not merely for the grammatical constructions it contains; above all, pupils should be encouraged to find out what the author aimed at, and how he tried to accomplish his aims. They must, in fact, unravel the author's plot, his characters, the precise reason of their exits and entrances, the nature of their motives, the effect of their actions on one another and on the general trend of the story. We want an analysis of his purposes and processes, not a lifeless grammatical dissection of the result. We want to study, in fact, the dynamic element in his work—a study which confines itself to collecting the various flowers of rhetoric is but a study in gargoyles. We want to reconstitute, if we can, the master-builder's plan of the whole, in which, however much we study the architectural details, we must not forget they are parts of a single entity.

This is but a thumb-nail sketch of what the teaching should be, but enough has probably been said to show that our chief aim is to standardize our methods of teaching different languages as far as possible. A boy trained on the above-mentioned lines should bring to the study of French certain valuable tools and instruments which have already been forged by his experience of the first language. He will know how to look out for parts of speech, or make simple distinctions between subject and object. Having learned to speak clearly in his own language, he will not mumble his French and German. He will readily take to the method of oral narration, and as he advances in the foreign tongue he will be more ready to recognize literature as literature, and less likely to regard it as gibberish to be turned into dog-English.

2. Reference has already been made to the need of a graduated list of authors for the different classes. It is equally important that the number of grammar and exercise books in any one school should be reduced to a minimum. Not infrequently one finds in many of the classes a separate grammar and exercise book, fossil relics of different epochs in modern language teaching. What is wanted in modern schools is a simple grammar in French written for English boys, or a skeleton one in English in those schools in which only two hours a week are given to the subject. Larger grammars, if in use, should be employed mainly for reference.

3. Co-ordination between the work of class and class is absolutely essential if one class is to serve as a stepping-stone to the next. It is especially necessary in the case of teaching conversation on common topics. Unless certain topics are duly allotted to certain forms, overlapping or omissions are sure to occur. To insure co-ordination it is imperative that one of the staff should be made responsible for the organization of the modern-language teaching, a principle that has recently been largely adopted in London schools.

4. But co-ordination between subject and subject is equally essential to a well-balanced curriculum, especially in the matter of the setting of home work. Hence the need for a thoro understanding between the specialists on the different subjects, with the head-master acting as honest broker to see that each gets fair play.

5. But good teaching on modern lines requires good classroom accomodation. How can we get clear enunciation in a crowded schoolroom? Science, thanks in part to its effect on the olfactory nerves, has conquered for itself classrooms of its own; let us hope that modern language teaching will work such havoc with the auditory nerves of the neighboring classes, that it will make good its claim to separate accommodation.

6. Assuming it does so, care should be taken to make the French classroom as much a part of France as the French embassy in London is really a French *enclave* on British soil. All notices should be in French. There might be French maps and pictures on the walls, with illustrations in natural size of the French weights and measures, coins, etc. What we want to create is a regular French atmosphere. The pupil should feel the change on entering it, just as he feels a change on entering a church.

7. Such a room should contain a French library, with three sections, for beginners, juniors, and seniors. The books should be light reading, and all should be encouraged to take out a volume. A preference should be shown for illustrated books and weekly or monthly illustrated magazines. Such publications are not unlikely to tempt an inquisitive Alfred to study the text for the sake of understanding the pictures.

8. All these arrangements are of little effect if the pupils leave too early. This is a very common defect in middle-class schools, especially when they are in good odor with the business world. A palliative would be the granting of a leaving letter to those boys only who have been three years at the school, while the business men should be publicly acquainted, either thru the local Chamber of Commerce or otherwise, with the fact that all other boys who claim the hallmark of membership do so *S. G. D. G.*, as the French say.

9. Still more injurious to the proper working of a curriculum based on the usual method is the irregular ages and seasons at which the new recruits enter. Sets, however, may do a great deal, and even extra classes something for bringing these modern-language "ineffectives" up to the mark. It is certainly a pity we cannot demand of the parents that these "specials" receive extra coaching at home as they do in Germany. Personally, one would like

to see a higher fee charged in the case of a boy who was over thirteen at entrance unless he came on from an accredited school, while boys who did not join at the beginning of the school year might be made to pay on a higher scale for the odd term or two preceding the next financial year.

10. Another factor to be reckoned with is the question of classes of manageable size. The point is so well known, there is no need to elaborate it here. It is worth noting, however, that the French official program looks on twenty-five as a maximum, and indicates that even this number should be avoided if possible.

11. Teachers under the new method suffer from a double disadvantage. Their work needs more preparation, it is also far more exhaustive. German statistics prove that modern-language teaching on modern lines is rapidly becoming a dangerous trade. The *Neuphilolog* has four years less expectation of life than his colleagues. Yet the German teacher has only about 20–18 hours net per week in school. Obviously, if the reform is permanently to prosper in England, we must cut down radically the number of teaching hours for the modern language master. This again has been done in many London schools.

12. If the staff are not all equally competent, the best teachers must be put on at the bottom and the top of the school. It is everything to get the foundations in properly. Even if the teaching falls off in the middle, the boys who have been well grounded can be pulled together again in the upper classes.

13. But the teaching in any one form should never be divided up if possible. To give one man the translation and the other the composition is to cut the latter off his legitimate source of supplies. Only when there is a foreigner on the staff is it advisable to give the translation to an Englishman. But in that case the pupils ought to read with the foreigner. The use of a young Frenchman in this respect as an assistant has much to commend it. He can take the upper boys not only in reading but also in conversation and occasionally in free composition, while his presence on the staff gives the teachers a chance of keeping up their French.

14. Altho we have a certain number of very capable foreign teachers, the experience of France and Germany is overwhelmingly in favor of the efficient home-bred teacher. He probably does not know the language so well, but he knows its difficulties better. And in teaching it is not enough to know; one must also be able to locate the pupil's standpoint in order to throw him a rope across the unknown. Moreover, the home-bred teacher knows the temper and temperament of his own countrymen as the foreigner never can.

15. All these questions of smaller classes, reduced hours of teaching, and competent teachers are at bottom purely financial questions. They mean more teachers and better rates of pay. No modern teacher ought to start on less than £150, when one considers what his training has cost him.

Our one hope of the establishment of modern languages on a sound basis must, in the face of the niggardly doles of the Board of Education, rest with the new local authorities as far as the aided schools are concerned, one of which has recently solved the financial problem at least. The London County Council instituted last July a new scheme of salaries for teachers in its secondary schools. Men assistants can under certain circumstances rise to a salary of £350 a year, and women teachers are correspondingly liberally treated.

16. But if these bodies come to the rescue, it is sincerely to be hoped they will in return demand that the schools they aid offer a complete and well-organized course of study in modern languages. This does not mean the infliction on these schools of a rigid curriculum, but only the observance of certain definite principles in the teaching of the subject, while at the same time allowing a wide latitude in the degree in which they are enforced. Such principles would involve, for instance, an oral treatment of the language at the start, recognition of conversation as a branch of the subject, the mother-tongue being made the basis of linguistic instruction, and languages being taken up in their proper order of study.

17. In order to hasten the adoption of these principles, the local authorities would have to take steps to improve the existing teachers and secure a supply of properly trained and qualified teachers in the future. To effect the former object, assistants might freely be introduced into the schools. In university towns the lectors who ought to be attached to every chair of language might conduct conversation classes for teachers and give them lectures on French life. The local teachers' guild might start a French club, and this might find premises in the teachers' institute, which every large town should possess. Again, in university towns the universities might so organize their courses as to allow for graduate or post-graduate study in the evenings. Local authorities might offer to pay fees at such courses and also at holiday courses abroad. And lastly, after seven years' service, every teacher should have a right to claim a year's furlough on full pay with a view to visiting other schools and getting out of the rut into which the best of us are liable to fall. As for the training of secondary teachers, the whole thing is so much in the making one can only throw out a hint or two. Local authorities might offer scholarships at the local university in modern languages; they might also encourage students already in residence to spend their vacations abroad; and lastly, they might copy the example of certain German towns and give traveling scholarships to those who have already taken a degree.

In conclusion, I would wish to emphasize two points. One is the need of establishing certain principles at the very start. If this is done, we shall be saved from the danger of adopting *en bloc* any stereotyped curriculum and refusing to alter any jot or tittle in it; on the other hand, if we always have these principles in view when building up a curriculum, we shall be saved from incorporating in it practices which are really incompatible with sound

educational theory. And lastly, I would once more emphasize the fact that the ultimate solution of the problem is very largely a solution of £. *s. d.* It is money that makes the mare go, and it is money that alone can make the best of schemes work.

SECONDARY EDUCATION OF GIRLS DURING THE PAST FIFTY YEARS

I. IN ENGLAND

BY DOROTHEA BEALE, PRINCIPAL OF THE CHELTENHAM LADIES' COLLEGE, ENGLAND [1]

I propose to give some account of the marvelous change that has taken place during the last half-century in the education of girls. I shall speak only of secondary and higher education, and of the great enlargement consequent thereupon of the sphere of women's work.

Fifty years ago, "society" excluded from its ranks any who earned money. A "lady," if she could by small economies manage to live, was expected, on pain of losing caste, to do nothing to increase her income. The "old maid's" was a pitiable lot for most, and it was so proclaimed. I have had to listen to a clergyman, a teacher of girls, saying that a woman who did not marry was a "social failure," and another advised a father not to allow his five girls to teach because their "prospects would be injured."

Those to whom a substantial mental diet was as necessary as food for the body were fain to take it in secret, with blinds drawn down, lest Mrs Grundy should espy them. It was under protest that Elizabeth Barrett learned Greek —her grandmother wanted to keep her to needlework; and Mary Somerville anxiously enquired if it was "wrong for girls to learn Latin." The excellent classical scholar, Caroline Cornwallis, wrote on philosophy under the title of a Pariah; her books were much read, but she preserved her incognito as scrupulously as Junius, until her death. Her mother was a good Hebrew scholar, and a cousin was well versed in the three classical languages and in mathematics. These and a few like-minded, as Miss Swanwick, the author of translations of Aeschylus, obeyed the inward impulse to unfold to the light the intellect which God had given them. By their faith, mountains of prejudice have indeed been removed and cast into the sea. We have lived to see the

[1] It becomes a sad duty to announce the death of Miss Dorothea Beale on November 9, 1906, in her seventy-fifth year. This article which she, as a corresponding member, had consented to prepare for the Anniversary Volume was the last paper written by her, and is a review of the growth of the great work of which she was the distinguished leader in England for half a century. After serving several years with distinction as a mathematical and classical tutor in Queen's College, and for one year as head tutor in the Clergy Daughters' School at Casterton—Charlotte Bronte's "Lowood"—Miss Beale was appointed in 1858 head mistress of the famous Ladies' College of Cheltenham, in the fourth year of its existence, which position she held continuously to the time of her death.

She was the virtual founder and creator of this great school for girls. It is impossible here to review her services as principal of this school for nearly fifty years and her efforts in every part of the United Kingdom in behalf of education for girls; a work which places her beside Mrs. William Grey, the pioneer of the modern education for girls in England. One of her former pupils closes a touching "Appreciation" with the words, "She has been, and still is, to those who knew her, a true Dorothea—the gift of God."—[Editor.]

daughters of prime ministers and bishops not ashamed to become paid workers like their brothers and fathers.

Half a century ago certain subjects were considered masculine and others feminine, and the general opinion regarding the right and the duty of women to use their intellect is perhaps made more evident by such protests as Mrs. Jameson's in her beautiful lectures on the Communion of Labor, than by any direct attack—even as the Apologies of the early church show the existing ideas of the heathen world.

> We are told [she writes], practically to seek the shade till morally we fear the light. Why cannot we walk bravely, honestly, serenely, yet simply, along the path to which it hath pleased God to call us, instead of creeping about in a spirit of fear? There are men manly and far-sighted, eager to instruct us, eager to recognize in us companions by the grace of God.

She enlarges on what was "surprising and delightful, that there were found eleven distinguished professional men, ready and willing to deliver lectures to ladies on practical subjects." She adds—

> it is not anywhere indicated that weakness and ignorance are to be accounted as charms in women by which they are to recommend themselves to intellectual men; or that it is unfeminine to study the conditions of health; or that the desire to know something of those divine laws through which she lives, and moves and has her being, is the result of a "depraved imagination."

She gives the astounding fact that out of nearly 80,000 women who married in 1854, 68,000 could not write their names. "Morally," she writes, "a woman has a right to the free and entire development of every faculty God has given her."

One was ever hearing that women were made to be wives and mothers, and it was not apparently evident that they could be neither in the fullest sense, unless they were "beings breathing thoughtful breath." Bishop Dupanloup in his *Femmes savantes*, modestly suggested that the parable of the talents applied to women as well as men.

I might also refer to Miss Davies on *Higher Education*, to Miss Shirreff's book, to Miss Parke's *Essays*, and to an article of mine in *Fraser's Magazine* for 1866.

Mrs. Gamp ruled in the hospital; soldiers died on the battlefield without educated nurses; the poor were untaught; the middle classes learned in the schools "words and facts;"[1] science was studied unscientifically, drawing was copying other drawings, music, playing pieces. There were no schools in London corresponding with the grammar and public schools, which daughters of well-to-do people could attend; the middle classes were taught by resident governesses and perhaps sent for a short time to boarding schools. In the fashionable boarding school, "accomplishments," as they were called, were the chief occupation, and the committing to memory of words, empirical unconnected facts, and rules of grammar prevailed.

[1] *Report of the Schools' Inquiry Commission* (1868). A few copies remain and will be sent to those members of the National Educational Association who ask me for them.

The first definite movement for the higher education of women may be traced perhaps to the foundation of the Governesses' Benevolent Society in 1843. A registry was opened by the society, but it was found almost impossible to distinguish real governesses from mere pretenders. There was absolutely no test. To those who can read between the lines, the following sentences, in the report for 1846, speak of vain efforts to found a college, to get an examining board recognized, and to obtain government grants; there was opposition from some subscribers, whose idea of charity was the giving of money.

> The Committee expressed their disappointment. They were not prepared to find the higher authorities of the country unawakened to the importance of female education in its bearing upon national character, and thus upon national prosperity, nor to find that those legislative favours which have been lavished so freely upon the Endowed Schools and Universities for the one sex, should be withheld from the first effort ever made to place female education upon a proper basis.

In the Report for 1847, we read: The College has commenced its operations this year. Her Majesty has permitted the use of the "Royal name for Queen's College." Some of the professors of King's College in October, 1847, began to examine gratuitously and to grant certificates to governesses, and the professors of King's College kindly opened free evening lectures for ladies engaged in teaching. Miss Buss writes, "Queen's College opened a new life to me intellectually; to come in contact with the minds of such men was a new experience to me and to most women. I was a member of the evening lectures at the outset." Early in 1848 a series of opening lectures were given which were afterwards published in a volume, and helped much to modify public opinion. Mr. Llewellyn Davies has rightly called the establishment of Queen's College an epoch in female education. Some of the first teachers were Frederick Denison Maurice, E. Hayes Plumptre (afterward Dean of Wells), Richard Chevenix Trench (afterward Archbishop of Dublin), Dr. Brewer, the historian, and other leading men. Lady Stanley, of Alderley, Lady Monteagle, Lady Canning, Mrs. Wedgwood, and many others became lady visitors. The queen founded scholarships. It is strange from the vantage ground of the present to read the apologetic tone of these early papers: the prophecy of the founders of Queen's College has indeed been fulfilled. They write, "When the whole class look back at some future time upon the operations of the Society, the Committee are sanguine that this will be the branch from which has resulted the largest amount of permanent and general advantage."

A simultaneous movement was begun by teachers themselves. In 1845, the College of Preceptors was formed; it was at first rather a benefit society; then the necessity arose of testing the qualifications of those who had no university degree. Examinations were opened for men and women alike.

The success of Queen's College led to the establishment in 1849 of Bedford College upon an undenominational basis, following the lines of University College, as opposed to King's. Francis Newman, Dr. Morgan, and Dr.

Carpenter were among its first teachers. Erasmus Darwin, Thomas Farrar, and Hensleigh Wedgwood became trustees; Miss Jane Martineau was secretary.

Then Miss Buss, who had been carrying on a private school determined to develop it on the lines of a public endowed school.

In 1854, the Cheltenham Ladies' College, the first proprietary school for girls, was established on the model of the Cheltenham College. Some good private schools were opened, but it was more than ten years from this time ere any great public movement was made.

The astonishing ignorance disclosed by examinations opened to governesses caused some ladies, under the leadership of Miss Emily Davies, to press upon the Schools' Enquiry Commission to get if possible some insight into girls' schools above the elementary. Miss Davies, Miss Buss, myself, and other ladies gave evidence; the portion belonging to girls' schools was by permission of the commissioners afterward condensed by me into a handy volume and reprinted with an introduction. I quote here a few passages from reports of some of the Assistant Commissioners.

The noxious brood of catechisms [exclaims Mr. Bryce]. These books teach facts, such facts for example as the number of houses burnt in the fire of London. . . . . Such knowledge is fragmentary, known, not scientifically as a subject, but merely as so much information, and hence, like a wall of stones without mortar, it readily falls to pieces.[1]

Mr. Fitch writes:

I have seen girls learning by heart the terminology of the Linnaean system, to whom the very elements of vegetable physiology were unknown. They learn from a catechism the meaning of such words as divisibility, inertia, who know nothing of the physical facts of which these words are the representatives.

We find [writes Mr. Norris], as a rule, a very small amount of professional skill, an inferior set of school books, a vast deal of dry uninteresting rules put into the memory with no explanation worthy of the name, a very false estimate of the relative value of the several kinds of acquirement, a reference to effect rather than to solid worth, a tendency to fill or adorn rather than to strengthen the mind.

Mr. Fitch also dwells on the wasteful expenditure in small schools.

Of nearly 80, whose statistics I obtained, only 5 contained more than 40 scholars, including both boarders and day pupils. Nothing can well be more extravagant than the waste of money, and of educational resources in these small schools. There is little life, no collective instruction, and nothing to call forth the best powers of either teacher or learner, in a school where each class consists of two or three pupils only.

As we talk of pre-Raphaelite painting, we might speak of pre-Victorian education, so great has been the change. There are evils now, but those who have read the *Reports of the Royal Commission* of 40 years ago must acknowledge that the improvement in the education of girls is something to be thankful for. Thackeray's description of the past is scarcely overdrawn. This is the condition of a young lady's existence. She breakfasts at 8; she does *Magnall's Questions* till 10; she practices till one; she walks in the square with bars

[1] *Report of the Schools' Inquiry Commission* (1868).

round her till two; then she practices again; then she sews or reads French or *Hume's History;* then she comes down to play to papa, because he likes music, whilst he is asleep after dinner.

The evidence collected by the commission made a great impression, especially on Mrs. Grey and Miss Shirreff, the daughters of Admiral Shirreff, and under their able leadership, the National Union for Improving the Education of Women was founded. They worked on in faith, and gradually the mountain of prejudice yielded: their high intellectual endowment, their power of expression, their gentleness and strength, above all their lofty and unselfish character lifted the workers into a region too high for the ignorant and worldly to climb or for the arrows of ridicule to touch them. Whilst their work was chiefly to address meetings, Miss Davies set herself chiefly to collect facts. She and the ladies acting with her prevailed on the University of Cambridge to allow girls to take informally the papers set in the "local examinations" for boys. Many evils were predicted, especially the ruin of girls' health. The fight in which our American sisters, under the leadership of Miss Brackett, contended so bravely will not be forgotten. Miss Buss and I led the forces in England. It is now, I believe, universally admitted that the intellectual development has coincided with bodily development, and a higher standard of health.

In 1869 girls were regularly admitted to local examinations and later a higher examination was opened by Cambridge University and Miss Davies established at Hitchin, near Cambridge, a college for women, in which the course of study and examination was made as nearly as possible identical with those of the university.

The London University in 1869 opened a special examination for women; it was almost identical with the matriculation. Very few women came forward. In nine years only 139 passed; more than half of these were pupils of two schools, 44 were from the Cheltenham Ladies' College, 28 were from that founded by Miss Buss; the first to take a certificate in mathematics was from Cheltenham. Professor Smith used to tell how the beadle came to him on seeing this solitary examinee, and in a loud whisper told him that "if anything should occur there was a female attendant in the next room."

In 1870, Josiah Mason by a deed of foundation gave to Birmingham a Science College open to men and women.

> Its object was to create a sounder public opinion with regard to education itself and the national importance of the education of women, and thus to remove the great hindrance to its improvement, the indifference with which it is regarded by the public.

In 1872 Miss Buss, giving up her private property in her school, made it a *public* school by placing it in trust. Meanwhile ladies' associations were formed in various large towns, and a very important movement began. Lecturers chosen by Cambridge were sent to give courses of systematic instruction. This has since developed into the great university extension movement.

Girton had insisted rather on the importance of conforming its course and examinations to those instituted for men. Many women desired university

culture, without being prepared to go thru the regular studies which were familiar to boys, but difficult for those who had taken other lines. To meet their wishes, Merton Hall had been opened in 1871 by a committee of which Professor Sidgwick was the leading spirit, and Miss Clough (sister of the poet), who was full of devotion to the cause, was appointed head. It was removed later to Newnham.

The Girls' Public Day School Company was founded in 1873, and the Froebel Society, the outcome of the efforts of Mrs. Grey and Miss Shirreff.

Meanwhile opportunities for obtaining higher education were extended. A university college was opened at Aberystwith, where education was offered on equal terms to men and women. Subsequently similar colleges were added at Cardiff and Bangor. The small Women's College at Hitchin was removed to Girton, and it has never ceased to grow.

A most important movement had been going on in which again our American sisters took the lead. In 1858 Dr. Elizabeth Blackwell had taken her M. D. in Switzerland. Soon after Miss Garrett began to seek medical education in London. In 1866 she became a qualified practitioner, but the door thru which she had entered was immediately closed, and then began a desperate struggle against women doctors on the part of the less enlightened of the profession. It culminated in 1873 when the women students of medicine were driven from Edinburgh to London. Not until 1882 were English medical degrees opened to women.

In 1866, by the energy of Mrs. Jellicoe, supported as she was by Archbishop Trench and the provost and fellows of Trinity College, Alexandra College, Dublin, was founded. Also existing colleges continued to grow. The Ladies' College at Cheltenham, once a school, had developed into a real college; and in 1872 it was removed from a private house into a beautiful college designed for 250 pupils; it now numbers about 1,000. In 1874 Bedford College moved to York Place and a medical college for women was founded in London.

Miss Buss formed in 1874 an Association of the Head Mistresses of Endowed and Proprietary Schools. There were only eight present at the first meeting. It now numbers a membership of 230.

In 1875 an endowment of £20,000 was assigned to the Camden schools by the Charity Commissioners, and the Clothworkers added £3,000 in 1878. Miss Ewart had already in 1872 given £1,000 to the lower school. In 1879 the handsome buildings of the North London Collegiate School were opened by the Prince of Wales. Mrs. Bryant, D. Sc., London, a woman of quite exceptional talent and distinguished equally in mathematics and mental science, became the able vice-principal.

An important step was taken in 1877 by the establishment of training colleges for teachers in high schools. Miss Newman (sister of Mr. William Newman, the distinguished fellow of Balliol, and recent editor of Aristotle), opened a small house in connection with the Cheltenham Ladies' College. At

her death, money was collected, and the College of St. Hilda's, Cheltenham, now accommodates 50 students.

The following year, 1878, the Maria Gray Training College was established in London, and King's College again took the lead in a movement for the extension of women's education.

The year 1879 was a memorable one in many ways; the London University having given up its cry of *non possumus*, had obtained a supplemental charter, and for the first time admitted women on the same terms as men; but the medical faculty was strong enough to exclude them from medical degrees, and it was not until three years later that this citadel was carried.

While Cambridge was ever offering fresh advantages to women and London was giving degrees, Oxford reluctantly offered its local examinations; and it was not until ten years after the Hitchin College had been opened, ten years after the London University had examined women, that the Ladies' Association was formed, and two colleges were founded—Somerville and Lady Margaret.

In 1880, Owen's College, Manchester (founded in 1852), became the Victoria University, and received power "to bestow degrees on all persons, who shall have pursued a regular course of study in a University College, and shall submit themselves for examination." The Liverpool and Yorkshire College at Leeds now formed part of the Victoria University. The association has however been since dissolved, and all our principal towns are now asking that university colleges should become universities. These all admit women to classes and grant them degrees.

In 1882, the Cambridge tripos examination was opened to women. After a desperate fight at Oxford, the honors examination was also opened, but the degree was still refused.

Meanwhile there had been growing up all over the country large and efficient schools for girls; also the endowments, which had been diverted to boys alone, were now being restored to girls, and a number of old foundations were revived. Five of the most important were the Blue-Coat, the Grey-Coat, Westminster, the Bedford, the Aske and Mary Datchelor Schools.

In 1883 another important movement began. The idea originated with Miss Buss of uniting into one great body teachers whether men or women, forming a body of great weight and importance, and thus the Teachers' Guild was established.

In 1884 Miss Prideaux obtained brilliant honors in the medical examinations of the London University. She died the following year of diphtheria, caught in the discharge of her duties. Her intellectual superiority and the beauty of her character helped to break down the remaining prejudices felt for women doctors; the last vestiges disappeared when the sufferings of the Indian women were brought before the English community by the Marchioness of Dufferin and Ava, and a national association formed to supply female medical aid.

The Jubilee year was signalized by the opening of the magnificent Holloway

College. At Cambridge women won special distinction, Miss Ramsey being Senior Classic, and having the whole class to herself; Miss Harvey occupying a similar position in the mediaeval languages tripos; and in 1890 Miss Philippa Fawcett was placed above the senior wrangler.

At length Oxford opened the Honour Schools in Lit. Humaniores, but refused to permit women to enter for the pass examination. Women gained special distinction this year in the examinations of the London University, one took the gold medal, being the highest in classics at the final M.A. In the B.A. classical honors, Miss Richardson of Cheltenham was bracketed equal second. Dr. Sophia Jex-Blake was appointed extra-mural lecturer on midwifery. This is the first instance of the official recognition of a woman as a lecturer in a public medical school in this country, and it is of particular significance as representing the progress of opinion in Scotland where with much difficulty the lady students, excluded from the university, obtained their education in the Extra-Mural School of Edinburgh. Another step toward breaking down the intellectual barriers which separate men and women, was taken in the summer meeting for Oxford extension students at Oxford in 1888. From all parts came men and women, brothers and sisters, fathers and daughters, heads of schools, teachers and senior pupils, workingmen and people of high position, social and intellectual. The large rooms in the new schools were crowded every morning with eager listeners; afternoon or evening lectures were also given. Meetings were held for the discussion of educational subjects, and a great stimulus given to university extension work. Schemes were discussed for bringing the university into still closer relations with students in large towns, by the forming of reading circles, the granting of certificates, etc. The subsequent meetings have been very numerously attended and the 1889 and 1890 meetings, which have combined a month of quiet study after for a select number, have been much appreciated.

In 1893 I opened St. Hilda's Hall at Oxford, a beautiful house built by Sir Benjamin Brodie, looking down on Christchurch Meadows and Magdalen College. It accommodates 30 students. It has been several times enlarged, and I have now given it to the association of St. Hilda's Incorporated College, and thus connected it with the Cheltenham College of St. Hilda's which takes 58.

Let me try to sum up the chief changes:

There was until forty years ago no college where women could receive anything corresponding to a university education. There are now large and important colleges in London, Cambridge, Oxford, Edinburgh, Dublin, and Glasgow. All the universities existing in Scotland and Wales and all in England except Oxford and Cambridge are open to women, besides many university colleges. Women are admitted to the tripos and honor examinations at Oxford and Cambridge, tho they have no degree: several have been appointed extension lecturers. University local examinations were first opened to girls in 1868, now all the universities admit boys and girls to the local exami-

nations on the same conditions, and the Oxford and Cambridge Schools' Examination Board grant certificates to both. Thus education of the best and highest kind in all departments is now open to girls and women. Women hold leading positions in numerous hospitals for women and children in England, and in India, and no hospital is complete without its highly educated sisters and thoroly well-taught trained nurses. Now that women have shown themselves capable of doing good work they are employed not only by private associations but by the state in the post-office, and women have become clerks on the Labor Commission; they are poor-law and factory inspectors.

All has been done quietly, gradually. The old idea of a "lady" being one who came to be ministered unto is gone—to render service is felt to be the highest privilege. The desire to serve has made women contend for the means of education and training. The passion for service, as Ruskin has taught, stimulates every faculty, glorifies and gives insight into nature, and hallows all art. This, as our great musicians have shown, ennobles the emotional nature, and exalts its expression. But as women have come to feel more and more that culture is a good for the human being, they have longed to lift up those who had not their advantages to a higher level; the many unmarried women have become working bees in the social hive. Everywhere ladies have been found ready to leave a home of comfort and even of luxury to become national school-mistresses, to minister to the poor in hospitals and workhouses, in asylums for the insane, and in the homes of the sick poor. They are working in prisons and penitentiaries; they have been elected guardians of the poor, and county councilors; in the Salvation Army as in the Society of Friends they hold equal rank with men. Large organizations have been formed and managed by women, notably the Girls' Friendly Society, the Metropolitan Association for Befriending Young Servant Girls, the Christian Young Women's Association, the Young Women's Help Society, the Girls' Club Union, and the College for Working Women. The Oxford and Cambridge colleges and Cheltenham Ladies' College have established settlements of their own in the poor part of London. Many outcasts too have been gathered in by the Church Penitentiary and similar societies, and women have been leaders in the great crusade against the most terrible evils which afflict humanity. Women entirely manage the Zenana, and take active part in foreign and home missions as accredited agents of the great societies. They have become lecturers and writers on social topics, forming societies for emigration, for sanitary science, and giving lectures on temperance, dress, cooking, home arts and industries, plain and art needlework, slojd, etc. Some take up lecturing as a profession, and are employed by the Palestine and Egyptian Exploration Societies. Others have taken up physical culture, regarding it as a matter of national importance. The old prejudice that for a woman to earn money was to lose caste is a thing of the past: those who are admitted to the highest circles of society have accepted headships of women's colleges: head-mistresses rank with head-masters. Lady physicians and other professional women

now take the place to which they are entitled, women medical officers have even been appointed to government service, and it is not thought unwomanly to lecture and address large audiences. Women are carrying on business as printers, lithographers, law-copyists, photographers, architects, etc.; they are found in insurance and other large offices, to say nothing of the ever womanly callings in the management of the home.

It is a cheering sight when the National Union of Women Workers holds its annual congress. Here assemble most of those engaged in some important philanthropic work—able to write and speak clearly, to organize and direct; and the last development of a world-wide intellectual organization for women —by means of the Lyceum Club—has brought together a large number of the leading writers and workers of Europe.

It is true that still women pass the same examinations with men at the old universities, but are denied the title which has been won; but these anomalies must surely vanish before long, and may we not hope that some day the iron age will end, that some crying wrongs will be redressed and our hearts cease to bleed for those who are now trampled in the dust and who exact a terrible revenge? It seems as if again a voice had gone forth as to the daughter of Jairus to the women of England—"I say unto thee, arise."

It is true that they have been deprived of the seat to which they were entitled as members of school boards and not allowed to be elected to county councils; it is true that they pay rates and taxes but have no voice in an expenditure; but when we consider what has been done during the last fifty years, we thank God and take courage. Especially do we feel strengthened as we see the good work being done in all countries by our American sisters. They were the pioneers in the most beneficent reform, the opening of medical education to women, in missionary work, and in many of the reformatory experiments of our time. But I must not encroach on the space in which the great achievements in behalf of education for girls will be recorded.

THE SECONDARY EDUCATION OF GIRLS IN FRANCE

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The secondary education of girls is entirely the work of the Third Republic. "It alone of all our institutions of public instruction owes its initiative to Parliament" as Mr. Gabriel Compayré,[1] one of our most eminent university men, remarks.

The education of women under the old régime was confined to the monasteries. As Mr. Gabriel Compayré says:[2] "Women were trained up only for heaven or for the religious life; spiritual exercises formed the sole occupation of the pupils, and study was hardly thought of." This was the position

[1] *Réperloire du droit administratif*, T. XIX, part 4, "Enseignement secondaire des jeunes filles," p. 180, col. 2, by Mr. Gabriel Compayré, Inspector-General of Public Instruction, formerly Deputy, formerly Provost of the Academy of Lyons.

[2] *Histoire de la pédagogie*, p. 177.

of affairs in the middle of the seventeenth century. Even at Port Royal the Jacqueline Pascal scheme of education was limited to instruction in catechism, reading, and writing, and there was an hour's arithmetic on holidays. M^lle^ de Scudéry in 1750 writes: "I am astonished to see so many women of quality with an ignorance so gross that they dishonor one's sex." "Nothing is more neglected," said Fénelon in 1687, "than the education of girls." This was at the time of the foundation of St. Cyr. There Madame de Maintenon tried to train up young girls for the convent. In reality from the outset, when "Esther" and "Athalie" were performed, the syllabus was limited to reading (which never included the profane authors), writing, and music, with a little orthography and some very summary notions of the history of France, "comprising the knowledge of the national princes and a sufficient cognisance of them to prevent the confusion of our kings and their courts with the princes of other nations . . . . but all this without rule or method." This syllabus concerned the young girls of noble families alone. "For the girls of the middle classes all this is useless," said M^me^ de Maintenon. "It is sufficient to teach them to recite the catechism and to read and write." As for the education of girls of the lower class it was not even thought of. When in 1697 M^me^ de Maintenon turned St. Cyr into a monastery, even the girls belonging to the nobility were taught only reading, writing, and arithmetic.

The education at girls' convents in the eighteenth century was the same. The assemblies of the Revolution took an interest in the education of women, but they opened to them only the primary schools. Talleyrand, the reporter of the *Assemblée Constituante*, opened the public schools for boys to girls under the age of 8 years. The reporter of the *Assemblée Legislative*, Condorcet, arranged that, when there was only one primary school in a locality, the boys and girls should be educated together under the same instructor and given the same instruction. The reporter of the Convention, Lakanal, put boys and girls on a level as regards primary teaching. However, for the girls he substituted visits to manufactories for military drill, and needlework for apprenticeship to a trade. Daunou, who succeeded Lakanal, passed girls over in silence. Fourcroy spoke of them only to say that his scheme (May, 1802) did not concern them. And this observation applies also both to the First Empire and to the Restoration.

Under the monarchy of July, Guizot's scheme (1833) of primary instruction contained a section on the instruction of girls. The minister, at the request of his friends, left this part of the scheme in abeyance.

Under the Republic, in 1848, Monsieur Hippolyte Carnot, in his scheme of primary education, revived the question of the education of girls. The reporter of the scheme, Mr. Barthélemy Saint Hilaire, asked that every township with more than 800 inhabitants should be compelled to have a girls' school, and that in other towns the girls should be received into the boy's schools. This scheme was not debated. It was replaced by the scheme which became law in 1850, the *loi Falloux*. Every town containing more

than 800 inhabitants was compelled to have a primary school for girls, but on the condition that it defrayed the expenses out of its "own resources." The effect was to leave the primary education of girls to the initiative of individuals and particularly of religious associations.

Victor Duruy, under the Second Empire, remedied this state of things in the law of 1867, by calling upon the department and the state to contribute to the expense of the foundation and upkeep of primary schools for girls. Every town with more than 500 inhabitants was again compelled to maintain a public school for girls. But in this law as far as girls were concerned it was only a question of primary elementary teaching, that is to say of instruction given up to the age of 12 years. This was what Jules Simon stated on the platform of the *corps legislatif* in 1867, when he said: "Girls, even in the most advanced boarding-schools, receive a futile education, wholly lacking in accomplishments." And the bishop of Orleans, Mr. Dupanloup, confirmed this opinion several months after when he wrote: "The instruction of girls is scanty, trivial, and superficial, even when it is not factitious."[1]

It was under these circumstances that, in 1867, the minister of public instruction, Victor Duruy, asked the provosts to invite the municipalities to open to girls courses of lectures in literature, modern languages, science, and drawing. These courses were to extend over a period of six months, and the staffs of the boys' schools were to be called in to undertake them. Some municipalities endeavored to carry out the desire of the ministry. In Paris at the Sorbonne an association was actually formed, which included 116 girls in 1868–69, and 162 in 1869–70. All or almost all the courses disappeared with Mr. Duruy.

Manifestly, they were not destined to live. They had no organization, no management, no staff, no buildings. Each town had opened courses of lectures as it wished. In one place they were elementary in preparation for the brevet simple. In another place they were intended for those preparing for a commercial or professional career. In some places they were of the nature of lectures tentatively established for the daughters of university men. There were towns which had two or three courses on literature, history, and science; or on science; or on modern languages; or again on history, geography, and literature. The law was not posted up in the town. Further, these courses lasted for a few weeks only. Hygiene, domestic economy, and pedagogy were everywhere passed over in silence. These courses had no common program. There was absolutely no connection between them. They were open by chance, if the municipalities were willing; there were no professors with degrees, no directresses, no listeners, far less pupils. These courses, in reality, were more in the nature of a diversion or *passe-temps* than of actual instruction. No conditions of age or ability were required of the girls. The professors did not know them. There were no exercises and no questions. It was even the same at the Sorbonne, where it was the excep-

[1] "Femmes savantes et femmes studieuses" *Le correspondant* 1867, Vol. LXX p. 765.

tion for any notes taken by the pupils to be corrected by the mistresses. Finally there was no place for these lectures to be held in, and the Hôtel de Ville offered the hospitality of one of its rooms.

To sum up, there only existed for girls the public schools, which offered primary elementary teaching; private schools which added to this instruction some accomplishments; and the convent.

Such was the sad position of women with regard to education. The task presented itself of making the general culture, which secondary education offers, accessible to them. It was only justice to assure this right to woman, as long as she existed with her personality and her responsibilities. It was a social obligation of the first magnitude to undertake the education, moral and civic, of the wife and mother of tomorrow, "so that all the children of the same family, who are often alienated by different influences, might be brought up in accordance with the same principles and endowed with the same spirit."[1]

All of these reasons made it imperative to establish secondary education for girls, suitable to their vocations and future careers. This was the work of the law of December 21, 1880.[2] The law was vigorously attacked by the partisans of religious teaching; they fought it with the greater energy because, until that time, the clergy had had, as it were, the monopoly of the education of women. We have seen that this education had been reduced to primary education, and that it was a question of establishing secondary education for girls and leaving it to the initiative and sole charge of the state. The supporters of the convents disputed the right of the state to teach. They maintained that to establish schools for the secondary education of girls in the name of the state, would be an infringement of liberty. They knew, however, that it had not even been suggested that this education should be obligatory, and that the father of a family would be free to send his daughters to a convent as before, or to have recourse to state establishments. They went farther; they pretended that not only was liberty menaced, but, what is still more serious, that liberty of conscience, that most precious of all liberties, was violated, notwithstanding that in the law scrupulous care had been taken to respect it. However, to violate freedom of conscience means, for some persons, not to make Catholic religious teaching in the classes obligatory for those pupils who are not Catholics.

The proposals of the bill submitted for deliberation to the Chamber of Deputies concluded with the establishment by the state, with the co-operation of the departments and towns, of secondary education for girls analogous to that which is given in the boys' high schools.[3] The bill proposed that the

[1] *Report of the Minister of Public Instruction*, M. Armand Fallières, to the President of the Republic, 1889. T. I, p. xi.

[2] Proposed by Camille Sée, Chamber of Deputies, 1878; reporter to the Chamber of Deputies, Camille Seé; reporter to the Senate, Mr. Broca, afterward Henri Martin.

[3] It is the high school, indeed, that the law means. In fact it created also municipal colleges. It even favored the opening of courses of lectures by the municipalities, in the belief, which is far from being justified, that they would be a help in the application of the law.

establishments should be at one and the same time day schools and boarding-schools. For the establishment of secondary education for girls without boarding-houses in connection with the schools would have been utterly useless. It is due to the residential system that in the case of the secondary education of boys, the ecclesiastical establishments have overthrown the private establishments conducted by laymen, and at the same time have held in check public establishments.

Resident schools are necessary in France. If the opening of establishments for girls had been limited to simple day schools, families in the country and those in towns not possessed of a high school would have been deprived of the proposed education. Indeed, it is not the custom in France to send young girls away from home and to intrust them to families living in towns where there is a school. It is as rare to meet parents willing to trust their daughters to strange families, as to meet families prepared to accept the responsibility. Without boarding-houses in connection with the schools the benefits of the high school would have been reaped only by girls in towns where they had been opened. Even in towns it would not have satisfied parents who are obliged, on account of their occupations, family ties, or social duties, to have recourse to boarding-schools. It may be added that it is of equal, if not of greater importance, to give, in addition to instruction, the education which residence alone can assure. Boarding-schools are necessary so that the horizon of the young girl may not be limited to her family. She ought to see something of the society in the midst of which she is going to pass her life. It is a good thing for her, before she leaves her parents to share the life of her husband, to serve the apprenticeship in life, in however slight a degree, and to this end she should share for some time in the common life of a high school. The residential system suits the French character. The law then would have failed in its task, if it had not taken cognizance of this. Its clear duty was to establish high schools provided with boarding-houses, where the régime of the convent would be avoided and the organization would be on the model of family life.

The state could have made model establishments. The high school might have been built in the middle of a large park, and around it might have been grouped small boarding-houses placed each one under the superintendence of an experienced lady, who would have taken the place of the absent mother and would bave been specially intrusted with the education of the girls. It would have been her duty to prepare them for their future rôle as wife, mistress of the house, and instructress of children. In these boarding-houses also girls would have been able to converse with foreign mistresses, and in a short time would have accustomed themselves without difficulty to speak fluently in three or four languages. These boarding-houses would have been, as it were, a continuation of the home life. They would have had all the advantages without any of the inconveniences of the boys' boarding-houses.

This is the sort of resident school which should have been established and organized under the control of the state. This was the system to which the commission of the Chamber of Deputies gave its support, but on the instance of the minister of public instruction they abandoned it, in full sitting, in favor of the establishment of non-resident schools, to which boarding-houses might be attached on the request of the municipalities. In vain the reporter took up in his own name as an amendment and defended with tenacity the first wording of the commission, which made resident schools obligatory. He was defeated: the amendment was thrown out by 453 to 12 votes.

The opponents of the law considered it lost. They did not attempt to conceal their joy. One of their most important organs speaking next day of the voting, said: "It (the Chamber of Deputies) has retained the system of boarding-houses under certain special conditions which make the law illusory."

To his praise be it said that Jules Ferry, the minister, brought the question up again before the Senate, and spoke most eloquently of the necessity of the boarding-house system. But the resolution of the Chamber, of which the object was to throw the moral and financial responsibility of the boarding-houses on the municipalities instead of on the state, was emphasized to a still greater extent in the Senate. When it was a question of putting the law into practice, it was recognized that to apply it strictly, as it stood, would be to restrict the benefits conferred by it to a few privileged towns which were in possession of a high school. It was decided then to support the boarding-house system, which system alone made it possible for the whole of France to benefit by the law.

The director of secondary education to the ministry of public instruction, Charles Lévort, with his never-failing shrewdness, recognized that there was "an irresistible trend of opinion" in favor of the boarding-house system, and he exerted all his efforts to get it established. To this end he trod the farthest limits of legality. He even contributed to bring about the decision that the state should contribute half the sum required for the establishment of secondary schools for girls, without distinguishing between the day schools and boarding-schools.

More and more was it recognized in practice that the key to the success of the law was the boarding-house system. And this is an opinion which, as the law was carried into force, made itself felt in both chambers.

It is, indeed, as Gabriel Compayré[1] notices, the opinion that since 1880 we have found expressed in many reports on the budget of the minister of public instruction, and notably in that of Antonin Dubost, now president of the Senate, who in 1884 said: "The boarding-house system is a practical necessity which it is not possible to overlook without depriving an important part of the population of the advantages of secondary education, and thus establishing a deplorable inequality in the education of women." Thus the opinion of those who supported the establishment of resident schools

[1] *Repertoire du droit administratif*, Vol. XIX, Part 4, p. 182.

step by step, and who, at the Chamber of Deputies, recorded only 12 votes, was entirely justified. Edgar Lévort, provost of the Caen academy, mentions this in his *History of the Third Republic*. He says:[1] "We must recognize, now that we have learnt it by experience, that the 12 were right against the 453."

The thought which has dominated the legislature in drawing up the scheme for teaching has been above all the scrupulous assurance of respect for liberty of conscience. Teaching establishments, under the direction of the state and addressing themselves to all families alike, ought to safeguard all opinions, all beliefs. It would not have been possible, as Condorcet says, to infringe the liberty of conscience by attaching weight to particular dogmas.[2] Moral teaching, that is to say, the teaching of that lasting morality which is common to all beliefs and to all good people, can alone form part of a code of instruction given to all in common. Religious teaching cannot form part of an instruction common to all, seeing that it must be the choice of each individual conscience, and therefore no authority has the right to prefer one religion to another.[3] It was then the bounden duty of the legislature to draw a clear line of demarkation between the moral law, which is common to all, and the religious law, which belongs exclusively to the individual conscience, and consequently to reserve the teaching of morality for the state and religious instruction for the ministers of the different denominations. This is a principle which the law with regard to the secondary education of girls has scrupulously respected. Moral teaching is given in common in the classes to all the girls. Religious instruction, in conformity with the wishes of the parents, is given outside the classes by the ministers of the different denominations.

After moral teaching the following subjects figure: French language; reading aloud, and at least one modern language; literature, ancient and modern; geography and cosmography; French history and a slight sketch of general history; arithmetic, the elements of geometry and chemistry, physics, and natural history; hygiene; domestic economy; needlework; elementary law; drawing; music; gymnastics.

Further, the teaching of pedagogy may be organized. The teaching thus established was intended by the law to correspond in scope and duration to that given in the boys' high school. In the secondary education of boys and girls there should be equality, but, as Ernest Lejouvé remarked, "Equality in difference." The teaching ought to be "feminine," i. e., appropriate to the career and vocation of women. For example, girls should not be taught history like the cadets at the Military School of St. Cyr, or science and mathematics, like the pupils at the Polytechnic School. At the same time, to secure the proper teaching, great caution is necessary and a steady insistence on the parts of the syllabus which are particularly interesting to women.

[1] Vol. III, p. 113.

[2] Condorcet, *Report to Assemblée des statuts.*

[3] Condorcet, Vol. VII, p. 104.

Finally, and above all, an important place had to be given to hygiene as well as to domestic economy, theoretical and practical, which are as it were leading examples of the kind of teaching required. They are, above all, the sciences which give the scope for the preparation of girls for their future careers as wives and mothers, and which help them in a worthy manner to occupy their place at the domestic hearth and vigilantly to watch over the well-being of their families and homes. Those who have been charged with the practical working of the law have not entirely conformed to its tenets, when it was a question of regulating the extent and duration of studies. They did not sufficiently regulate the preparatory classes. They reduced the duration of real secondary teaching to five years, when six or seven years should have been devoted to it. They set aside completely the enactments of the law when, in revising the syllabi in 1797, they limited the time devoted to hygiene and domestic economy in a way which showed that they were bent on its suppression.

We have had to limit ourselves in this short account to the main outlines of the law. We have passed over the details of the measures taken by the minister of public instruction to assure its being carried out. Thus we have passed over all that concerns scholarship, for secondary education is not gratuitous like primary education. The number of scholarships is fixed in the agreement between the minister of public instruction, the department, and the township where the school is established. At the same time we have omitted university abatements or exemptions, which benefit the children of professors at secondary schools for boys and girls as well as those of the functionaries of primary education. We have at the same time passed over everything concerning the conditions of establishment, of upkeep, and of the financial régime of the schools. We have also taken no account of all the regulations relating to the duration, division, distribution of teaching, etc., and also those relating to entrance examinations, examinations during the course, leaving diplomas, etc. Readers who wish information on these points will find it in the official article published by Gabriel Compayré.[1] We refer them also to this article for all that concerns the staff (conditions of nomination, privileges, salaries, pensions). Finally, we will speak of the training-college for secondary teachers at Sèvres, established to form this staff.

The result of the law with regard to the secondary education of girls and of the preparatory work to which it has given rise, is that each establishment is placed under the authority of a directress, and that the teaching is given by lady professors furnished with recognized diplomas. This class of teachers did not exist. It had to be created, instructed, and trained for teaching.

This was the work of the law of July 28, 1881, which, like the law of December 21, 1880, on the secondary education of girls, was proposed and

[1] *Repertoire du droit administratif*, Vol. XIX, "Public Instruction," part iv, "Secondary Teaching for Girls."

carried through by Parliament.[1] A boarding-school, according to the wording of the law, is a school to which girls obtain entrance by competition and are supported free. All that concerns the syllabi, the duration of the course of study, the staff, the conditions of admission, and the leaving examinations, was referred back by the law to a regulation debated in the *conseil supérieur* of public instruction. The school is composed of two sections, viz., arts and science. The length of the course of study is three years. At the end of the second year the girls compete for the certificate of ability to teach in secondary schools for girls (*certificat d'aptitude à l'enseignement secondaire des jeunes filles*). The examination for this certificate comprises arts and science, including written tests, followed by oral tests, if the candidate has passed the written examination.[2] At the end of the third year, which only girls who have obtained the above-mentioned certificate can enter upon, is the competition for a higher certificate of ability to teach in secondary schools for girls (*agrégation de l'enseignement secondaire des jeunes filles*). The examination for this certificate includes arts, subdivided into two sections, literature and history, and science, subdivided into mathematics and physical and natural science.[3] The schemes of study and the syllabi are arranged by the professors of the school. These professors have the title of *chargés des conférences*. They are borrowed from the faculties and the boys' high schools in Paris, and are paid *au cachet* 70 francs a lesson. There are some lady professors with degrees, for elocution, drawing, English, German, and dressmaking. There are besides four assistant mistresses, two for arts, two for science, as well as two for supervision work.

Among other conditions with regard to the reception of girls at the school, it is necessary for them to be not less than 18 and not more than 24 years of age.[4] All expenses, except for dress, are borne by the state. But the young girl must undertake to teach for ten years in the public schools. If the engagement is not kept, she is obliged to refund £40 for each year passed in the school.

Such is, in brief, the reform by which France has profited for more than a quarter of a century, and which will not, we trust, be without its influence on her destiny.

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[1] Proposed in the Chamber of Deputies by Camille Sée; reporter to the Chamber of Deputies, Camille Sée; reporter to the Senate, Mr. Ferrouillat.

[2] For all these regulations see the article of Gabriel Compayré.

[3] See Gabriel Compayré, *Repertoire. loc. cit.*

[4] *Ibid.*

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THE MODERN SYSTEM OF HIGHER EDUCATION FOR WOMEN IN PRUSSIA[1]

FRIEDRICH PAULSEN, STEGLITZ (BERLIN)

1. It seems now as if higher education for women is at last on the point of emerging from the period of fluctuating discussion and groping experiment, and that it is about to find itself settled on lasting and enduring foundations. Far-reaching plans on the part of the minister of public instruction, which were furthered by a conference called for the purpose, have led to the adoption of a scheme of a joint organization which, it is hoped, may at no distant day find its development in a well-considered curriculum and in other well-ordered arrangements.

The determination that was apparent, thruout all the deliberations over the proposed law, as submitted, was, to provide for two independent and complete systems of higher education for girls, each of which had to work out its own minor details, as based on the accepted plan. First, a school was planned whose ten-year course was designed to end concurrently with about the sixteenth year of the pupil's age, and which undertakes to give a general preparation for the duties of life and for the activities of woman's existence, and which, on the whole, embraces the course followed in the so-called *Realschulen* for boys. The second is a school offering a preparatory course for the scientific studies of the high school, corresponding to the course in the higher grade of our *Gymnasien*. For the first, the name *Lyzeum* and for the second, *Oberlyzeum*, has been proposed.

The ruling idea in the elaboration of the plans and the curriculum for both schools will be to lead the scholars to earnest mental endeavor and to an independence of thought and act which in its turn will result in the molding of character by bringing the will and the mental faculties under full control.

Hitherto, girls' schools, more particularly private schools, have been conspicuously weak in one direction—i. e., in laying too much stress on incidental, showy accomplishments, and too little on serious work. Literature and languages, and, in particular, conversation and aesthetics, were emphasized as the chief ornament of the "higher education;" while, in the acquisition of the really important branches, i. e., ciphering, mathematics, natural science, geography, history, there was too often much left to be wished for. In this direction the school had accommodated itself to the opinions of society. The

[1] Translated at the University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Ill.

social idea of "culture," of "higher education," particularly as regards women, admits of but one point of view, i. e., that "culture" consists, above all, in the ability and the readiness to carry on conversation and to express an opinion, even in foreign languages. That the acceptance of such an ideal produced such resultant fruits is not surprising; the "finished" daughter, the natural product of the "finishing-school for girls," was a being who was partly ridiculous, partly to be pitied, with a nature that neither took itself seriously nor was taken seriously by anyone else; and who, when life finally presented itself as a serious affair, was dazed and lost in the face of her responsibilities: she had thought to be able to settle everything with "conversation" and chatter. On the other hand, those girls who had attended the public schools were far better off. They had been seriously instructed in serious subjects with the boys, often in close association with them; they had learned arithmetic and had read the Bible; it had never been suggested to them, either at home or in school, that the ability to "engage in conversation" was such an especially important affair. And so, from the outset they bore themselves toward life as toward a serious thing; they regarded the home as a scene of work and of duty, not as a doll's house for the exhibition of affectation and for indulgence in gluttony. True, the "cultivated" family did not, in every case, measure up—or down—to this standard; but it can no more be denied that the model woman of "good" society thoroly approved of this standard, than it can that the higher "finishing-schools" had grown to be altogether too complacent toward the dictates of this class. It will be admitted that society molds the school—not the school, society.

In the meantime views have changed to some extent, as have the circumstances themselves. However perplexing, unusual, fantastic, and even impossible, the "woman's movement" may have appeared to many, it is, on the whole, actuated by a consistent purpose: the determination to achieve a definite object in life, and, above all, to elevate the "polished" woman above the insignificance of society's pursuits of the doll's-house variety, and to lead her to substitute for the latter a serious purpose and an honorable occupation. A new ideal for the education of women is in process of development—an ideal which contemplates more earnest, perhaps even more austere aims, than the old order of things: the production of an independent, industrious woman, able to stand alone and to demand her rights; in other words, a more *virile* woman. In the one case the result is that the woman of the working and middle classes is becoming, in an ever-increasing measure, a factor of importance as a self-supporting worker in the trades and professions. This transformation has become both possible and desirable thru the development of modern methods of household management which have made it easy to break away from the old preconceived notion that woman must confine her activities to domestic affairs: the demands of business are ever more and more circumscribing the claims of mere household management. In the other case, it is apparent that, among those of the educated

classes, the failure to marry is becoming more frequent; the absence of skill in household management and the increase of social demands and activities even among the *bourgeois* classes, combine to render a man more and more cautious in taking upon himself the burden of a family. For this very reason, the girls in this class of society are finding themselves in increasing numbers forced to seek an independent means of livelihood; their dependence on a support from their family constantly becomes more and more an uncertainty, and the necessity more and more pressing of establishing for themselves a position in business life, if they would avoid the alternative of becoming a mere dependent.

2. *The Lyzeum.*—This great change in attitude and outlook must, generally speaking, stamp itself on the new higher schools for girls. And this will be the case, not only in the *Oberlyzeum*, where the preparation for really scientific studies to which matriculation is a condition precedent will naturally entail serious and constant application and study, but in the *Lyzeum* likewise. The hitherto vapid and light-minded "finishing-school" will give place to one with more earnest aims. The prospect of a possible future activity in mercantile business, in manufactures, in traffic, will make itself felt as a stimulus. Commercial arithmetic and mathematics which, until recently, many girls' schools seemed to consider as superfluous for women—possibly, also, as being beyond the capacity of the feminine intellect (tho with what slight justification!)—will now be seriously taken up; the natural sciences will follow, and will coincidently attract an eager following; the teaching of languages will then be taken up with more thoroness and persistency. And so, in every direction, the girls' curriculum will be established on a plane more nearly approaching the more difficult courses that obtain in the boys' schools—to the advantage of the individual and of the movement itself. It is as true in the case of the woman as it is in that of the man that

> Wer mit dem Leben spielt,
> Kommt nie zurecht;
> Wer sich nicht selbst befiehlt,
> Bleibt immer Knecht.[1]

In the original plan to place the *Lyzeum* on a parity with the six-graded *Realschule*, and which served as a basis for all the discussions of the Conference which followed, it was pointedly insisted that "the *Lyzeum* shall offer a course which shall be, at the very least, the equivalent of that followed in the six grades of the boys' schools." "Equivalent," it may be explained, means "uniform with;" and thus the special branches of instruction as well as the

[1] The translator of this paper has thought it to be in better taste to let the above stanza, as quoted by Mr. Paulsen, remain in its original German in the text, and to offer the following translation, for what it is worth, by means of a footnote:

> Who sports with life as something light
> Will ne'er achieve the goal;
> Who is not master of himself
> Must fill a menial rôle.

details of their delivery, will bring the curriculum provided for the girls closer and closer to that followed in the case of the boys.

Clearly, however, it must not be supposed that all the scholars from the new *Lyzeum* enter a business avocation, as in the case of the graduates of the *Realschule*, even tho they do not take the full course at the *Oberrealschule*. The rôle of wife and mother will ever, as heretofore, remain as the primary vocation of woman. The *Lyzeum* would be false to its mission if the results of the education it offers tended to unfit a girl for this rôle, or even to divert her from its contemplation. The general proposition is laid down, however, that a thoro school course is of great advantage even to that end. For not only will the habit of close and minute attention to duty, which is inculcated by such a course, prove to be of value in the performance of every act of service; but the actual knowledge and well-balanced control of the mental faculties which result therefrom will find ample opportunity for their use and application, both in the management of a household and in the rearing of children. This will be apparent, for example, in the fact that such a mother will be better qualified to give stimulating and helpful guidance to her sons on up thru their school course—a situation that will serve materially to broaden the scope of her relation toward them. And finally, it may be said, the measure of respect accorded to the woman corresponds invariably to the measure of her force of mind and her ability.

Ten years have been contemplated as the proper term to cover the curriculum of the *Lyzeum*—or seven years, if the three-year elementary curriculum is left out of consideration—while the order of instruction from the year 1894 establishes a nine-year curriculum as the norm, corresponding to the nine-year course at the *Realschule*. The ten years of school life are meeting with universal approval. The term corresponds to what used to be considered the rule in the displaced "higher schools for girls." To leave school at 15 years of age is too early, and places the child in an anomalous position. With the increased maturity apparent at 16 years of age comes greater adaptability to the exigencies of a home—either one's own or that of others; and, likewise, greater strength and decision of character can be brought to bear on taking up the ensuing preparatory course for a life-calling.

And for the curriculum itself the additional year is also a distinct gain. It can be arranged somewhat more easily; the hours of study are not necessarily so crowded; as it is, the contemplated course demands from twenty-four to twenty-six hours a week, independently of athletics, singing, and manual training. That the course for boys in the *Realschule* covers but six years is no argument against it; for, as a rule, as regards mental effort, the constitution of woman is endowed with a somewhat slighter power of resistance, as compared with that of man, and should be spared some of the strain during the critical years of early life. And it has been urged with some show of reason that the six-graded *Realschule* subjects the pupil to a good deal of mental forcing. In particular, it is scarcely possible to reach

the prescribed proficiency in the two foreign languages in six years; and the result is that, in practice, the course is often extended to cover seven years and even longer, and results in denying the contemplated advance in grade—to the great distress of scholar, parents, and teacher. In any case, the average age at which the *Realschule* is left behind is considerably beyond 15 years. From every point of view, therefore, it was considered wiser to make the path of learning, which, for boys, is already somewhat too steep, somewhat less so for girls.

In any event, there is no fear that complaint will ever be made that the several stages embrace too few subjects of instruction. It is more likely that here and there it will be charged that not enough time is given for thoro practice in the details of a subject. Thus, I am not thoroly convinced whether it will be possible to adhere to the three hours a week allotted in the plan to accounts and mathematics. If absolute correctness in results is to be attained, it will be admitted that constant and many-sided practice is of the first importance. If the necessary time for this cannot be found in the schedule as arranged, it must be taken from the time allotted to housework. And if this suggestion is worth considering, we are confronted with the fact that most girls, when they leave school, have "gone thru" most branches of arithmetic, but are well grounded in none. So, too, the provision of two hours for instruction in natural sciences is in scarcely the needed proportion, the more so from the fact that, in these subjects, everything must of necessity be done in the regular school hours themselves. And a thoro grounding in natural sciences is, for girls, of an importance that cannot be overestimated. It is of equal importance, alike in the departments of housekeeping and child-rearing, and in the ordinary business avocations. Indeed, we might say that it forms the indispensable foundation for all the courses which are imperative later on in a training-school. I am persuaded that in this direction an increase in the contemplated hours of study (fifteen) will be conceded as necessary. Possibly instruction in German, to which thirty-four week-hours (almost five in each week thruout the course) have been allotted, may be made to yield some of the time. More hours are perhaps accorded to literature than is altogether to be commended. Tho this study may possibly lead to a broader outlook, it may easily be made to produce a certain mental nausea. Thus it should be easy at first to deduct a few hours from this branch in favor of domestic subjects. Most of the pupils come from a circle in life in which some reading is done, anyway.

Possibly we shall even come to the point of seriously questioning whether a knowledge of two foreign languages forms an indispensable element in the training of German boys and girls. The western nations simplify the question for themselves, or for their youths: they make two modern languages optional. They have the advantage of an older and more independent culture. In Germany the feeling that rooted itself in the national mind at the time of the greatest degradation of our national life, still exists, that to

attain culture, or even to the true dignity of manhood, the acquisition of foreign languages was indispensable. He who knew no language but German was classed as one of the vulgar rabble, with whom it was in no sense profitable to converse. It may be that some day the German people will grow brave enough to regard foreign languages more in the light of an accessory, rather than as the actual substitute, of culture. If, as is the proper way of viewing the matter, foreign languages come to be valued merely as a means to an end, rather than as a criterion and token of culture, we shall, I fancy, be ready to declare that, as a rule, a young girl has, provisionally, acquired enough in acquiring one foreign language, both in respect to linguistic and grammatical knowledge, as well as every practical need. If, later, the necessity of learning another arises—well, the possibility of learning it does not cease when school is left behind. And for all the purposes of the school itself, a tolerable proficiency in the use of *one* foreign language would prove in the end of far greater value than the doubtful advantage of having "taken" two. There can be no doubt that, some day, the death-knell will sound for the compulsory learning of two foreign languages, in favor of the more thoro acquisition of the really material subjects in the curriculum. There is weary sighing now to be heard in all the higher schools, without exception, under the present heavy burden of the requirements in languages.

3. *The Oberlyzeum.*—The proposed regulations for the *Lyzeum* encountered at no time any basic criticism or opposition in the Conference. The debate was limited almost exclusively to a discussion of the grammar-school curriculum for girls. So much stress was laid, by the advocates of higher study for women, on the question as to the relation of the curriculum of the *Oberlyzeum* to the preceding curriculum of the *Lyzeum*, that it seemed to be the main question at issue. It is noteworthy that no one seemed for a moment to draw in question the necessity of according to women the right to pursue the studies conducted in the colleges, and to accord them untrammeled access to the preparatory courses of the *Gymnasien;* so thoroly has the "woman's movement" triumphed in these days over the old-time prejudices and obsessions. The only question that was raised was: How shall we arrange the curriculum of the *Gymnasium* for girls, and, in particular, how are the stages leading to the higher schools for girls to be worked out?

The discussion proceeded on the assumption that the *Oberlyzeum* was to be established as an educational institution entirely independent and complete in itself. Of course, it takes for granted that a suitable preliminary education has been obtained; but its course is not confined to being a direct continuation of that of the *Lyzeum.* Just as the latter has an independent standing and position of its own, so has the *Oberlyzeum.* It can maintain relations with a *Lyzeum*, and can, nevertheless, exist as a thoroly independently organized institution—very much as is the case with the "college" in England and America. And on this basis the internal government of the institution has been established: there is no hard-and-fast, unchangeable

curriculum which is forced on all alike; but a variety of courses with optional subjects in each. The course customarily followed resembles that of the *Oberrealschulen*, with sciences and modern languages as the principal subjects. A second course closely follows that given in the classical *Gymnasium*, with the dead languages as the prominent feature. And, finally, there is the course occupying a position midway of the two others, patterned largely after the plan of the *Realgymnasium*, with Latin, but not Greek. As a rule the ultimate object is matriculation preparatory to entering college; yet even so, the training obtainable in the *Oberlyzeum* is of distinct value. This is apparent, also, in the permission which it is contemplated extending to girls to attend lectures, in cases where they are following a limited number of distinctly optional subjects. The normal length of this course will be four years.

At this point arose the opposition, whose principal mouthpiece was Miss Helene Lange. This opposition was based on the following contentions: that in the usual course of events preparation for the *Oberlyzeum* naturally succeeds the *Lyzeum* itself, that is, in a ten-year course. Add to this the four years of the *Oberlyzeum* course itself, and you have an aggregate of fourteen years' preparation for college: two years longer than the corresponding course for boys. Thus girl students would reach the university at twenty years of age instead of at eighteen, as in the case of the young men, and they are therefore proportionately delayed in their preparation for embarking on their life-work. This results in a heavy burden being imposed on the individuals and on their families, since, as a rule, the women pursuing higher studies are not to be found among the well-to-do classes. And this imposition is the more unfair since it will be conceded that it is only girls earnest and gifted above the average who devote themselves to scientific studies. For this reason, it was declared, the demand that girls be enabled to reach the university thru a twelve-year course is reasonable. And it was urged that to this end the *Lyzeum* curriculum should be bifurcated, so to speak, after the pupil is twelve years old; that the course of the general higher girls' school should branch off at this point with Latin, which thus would lead to the final examination in six years.

In spite of the most brilliant and importunate advocacy, the demand failed of approval; a large majority of the members of the Conference held fast to the outlines of the original plan. I believe they were right. The following reasons seem, in the main, to be the ones to be taken into account.

Under the constitution of the higher-girls'-school system, it is impossible to make provision for the smoothest possible road to the university by means of a uniform short cut thru the curriculum. Under the enactment of the boys'-school system, the situation is somewhat different. With them the matriculation examination and the succeeding academic studies must be consistently planned for with a more or less definiteness of aim. And in practice the higher boys' school is regarded as a college. In earlier times the

higher middle-class school achieved for itself some sort of independence of the college under the guise of the so-called *Realschule.* What, however, seems contradictory is the fact that even among those who need and desire a higher middle-class-school course to follow after they have reached their sixteenth year, the practice is, nevertheless, to complete their studies in the lower and middle classes of the *Gymnasium* and the college—a situation that results in serious regrettable interruption and drawbacks.

In the school system for girls there is no necessity whatever for duplicating this intrinsically objectionable combination of college and higher middle-class school. Under this system, matriculation and college studies will always be regarded as the exception. And, owing to the lengthening of the general course, this exception will come to be all but overlooked. The higher girls' school, from now on, will have to develop its own curriculum entirely with reference to its own needs and conditions, without taking into consideration a possible scientific course to follow. If the proposed bifurcation of the course were to be inaugurated, and thus provide a special course after the twelfth year of age for those who contemplated a university course later on, it would result in a deep-seated disturbance in the curriculum planned for them after they have attained their sixteenth year. Parents and young girls would then be confronted with the question,—a question it would be far too early to be able to settle properly: Shall it be college or higher girls' school? And the disquieting discussion would not only result in unnecessary heat, but would probably often lead to far-reaching dissension. Parents' pride and daughters' hastiness, ambition and jealousy, combined with the reflection that it can always be tried, and, if it does not "go," can always be abandoned, added to the fact of holding one's self free to make the choice as is the case with the boys' school, would prove the death-blow to the college course. And the result would then be just the same as in the case of the boys' school: that after longer or shorter trial the experiment would have to be abandoned, ending, after futile labor, in a bungling, half-acquired knowledge of Latin. Or the result might be that, pride forbidding the admission that one was mistaken concerning one's strength and talents, a determination might be reached to follow to the end the course originally decided on, in spite of all the handicap of nature. And we should then find the number of unfit young men (of whom there are not a few at the universities) augmented by the presence of unfit young women, with the sad prospect of the disillusionment awaiting them.

But, passing from this extreme possibility, have we any real occasion, by so arranging the curriculum, to attract the daughters of the leisure class, and then to "crowd" them in their studies, as, it must be admitted, is done with their sons at the *Gymnasium?* I think, on the contrary, it is desirable rather that they should be held back, not to say, even deterred. It seems to me wholly undesirable that we should follow America's example of making the learned professions more and more accessible to the female sex: (1) On

account of the thing itself; for we can scarcely believe that the professional duties of the physician or of the teacher can be more effectively undertaken by women than by men. However great may be the achievements of a few, we shall, nevertheless, have no occasion to abandon the old conviction that in general a man's strength and skill in these callings are greater, more reliable, more lasting, and more persevering than a woman's. From the facts alone that the woman ages earlier, and there always remains in the background the possibility of her marrying, it may be urged that her training for these professions, demanding so long a preparation as it does, is more unthrifty than in the other case. Even the Americans are beginning to give themselves pause and to ask whether, in the highest sense, it is expedient that their school matters should be so preponderatingly controlled by women; whether in training boys to become men, it is not better to intrust their management to men. (2) On account of the individuals themselves: for the woman scarcely ever finds the same satisfying gratification in such a calling as does a man. The proof of this is seen in the readiness displayed by women to embrace each offered opportunity to escape from their profession and to enter the married state as the one true and satisfying vocation. (3) And, lastly, not on account of the joint contact of the sexes involved. The crowding of women into the learned professions is followed by the immediate result of a prejudicial effect on the establishment of families; not so much, perhaps, because it diverts the woman's thoughts from marriage—she will cast furtive glances at it anyhow—as that by her presence she crowds out from such positions the men who would be able to support a household if they occupied them themselves. Ten thousand self-sustaining female teachers—would it not be more desirable for the sake of the community if we had in their place ten thousand married male teachers? True, they would cost more; but would not ten thousand teachers' families with their accretions more than recoup this expense? Who shall say how weighty is the influence which the teacher's house, serving, so to speak, as a gang-plank between the lower and upper classes of society, has exerted and will continue to exert—the school teacher's house, but, equally, the head-master's family. These are all things whose value cannot be exactly computed in figures; they touch us closely, however, and are not without weight. We cannot—nor would we—altogether exclude women from the learned professions; but, on the other hand, it is equally out of the question that we should, by means of an adjustment of the school curriculum, present to them, as something necessary or natural, a choice of such a career. To stamp the higher schools for girls with such characteristics as gradually to cause the well-to-do families to regard it as a social duty to cause their daughters to study along the same lines as, unhappily, their sons now do—this I should regard as disastrous; and the chronic crowding of the professions is the inevitable result.

Thus it will be necessary so to arrange the curriculum that it shall aim

to terminate with the pupil's sixteenth year of age; that it shall necessitate a distinct resolve—I could almost wish for a strain—to take up the curriculum of the *Gymnasium*. Only unusual energy and talents together with other favoring circumstances, should, as a rule, justify such a resolve. The more emphatically the school will declare that it expects no such resolve on the part of its pupils, the better. We should be starting ourselves on a fatal course if we were to offer up the girls' school at the shrine of the girls' *Gymnasium*, even as we have sacrificed the higher boys' school to the *Gymnasium*.

If this be insisted upon, it may well appear an open question whether the proposed order of instruction does not make too much concession to the opposite principle, in that it will provide for a collateral Latin course of six hours weekly in the two upper classes of the *Lyzeum*, and in such a manner that those who take this subject will be compelled to receive somewhat less instruction in German and French. Perhaps it would have been more suitable to leave a contingent Latin course wholly to the promptings of individual diligence. The resultant necessary additional work would have been a test of the student's capabilities; and to obtain a competent teacher for the purpose would scarcely have resulted in appreciable difficulty anywhere. Such a man is not seldom to be found in the house, or at least in the immediate neighborhood. Thus something like the beforementioned "bifurcation" forces itself in after all, which is closely related to the ambition to become one of the "college students." It is thus clear that, apart from the possible individual studying, provision for taking elementary Latin might be incorporated in the general scheme. I admit that I have not been able minutely to figure out such a provision. In any case, the gratification of any such ambition may well be left to individual enterprise.

Likewise, it would not seem to me as an impossible concession if, with a view to the development of possible candidates for the *Gymnasium*, the course for the upper classes of the higher girls' school should be kept, as far as possible, free of all new subjects, so as to make the graduation from such classes easier for the aforementioned candidates. It is true that if the final class were to cover merely a general review without covering material branches which would lead to new levels, it would lose in prestige in the pupils' minds. And the same objection would apply to a too comprehensive approach to the *Oberlyzeum*. If it were attempted to convert the lowest grade into a sort of reception-class, whose object would be to bring all its pupils who would, of course, have come from all sorts of schools and private teachers to the same level by means of review and complementary studies, the result would be not only to rob the general course of a whole year which could ill be spared, but it would tend to dull the zeal of those who brought ambition with them. And likewise, it would serve to postpone, in the case of the "unfit," a recognition of their mistake.

Some doubt might even be entertained as to the wisdom of the nomenclature of the different institutions. The terms *Lyzeum* and *Oberlyzeum* (as

in the case of the *Realschule* and *Oberrealschule*) give rise to the idea that the latter is a continuation and rounding-out of the former. Frankly speaking, a new characterization of the new arrangement is needed, as over against the old *Töchterschule* and *Mädchengymnasium*.

In the final discussion many secondary considerations may well be included. It might be urged that the nine-year *Gymnasium* course for boys is all too short; since in actual practice it often extends over an appreciably longer period with necessary class-review work. The average age of those who matriculate is twenty years. And for our university requirements, this is not too high. To leave school at an earlier age is not always an unmixed blessing, however much it may be desired by parents. It would be quite proper, therefore, if, for the girls, with their weaker constitution and more timid dispositions, we were to endeavor to lay out a somewhat more level path than the all-too steep highway of the nine-year *Gymnasium* course. If, at twenty years of age, they attain the point where they can enter college, it would prove a more suitable age. And if, in reaching this goal by the longer route, they have gained a mental and physical maturity, this will prove of immense advantage in the later university course, and might even aid in shortening the latter. The avoidance of the year of *dienen* and of strenuous study which is so often undertaken by our students, will always assure them the means of "catching-up" with their fellow male students.

Moreover, there would in no case be any compulsion to pursue the full fourteen-year course thru *Lyzeum* and *Oberlyzeum*. No one would be prevented from reaching the goal by passing-over certain classes. This was not an unusual thing in colleges in earlier days, accomplished by means of strenuous private tutoring, and, without doubt, was an advantage over the present system of filling out the entire period allotted to each grade. Admission to the *Oberlyzeum* is by no means conditioned on completing the full course of the *Lyzeum*. It will eventually be necessary to determine the candidate's attainments and general preparation by means of an entrance examination, but no conditions will be imposed as to the manner in which these were acquired. A good course of private tutoring—which is not to be confounded with "cramming"—assuming the necessary capacity and determination, can, without doubt, lead to the goal by a shorter route than the schools afford. As a rule, of course, preference must be given to the school, and, in practice, preparation for the university will generally be found to require the stated term. I should not regret if a year were occasionally interjected between the *Lyzeum* and the *Oberlyzeum* for the finishing touches in household economics—if for no other reason than for the sake of the possible marriage which might ensue. The "crowding" incident to the quickest possible completion of the course is assuredly the most unhealthful condition to which a young girl can be subjected.

4. To go into particulars of the plan and course of instruction of the two institutions is not my intention. I have but a few suggestions to add.

Collaterally to the *Lyzeum* course, which will assure a complete school education, there should be established courses for a general rounding-out of the education of adult girls, and for training in the various vocations of life.

Classes for a general finishing education would provide for those subjects which are of highest importance to the mistress of the house and the mother; such as the economic sciences, with a theoretical foundation, the laws of health, with the necessary details of anthropology and physiology, rules for the care and upbringing of children, with training in nursing and kindergartens. We have been reproached for not keeping these things in view; but this is unfair. It was, from one point of view, unreasonable to overload the course with too many subjects. Those selected were numerous and burdensome enough. And, from another point of view, it is desirable that in respect to such subjects a certain amount of liberty and individualization should obtain, which is impossible in a minutely laid-out plan of studies; and, for the rest, a certain private initiative, which is here attended with the best results, must be given greater opportunity for its display.

As regards the *Oberlyzeum*, it was but right that the majority of the pupils should be accorded the opportunity of following the path which leads to the *Oberrealschule*. And so, also, in the case of those who have no intention of following up their studies at the university. The same is true for those who have in mind the study of mathematics and natural sciences. And if, as seems probable, the medical departments shall next open their doors to graduates from the *Oberrealschule*, such young women as intend to devote themselves to the profession of medicine will likewise find that there is no longer any need for any very extensive—I repeat, *extensive*—course in Latin. For the future teachers of the humanistic sciences, theology, languages, history, a knowledge of Latin, and, in certain circumstances, of Greek also, will always remain desirable, if not indispensable—for female and male teachers alike. To permit entrance to the schools on equal terms will entail the necessity of furnishing correspondingly equal instruction to the entrants. Possibly, in other respects, the "modern" curriculum of the *Oberlyzeum* will not strictly correspond to that followed by the *Oberrealschule;* it will necessarily be somewhat more "humanistic" in character, if only for the reason that the technical colleges, for which the *Oberrealschule* was originally a preparatory school, have made no provision for the entrance of women as scholars. For those who would become teachers, even of mathematics and natural sciences, as well as for female physicians, a thoro training in the humanistic sciences will always be of extreme value. This was not overlooked in the establishment of the general plan. But it is noteworthy that this same plan will be found to have made one provision, also, for a philosophical course. In fact, what would be otherwise a strongly "realistic" course will be found to contain a noteworthy illustration of the fact that a comprehensive view of things cannot be obtained from a knowledge of natural sciences alone.

A completion of the *Oberlyzeum* course with its concomitant ripening of

the mind, will thus guarantee to women the right to enter the university on equal terms; and in any event, the right to matriculate can no longer be denied them, as has hitherto been the case in Prussia. And, in like manner, the right on the part of individual teachers to deny access to their lecture-rooms will come to an end. For particular medical subjects, special courses will undoubtedly have to be arranged. It goes without saying that equal rights carry with them correspondingly equal duties. The academic as well as the state examinations will establish uniform requirements of both sexes, and, in particular, the would-be female principal must measure up to the standard set for men. The natural result will be that both will enter life with equal facilities—at least with respect to the higher girls' schools. Will this be so with respect to the boys' schools also? Thus, altho under difficulties, the American plan of coeducation in the higher schools is finding a foothold; small beginnings have already been made. In the meantime, even from America, warnings against the overvaluation of the system reach us, due to the cheapening of the privilege. The same appreciation and recognition of its advantages are not accorded to the system by thoughtful men that are urged by the average American, enveloped in an atmosphere of democracy, radicalism, and general "up-to-dateness."

On the other hand, the fullest recognition cannot be refused the system in the higher girls' schools; and the management of the institutions will be subject to it. Passionate protests have been made against this. It is declared that it is beneath the dignity of a man, as such, to submit, as a teacher, to the direction of a woman. I cannot share this view. If a woman has executive ability—and this is certainly to be found in women—and inasmuch as many private schools are managed by women with good results, it is not easy to see why a man's honor should be impugned if he should make his own work fit in with such an institution. The guiding hand of a woman would be of especial value in such *Oberlyzeen* as were devised on the plan of the English-American colleges, with a complete "boarding-school" system of their own. And I am persuaded that it would be highly advantageous if at least a few of the *Oberlyzeen* were so arranged; they possess advantages in their influence on character-building, and in respect to the development of individuality which the family training does not exhibit in every case. It remains to be seen whether the time will come when wealth will be devoted more than at present to the founding of such establishments.

Finally, girls' schools would progress to greater significance and importance if qualified teachers did not consider themselves too good to remain permanently on their staff. That could not be said of them as long as the higher girls' school was not regarded as belonging in the higher educational circles, but was relegated to the class represented by the public school. With the establishment of the *Lyzeum* as one of the higher schools, this obstacle will disappear. Presumably male teachers will still continue to bend their efforts toward obtaining positions in the *Gymnasium*, as the older and more

agreeable institution. On the other hand, the new *Oberlyzeum*, with its new practices, its greater adaptability of courses, and its highly qualified scholars, offers an attractive prospect to which male teachers may well remain loyal.

The new arrangements for girls' schools, under the auspices of the state, is practically little more than a plan, a plan which the state will not undertake to carry out or develop, but which is turned over to the cities and to private enterprise, even tho the establishment of a few such institutions by assistance from the state is not altogether impossible. Such interest on the part of the state might concern itself with institutions conducted on the plan of boarding-schools resembling the ancient *Fürstenschulen*, designed for the benefit of indigent but talented daughters of officials, teachers, and ministers. In the main, however, the benefit of this plan would consist in the fact that gradually all the existing establishments, conducted by the city or private enterprise, will develop into such schools. The resulting advantages would suffice for external justification. A more intimate justification, however, must lie in the conviction as to the applicability of the plan. For my own part, I believe it will bear honest and thoro examination.

ON THE DEVELOPMENTS AND CHANGES IN PRIMARY TEACHING IN FRANCE DURING THE THIRD REPUBLIC (1870–1906)[1]

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Public instruction has been the object of very keen anxiety under the Third Republic. It has had ample and varied development, it has aroused long and ardent debates, and in its legal organization and in the constitution of its schools, it has undergone very great changes, which have been imposed upon it by republican policy.

Without too minutely recalling the system in vogue previous to 1870, it will be useful, before speaking of the achievements of the Third Republic, to divide the history of that system into five distinct periods.

1. During the great Revolution of 1789 to 1795, the subject of general education had awakened an interest in the minds of the leading authorities, which resulted in the formation of important bills followed by the enactment of some into law; but the greater part of these laws had not been applied.

2. This education had been the subject of no special law during the First Empire and the Restoration. Nevertheless, during the Restoration it had been the object of numerous special endowments and was the cause of ardent rivalry between the ecclesiastics who pursued the plan of teaching in classes, and the liberals who argued in favor of teaching singly.

3. It was during the reign of Louis Phillippe that the first organic law establishing primary teaching —the law of June 28, 1833, known as the Guizot

[1] Translated at the University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Ill.

law—was enacted. As a result, the establishment of numerous public schools followed; while the number of pupils registered in primary schools, both public and private, increased in 1847 to 3,530,000.

4. Under the Second Republic, the fear that socialistic ideas might be promulgated by means of the school was mainly instrumental in bringing about the passage of the law of March 15, 1850. On one hand, this rendered the maintenance of girls' schools obligatory for townships of more than 800 inhabitants; and on the other, it organized the administration in such a way as to place the teachers under the influence of the clergy and to favor the development of clerical schools. All lay teachers were regarded with suspicion during the first ten years of the Empire.

5. With the new direction of imperial politics after the war with Italy, the school situation changed during the latter half of the Empire. Under Victor Duruy as minister, adult courses were greatly encouraged. The law of April 10, 1867, made the maintenance of girls' schools mandatory for townships of more than 500 inhabitants, and authorized each township to give free primary tuition on condition that four centimes be added to the three centimes by which the four direct tax-levies were increased, and which already sufficed to pay part of the salary of the teachers and the expense of maintaining the schools.

In 1850, under the Second Republic, there were to be found in France 60,579 primary schools, public or private, and 3,332,000 pupils enrolled in these schools (a number inferior to that shown by the minister's report at the end of the reign of Louis Phillippe). In 1872, after the fall of the Empire, there were 70,179 schools and 4,722,000 pupils enrolled. During this time (1850–72) the number of lay private schools had decreased, while the private clerical schools had increased. The number of public schools had also increased, principally those belonging to the clericals, which had been augmented from 6,564 to 12,060 between the years 1850 and 1863.

This progress of the ecclestiastical schools, which was due to the law of 1850 and to the policy of the government during the first years of the Empire, had been momentarily checked during Duruy's ministry.

The first years of the Third Republic are chiefly noticeable on account of the pedagogical organization which Gréard, director of primary teaching in the department of the Seine, gave to the schools of the city of Paris and which has served since as a type for the general reorganization of public schools in France. At this early period of the Third Republic there is but one law deserving of mention: that of March 19, 1875. This increased from three centimes to four centimes the additional amount which the townships should vote for the support of their schools, and increased the minimum salary for men teachers to 1,200 francs and for women teachers, to 900 francs. It was only after the defeat of May 16, when the republican party came into power, that the reforms so long considered by them began to be executed.

The first and one of the most important reforms related to school buildings. Many schools were still installed in rented houses very poorly adapted to the needs of instruction and to the requirements of hygiene. The law of June 1, 1878, compelled the townships to own their school buildings. It appropriated a double fund, one of 60,000,000 francs intended for distribution among them in the form of subsidies; the other, of 60,000,000 francs, intended to be lent for the purpose of assisting in the cost of construction. Subsequent laws have at various times augmented this fund, while the form of the loan and the subsidy has varied.

In 1902 the budget set forth the fact that seven hundred and eighteen millions had been distributed in subsidies and loans, and had served to construct 37,908 schools, 182 normal schools, and to buy or improve 26,314 school furnishings. These seven hundred and eighteen millions form only two-thirds of the total sum spent; to this sum must be added about three hundred millions for the account of the large cities which did not have recourse to the state. This brings to about one billion francs the total sum devoted to the work of school-building from 1878 to 1902. Parliament still votes every year a large sum to aid in the constructions.

The reorganization of instruction upon the plan conceived by the republican party commenced a short time after the promulgation of the law of June 1, 1878, and continues to this day. As early as the year 1872 the French League of Instruction had presented to the Bureau of the Chamber of Deputies a petition bearing more than a million signatures asking that primary education be made obligatory, free, civil.

This triple desire long cherished by the republican party was realized by the laws of June 16, 1881, of March 28, 1882, and of October 30, 1886, and was followed by other complementary laws. These, which aroused heated debate in the press and whose elaboration and discussion in Parliament were slowly and laboriously accomplished, are today the organic laws of education. Three men have contributed much to the preparation of the bills and the application of the laws: Jules Ferry, as minister of public instruction; Paul Bert, as reporter in the Chamber of Deputies; M. Buisson, as director of primary instruction.

1. The law of June 16, 1881, abolished entirely all charges for primary, elementary, and higher education in the public schools.

2. The law of March 28, 1882, inaugurated the principle of compulsory education, requiring every child of from six to thirteen years of age, viz., during a period of seven years, to attend a school, public or private, unless his education at home were provided for. This law at the same time determined the subject-matter of primary education.

3. The law of October 30, 1886, on the establishment of primary education, followed by several explanatory enactments, provided for the classification of schools into three grades: infant schools, formerly known under the name

of *salles d'asile;* elementary primary schools; and higher primary schools, which had been omitted by the law of March 15, 1850. The infants' schools which existed in 1886 had to be annexed, under the title of infants' classes, to the several primary schools. Primary schools were able to add to their elementary classes a course in higher primary instruction extending over one or two years. The law provided that the instruction in all public schools should henceforth be non-sectarian; that the *laïcisation*, that is to say, the substitution of non-sectarian for clerical schools should be completely accomplished within the space of five years for boys' schools, and without time limit after the death or withdrawal of clerical instructresses for the girls' schools.

How are these laws applied?

Free education led to a complete change in the financial policy of primary education. Formerly the budgets of primary instruction had been provided (1) by township funds derived principally from the four additional centimes in the direct tax-levy; (2) by an additional levy of four centimes for the benefit of the departments and devoted chiefly to maintenance of the primary normal schools; (3) by grants by the state which supplemented the scanty township resources; (4) finally, by academic fees which parents who were not poor paid for the schooling of their children.

The townships furnished forty-one millions (all their expenses were not then known): academic tuition-fees provided sixteen millions; the departments eight and one-half millions; the state, whose contribution had much increased since Victor Duruy had been minister, twenty-three millions.

The law of July, 1889, made the public school teachers officers of the state whose salary is paid out of the general budget of the ministry of public instruction. They no longer depend upon municipal councils, altho the townships still vote them supplementary salaries, some determined by law, others optional. The tuition fees which the parents paid were entirely abolished. The expense which fell upon the departments for the support of the primary normal schools no longer exists, as the state maintains these schools with the general funds of the budget. The contribution of the departments toward the expenses of primary education is therefore today insignificant. The contribution of the townships, which had sunk to thirty millions during the first few years following the establishment of free education, has since increased, and this is due to several causes, but principally to the payment of the debts incurred at the time of the erection of the schools. The amount was eighty-one millions in 1902.

The contribution of the state is the one that has increased the most. From thirty-three millions in 1886, it rose to one hundred and fifty-five millions in 1902, increasing from year to year, owing to the application of the new system. While the total expense for public primary education was two hundred and thirty six millions in 1902, the last year for which the entire expenditures are known, the sum payable to the state was 65 per cent. of this. Its share

has almost quadrupled in 22 years. It is still increasing and will continue to increase: primary education is allowed one hundred and seventy-two and three-quarter millions, in the budget for 1906.

To the two hundred and thirty-six millions of the year 1902 there should be added the expenses of private primary instruction; but these are nowhere obtainable.

The figures relating to the number of schools, public and private, and to the number of teachers, male and female, are recorded every year in the report called *états de situation* which the primary inspectors send to the minister of public instruction. Comparison of the year 1876–1877 which preceded the reforms of the republican government and which is on the other hand the first year of which the commission of statistics of primary instruction (established in 1876) published the results in detail, with the year 1904–1905, the last for which complete statistics have reached the minister, furnishes a statistical measure of the progress accomplished. We give the figures (for France alone, in 1876–1877, for France and Algeria together, in 1904–1905) grouped in two ways: (1) in public schools and in private schools; (2) in non-sectarian schools and in clerical schools.

Primary Schools	1876–77	1904–5
Public: boys' and mixed[1]	39,764	44,928
girls'	19,257	23,365
Private: boys' and mixed[1]	2,657	3,396
girls'	9,869	10,116
	71,547	81,805
Public: non-sectarian	45,816	67,499
Private: non-sectarian	5,841	10,697
Public: clerical	13,205	794
Private: clerical	6,685	2,815
	71,547	81,805

[1] Mixed schools, viz., those receiving boys and girls, are classed with the boys' schools because they are most often taught by men teachers.

In the course of these twenty-eight years, the number of schools has increased more than 10,000, especially in the direction of the public schools which have increased more than 9,000; and among the public schools, the non-sectarian schools have gained nearly 22,000 while more than 12,000 public ecclesiastical schools were closed. On the other hand, the figures indicate that there has been a very slight increase in the number of private schools (986) and that this increase is entirely to the advantage of the non-sectarian schools, the clerical having diminished 3,870 in number.

It had been otherwise up to 1902–03. The number of the public clerical schools had become in fact less from year to year; the diminution had been 11,000 in twenty-six years. But, in compensation, the ecclesiastics had opened private schools, and the number of these new creations was 3,500.

The suppression of clerical instruction, of which we will speak farther on, produced a sudden change, and the schools reconstructed under non-sectarian form by the Catholics have for two years been taking the place of the proscribed clerical schools.

Naturally there are more teachers than schools, and the number of the former has proportionally increased more than the latter because the number of pupils in the city schools, especially in Paris, has increased, and because, in general, for the rural as well as for the urban schools, the administration has endeavored—without always succeeding—to give the instruction an assistant when the number of pupils exceeded fifty.

School Teachers	1876–77	1904–5
Public: boys' and mixed schools	46,400	57,331
girls' schools	33,663	54,817
Private: boys' and mixed	5,317	9,003
girls'	25,329	29,716
	110,709	150,867
Non-sectarian, public	53,240	110,757
private	10,785	27,002
Clerical, public	26,823	1,391
private	19,861	11,717
	110,709	150,867

The public schools have gained 32,000 men and women teachers, and as clerical instructors, male and female, have decreased by 25,532 in these schools, it follows that there is an increase of 57,517 in the non-sectarian teachers. In the private schools, on account of changes necessitated by the suppression of clerical instruction, the teachers of this class have decreased about 8,000, while statistics show an increase of more than 16,000 of the city. The number of pupils has increased also; but not as much proportionally as that of the teachers. Here are the figures given by the statistics.

Pupils of Primary Schools	1876–77	1904–5
Public: boys' and mixed	2,197,632	2,442,598
girls'	1,625,696	2,070,616
Private: boys' and mixed	203,230	360,001
girls'	690,357	694,815
	4,716,935	5,568,030
Non-sectarian: public	2,337,193	4,446,693
private	311,369	710,145
Clerical: public	1,628,289	66,521
private	440,084	344,671
	4,716,935	5,568,030

During this period of twenty-eight years, the number of primary schools has increased 14 per cent.; the number of men and women teachers 36 per

per cent.; the number of pupils 20 per cent. The increase has been greater for girls than for boys because in 1877 there were still many girls who did not go to school. The public schools which enrolled in round numbers 2,109,000 pupils more in the non-sectarian schools, and 1,562,000 pupils less in the clerical schools, have gained a total of 548,000 pupils. The private schools have gained about 303,000 entirely to the advantage, in the last two years, of the so-called non-sectarian schools; total increase, 851,000. The total number of the pupils enrolled in the primary schools, public and private, has increased from year to year, from 1876–77 to 1888–89, when it reached the number of 5,623,401. This is the highest enrollment which has been reached up to this time. The following years it dropped to 5,526,800 in 1900–1; from 1901 to 1904–5 it rose again slightly.

To what cause can this decrease, or at least this stationary condition extending over 15 years, be attributed? The principal and most apparent cause is assuredly the lowering of the birth-rate in France. In 1880 the state had registered 920,000 births; in 1897, 859,000. The school children who were nine years old after these two dates could not be, supposing that none of the survivors failed to be enrolled, as numerous at the second date as at the first. Other causes, such as irregularity of attendance, or even total withdrawal of a certain number of children notwithstanding the compulsory education law, and the confusion caused in certain families by the closing of the clerical schools, have probably also influenced the enrollment. However these are secondary causes; the birth-rate is the principal one.

The question of clerical instruction has been one of the gravest with which Parliament and the minister of public instruction have had to deal for the past twenty-five years. Between the republican party and the Catholic church friction and political antagonism had existed for many years. When the organic laws of 1881–86 entirely separated primary from religious instruction the latter of which had henceforth to be given, not by the school teacher but by the religious teacher and outside of the school—the Catholics manifested the fear that this absolute separation might lead to the "school without God" and from the school without God to the "school against God"; that is, that it might inculcate materialistic ideas in the minds of the children. It was then that they struggled to increase the clerical schools so as to compensate for the successive closing of the public schools of this order that had been proscribed by the law of 1886. Thus it was that the city of Paris having in three years closed 136 public clerical schools containing 41,479 pupils, the diocesan board of the Christian schools founded 291 Christian schools which received 54,280 pupils. Radical deputies often complained that the transformation took place too slowly to suit them.

The law relating to articles of association, promulgated July 1, 1901, established in the first place freedom of association; but it made an exception of religious congregations which henceforth could be founded only after author-

ity had been conferred to by law, and it specified that no person belonging to an unauthorized congregation could give instruction. In virtue of this law, the minister, during the years 1902–1903, closed 10,049 clerical schools or classes. The Catholics for their part opened 5,839 new private schools directed by ecclesiastics or by lay teachers. To put themselves in harmony with the law, a large number of congregations addressed a request for the above-mentioned authority to the government. The government, thru the Chamber of Deputies, rejected *en masse* all these requests (March 18, 1903).

The law of July 7, 1904, definitely settled the question by prohibiting all clerical instruction, by deciding that the suppression of this instruction should be made completely within the space of ten years. More than 3,000 clerical schools or classes have already been closed from 1904 to 1906. In this grave matter, the government has been more desirous of getting rid of religious instruction, which was contrary to republican policy, than of respecting liberty of thought or education. This suppression of schools by authority explains why for the last three years the number of clerical schools has considerably diminished, and how, altho in a much smaller ratio, the number of non-sectarian schools, by which the Catholics have tried to replace them, has increased.

Statistics furnish only very insufficient information about the results of primary instruction. They show that in 1877, in round numbers, 85 recruits out of 100 knew how to read, and 70 wives out of 100 had signed their own marriage certificates; that in 1904 there were 96.5 per cent. of recruits knowing how to read, and that in 1901, 94.2 per cent. of wives were capable of signing their names.

The census of 1872 enumerated in every 100 people of more than 6 years of age 42 illiterates (not knowing how to read or write); that of 1901 enumerated 18 illiterates of more than 5 years of age (14.9 per cent. of males, 20.2 per cent. of females), a proportion which is much less in the younger generations (5 illiterates out of 100 boys from 10 to 14 years; 4.9 out of 100 girls) than in the generations of an advanced age. This testifies to the present progress of primary education. In reality, primary education has gained much more than the figures indicate. Teaching in the primary normal schools has been transformed, and the teachers who are now obliged to procure teachers' licenses, are in general better informed than their predecessors. The material for instruction, books, maps, pictures, has been renovated and improved. The number of pupils who obtain the certificate of primary studies on leaving school has increased sixfold.

Auxiliary institutions of primary education have received ample development under the Third Republic. Before the elementary primary school, the child of from 2 to 6 years is received free in the kindergarten. In 1876–77 statistics showed 532,000 children in the kindergartens; in 1901–2, it showed 753,000. Above the elementary primary school which comprises 3 courses,

elementary, intermediate, advanced (implying ordinarily six years of study), is placed usually the higher primary school, or the complementary course taught in the elementary primary school. The higher primary schools did not appear in the statistics of 1877; they were then not very numerous. In 1901–2 these schools and the complementary courses comprised 66,600 pupils.

In the primary school, the treasury allowed grants to support school canteens furnishing luncheon to the children at a low price; or sometimes even without charge; school libraries have been installed; pupils have received practical ideas of economy by means of the school savings bank which receives cent by cent their deposits, and more recently by means of school mutualities operating as mutual-aid societies and retiring funds. Vacation colonies have been organized, thanks to which poor children pass a fortnight in the country or at the sea-shore.

The adult courses are a very useful complement of the primary school. They were in high favor after the passage of the law in 1833 during the reign of Louis Philippe, and then during the ministry of Victor Duruy under the Second Empire. They had been very much neglected during the first twenty-five years of the Third Republic. Since 1895 the minister of public instruction has given them anew a vigorous impulse. In 1905 examination showed 47,330 adult courses, followed more or less regularly by about 400,000 pupils in the public schools and, in addition, about 6,000 evening courses taught by societies of public instruction, the principal ones located in Paris being: the Polytechnic Association, the Philotechnic Association and the Young Peoples' Union; at Lyons, the Professional Association of the Rhone; at Bordeaux, the Philomathic Association, etc. These courses are also taught by extension schools, syndicates, etc.

Several societies, particularly the French Educational League, have made important contributions by congresses and by a resort to propaganda and patronage, to the development of public instruction and to the republican education of the French youth. The primary school, even if no child evaded the compulsory law, would not comprise the total of the young generation of 6 to 13 years inclusive, for the pupils, provided with their certificate of primary studies, can stop before attaining the age of 13. On the other hand, there is a certain number of children who receive instruction at home, or partly at home and partly in private courses (in some large cities only). There are several thousand children who receive their instruction from the beginning in institutions of secondary instruction. Upon leaving primary school, the great majority of pupils enter the active life of labor as aids to their parents, as apprentices, or as junior workmen; a certain number enter professional or technical schools; a certain number also begin their secondary studies.

A volume would be necessary to set forth the history of primary instruction in France under the Third Republic. We have been obliged, in the space at our disposal, to limit ourselves to sketching a few of the most characteristic

traits of this history, mentioning the date of the laws and the statistical figures.

The subjects mentioned suffice to make clear the fact that considerable changes have been introduced into the system of primary education, and that this period of thirty-five years has been one of the most active in the general history of the education of the people in France; and that, if harmony has been disturbed by religious and anti-religious antagonism which has reduced the number of schools and increased the expenses of the state, very notable progress has, nevertheless, been accomplished along several lines of pedagogical work

WHAT FRANCE OWES TO AMERICA IN THE MATTER OF EDUCATION[1]

J. J. GABRIEL COMPAYRÉ, RECTOR OF THE ACADEMY AND UNIVERSITY OF LYONS, FRANCE

The Atlantic Ocean separates us, Americans and French, but it does not divide us. Between two peoples who have never made war upon each other—a rare thing in the history of the world—there are affinities and sympathies which have often already exhibited themselves in the past and which, as we sincerely hope, will do nothing but develop in the future. In vain does the ocean separate the two countries by its vastness of distance: it does not prevent the same trees from growing, the same plants from flourishing, and the same sentiments and passions from expanding and growing on the two shores so widely divided in a geographical sense.

It would be a promising and attractive field of study to investigate what are the moral debts which our country has contracted toward yours in the course of the past century, to be followed by an inquiry of how far the influence of the American democracy has made itself felt by the French democracy. I am restricted, in this paper, to sketching rapidly a few traits of this absorbing and important history.

In the first place we cannot forget that our Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Charter of Republican Liberties is modeled upon lines of a similar Declaration by means of which the United States of America, a few years before our great Revolution, had defined the limits of the independence which they had won. How dare one call in question the influence which your country has exercised upon ours in view of the fact that it was Lafayette who, after having gloriously served your cause and inspired with the friendship of Washington, was the first at the National Assembly of July 11, 1789, to propose the drawing up of a declaration? How continue to doubt when one compares the texts of the two documents, and reads, for instance, in the Declaration of Independence, voted in July, 1775, by the Congress at Philadelphia, passages such as these: "All men are created equal; they are endowed by their Creator with inalienable rights, among which are to be counted

[1] Translated at the University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Ill.

life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness." "When a government abuses its power, it is the right and even the duty of men to throw off or to destroy this government." Is this not the same language which our ancestors of the Revolution used when, "in the presence and under the auspices of the Supreme Being," they attested solemnly the "sacred and inalienable rights of equality, of liberty, ... of resistance to oppression." The eminent philosopher Paul Janet, who has closely studied the question in his *History of Moral and Political Philosophy*, does not hesitate to conclude that the French declaration is in great part the translation of the American declaration. "These noble ideas," said a member of our Constituent Assembly, "conceived in another hemisphere, should by preference transplant themselves first to the land of France."

Thus, since the end of the eighteenth century, there has been exchange and intercommunication of social ideas between France and America, and our growing democracy has found itself united to yours by a close community of views. Since then, it is true, our destinies have been different. You have marched in a straight line and without interruption in the path of democratic progress. Our course, on the contrary, has led us in irregular directions, a course often diverted from its goal. We have at times experienced backslidings and retreats. It is none the less an unforgettable period in the history of humanity when Lafayette and his companions went to place their swords at the service of American independence and when, having returned from the New World, they brought back to us the rights of men.

Of all these rights, not one is more precious than the right of instruction; and it is in this particular, especially, that the republic of the United States has been our model and our guide. Doubtless our fathers of the Revolution may be said to have beeen the first to conceive the true principles of public education and to dream of the establishment of schools open to all the children of the nation, free for all, and likewise compulsory for all. But they did not have the time to apply their lofty ideas; it is you who, in advance of us, have put them into practice. The reactionary governments which have three times checked the progress of liberty, the first Empire, the Restoration of the monarchy, the second Empire, have likewise considerably retarded the establishment of a national system of education so that, you having anticipated us in theory, we have been, as a matter of fact, no more than your imitators. We have had to wait for the actual advent of our third Republic before being allowed to witness, after a delay of one hundred years, the dreams and the ideal of the Revolution of 1789 becoming a reality on earth.

If, at the opening of the twentieth century, the United States of America displays before an admiring world a marvelous ensemble of educational institutions whose far-reaching influence no country can excel, nevertheless, France, too, making up for lost time, has established upon an enduring foundation a public-school system, free like yours, compulsory like yours. The man who contributed most, under the ministries of Gambetta, Jules

Ferry, and of Paul Bert, toward the inauguration of educational reform, M. Ferdinand Buisson, was permeated with the American spirit which he absorbed on the occasion of his visit to the great expositions at New Orleans and Philadelphia. Had your great school organizer, Horace Mann, lived in our time and repeated his trip to Europe, he would not have brought back from his visit such an unfavorable impression as the French school system made upon him in 1843. He would gladly have admitted that we have made progress and that we have followed the path blazed out by you. He wanted suitable and comfortable, well-ventilated and spacious school buildings; and we have built by thousands such buildings as have been called "educational palaces." He attached the highest importance to normal schools where instructors of both sexes are trained in approved methods, and we can count more than two hundred of such. He desired no more of these paying schools which he judged to be a blot on civilization. All of our primary, elementary or superior schools are free. Even the lay nature of our neutral, non-sectarian instruction which, with its free and obligatory character complete the three terms of our educational motto, was in part inspired by Horace Mann. Was it not he in fact who declared that direct religious instruction had no place in the public schools, because the teaching of dogmas and tenets of special religions is "despotism on the part of the teachers, and slavery for the children?"

Channing is a classic in our country, at least for the higher examinations in primary schools, on whose educational programs he prominently figures; and in many ways, especially thru his never-faltering belief in the necessity of universal education in a democratic republic, Felix Picard, the most noteworthy of our recent educators, appears to us as a French Channing.

But it is not alone our primary departments which have put the examples from America to profitable use. The latest reform in our secondary instruction, occurring in 1902, also owes something to the practices in vogue in your colleges. The minister Mr. Alexandre Ribot, who presided over the great public investigation into secondary instruction, recalled in his *Report* that I had visited the United States in 1893, and said: "Mr. Compayré has brought back from America interesting information as to the way in which American educators came to modify the rigidity of the class system and to avoid overburdening the students, while constantly increasing each year the variety of the curricula. In all the schools there are certain required subjects and others which are unqualifiedly elective to the students." Following these views the four sections of our secondary education were established four years ago, and in the limits of these the students can choose what they believe to be best suited to their aptitude and ambition. And when the partisans of the old routine opposed the establishment of the new régime, saying, "That is impracticable," they were told, "You see very well that it is not, since that is done in America."

Our universities also sometimes take yours as examples. To be sure, they do not receive gifts as munificent or as princely as those made by Rockefeller or

Carnegie: everything in America is on a more liberal scale than in France. However some public-spirited men have been found who have contributed from one to two hundred thousand francs to the universities of Paris, Lyon, Bordeaux, Nancy, etc. On the other hand, the work of higher education is being more and more turned, as with you, toward scientific research and laboratory experiments, we having lost our taste for the vain oratorical displays of former years. Again, it is in your schools that our psychologists have learned to study the psychology of the child and to practice the methods of the investigator and student of research, which, a few years ago, were entirely unknown in France.

The little which we have here said is sufficient to illustrate.

THE REHABILITATION OF PHILOSOPHY IN GERMANY[1]

HERMANN SCHWARTZ, HALLE AN DER SAALE

All of the individual sciences had their origin in philosophy. For that reason it was at one time styled "the mother and queen of all the sciences." But, in the opinion of some, this mother of the sciences bears a strong resemblance in certain particulars to a human mother. The band of children to which she has given life grow up and develop, while she herself ages and dies off. And thus philosophy has been, and still is, regarded by many as a moribund discipline. Even in the days of Kant (about 1780) it was felt that philosophy might be treated scornfully, like an antiquated matron. With the aid of Kant and the great German idealists, Fichte, Schelling, and Hegel, philosophy experienced a victorious renascence and ruled supreme for some time.

After 1840, because of the rise of the natural sciences, philosophy again began to sink in the estimation of the people, and its entire dissolution was looked for. It was asserted that it should be distributed among the individual sciences, without being permitted to retain even a remnant of its own existence. This suggests the idea of the amœba, the lowest form of life. When an amœba divides, a number of new amœbas remain: the mother has ceased to exist, having disappeared. And thus in the sixties the individual sciences felt called upon to enter completely into the inheritance of philosophy. The claim was advanced that there were and could be only individual sciences, psychology being considered the last branch separated from philosophy, and the idea of recognizing a distinct science of philosophy, in addition to the others, was declared foolish and antiquated. Many scholars, whose education is rooted in that period of the absolute sway of the natural sciences, have maintained this opinion down to the present day.

Philosophy, however, is not a moribund but an eternally young science, and the fountain of youth for all the other sciences. Its relationship to the individual sciences is not that of a declining human mother to her offspring,

[1] From the *Illustrirte Zeitung* (August 23, 1906). Translated by Professor Rudolf Tombo, Jr., Columbia University.

nor that of an amœboid mother-cell to its divided parts, but rather that of the sun to the planets. The sun has sent off one planet after another, yet it has not lost its power to give forth light. And likewise it sends forth heat to invigorate and strengthen its children, the planets. Life upon these planets would cease, they would lose both light and heat, if the rays of the central body did not shine continually. In the same way the individual sciences must never lose touch with philosophy, the science from which they have all sprung, if they would retain their scientific character. Only an ever-watchful philosophic criticism of its foundations, methods, and limitations can save it from degenerating into dogmatism. And nothing but the general view-point of the philosopher can guard against the diffusion into which individual investigation, with its ever-increasing specialization, is threatening to draw the modern consciousness.

In recent times we have again become conscious of the fact that philosophy is an indispensable discipline. The call to philosophy is today heard loudest of all in the camps of the individual sciences. Historians and scientists themselves are turning to philosophical investigation, either to clarify their fundamental conceptions and to verify their methods, or to present a speculative universal picture of the results of their investigations. Under these circumstances it behooves us, in adopting the new, frequently one-sided and premature tendencies of scientific research, not to forget the many old but valuable ideas contained in the rich storehouse of the history of philosophy.

At one time the history of philosophy was regarded as a graveyard of dead opinions. At the present day the significance of historical continuity in philosophy, too, is recognized and honored. We know that it is a living intellectual inheritance, which the great thinkers of earlier days have bequeathed to us. All new philosophical creations must be imbued with this life, in order that they may rise all the more calmly, clearly, and consciously to new summits of knowledge. In the following paragraphs the reader may make the acquaintance of a number of living German philosophers. In the first place, I wish to mention some of the worthy men who are endeavoring to unlock the rich philosophic inheritance of the past.

Kuno Fischer was born on July 23, 1824, at Sandewalde in Silesia. From 1856 to 1872 he served as full professor at Jena, and he has been at Heidelberg since the latter year. As a student of theology and philosophy, he was at first attracted by Hegel; later he was one of the first to point back to Kant, and still later he was influenced by the philosophy of Goethe. He has thus sought his inspiration on the summits of German thought, in order that he might, from this high vantage-ground, lead us back to the realm of thought of the earlier philosophers. His epoch-making life-work and masterpiece, his *Geschichte der neueren Philosophie*, which first appeared in six volumes from 1852 to 1877, and which was republished in nine volumes in 1897, is written from this standpoint. Prominent among his other productions is his *Kritik der Kantischen Philosophie* (1883). His literary works, *Goethes*

Faust (1878) and *Shakespeares Hamlet* (1896), are of profound interest also to non-philosophic readers.

Max Heinze, who was born on December 13, 1835, at Priesznitz (Sachsen-Meiningen), has likewise combined the study of philosophy with that of theology. He was full professor at Basel and Königsberg from 1874 to 1875, since when he has been at Leipzig. His excellent work, *Die Lehre vom Logos in der griechischen Philosophie* (1872), had its origin in a union of both subjects. Many of the other publications of Heinze are devoted to Greek philosophy (for example, *Erkenntnislehre der Stoa*, 1880), but the modern field has also benefited by his careful researches, as is evidenced by his *Platner als Gegner Kants*, 1880; *Vorlesungen Kants über Metaphysik aus drei Semestern*, 1894. From the fact that Heinze revised, enlarged, and continued Überweg's *Grundriss der Geschichte der Philosophie* (now in its fifth and ninth editions, respectively), his name has become known and honored in wide circles.

Georg Freiherr von Hertling was born at Darmstadt on March 31, 1843. He has held a full professorship at Munich since 1882. He is a member of the Imperial Diet and one of the most prominent leaders of the Ultramontane party. He has especially advanced most effectively the history of philosophy in the Middle Ages, by publishing (with Klemens Bäumker in Strassburg) a periodical devoted exclusively to this phase of the subject, and by writing valuable monographs, as *Albertus Magnus* (1850) and *Augustin und der Untergang der antiken Kultur* (1902). He has appeared as an intelligent representative of teleological philosophy in his *Grenzen der mechanischen Naturerklärung* (1875). His important political and social activity is reflected in his *Naturrecht und Sozialpolitik* (1892) and *Das Prinzip des Katholizismus und die Wissenschaft* (1898).

Eduard Zeller, born at Kleinbottwar (Würtemberg) on January 22, 1814, originally a theologian, has occupied chairs at Bern, Marburg, Heidelberg, and Berlin (1872–94), but he is now living as an *emeritus* at Stuttgart. His comprehensive work on *Die Philosophie der Griechen* (1879, 6 vols.; now in its fifth edition) assures him for all time an honorable place in the history of science. His *Geschichte der deutschen Philosophie seit Leibnitz* (2d edition, 1875) is also widely read, and justly so. Of his monographs, those on *David Friedrich Strauss* (1874) and *Friedrich der Grosse als Philosoph* (1886) deserve special mention. In the political field, too, Zeller is no stranger, as is shown by his instructive volume on *Staat und Kirche* (1873). Attention should be called here above all to his treatise *Über Bedeutung und Aufgabe der Erkenntnistheorie* (1862; enlarged edition 1877), which has directed the attention of philosophers in a decidedly inspiring manner beyond the historical field, and opened up one of the most significant realms of activity in modern philosophy.

A comparison of modern philosophy with the earlier systems, at once reveals a complete absence of system in the former. The layman can scarcely

conceive of a philosopher except as a man who, in a professional way, as it were, has established a system of his own, that is, analyzed uniformly all the problems of existence thru comprehensive speculation, and solved them, at least to his own satisfaction. Such activity in speculation has become rare at the present day. Another form of energy reigns supreme in the philosophy of today, that of scientific self-knowledge. Taken as a whole, modern philosophy ought to be regarded as a grand science of self-knowledge rather than as the speculative development of systems, complete sketches of a bold cosmology.

The modern force of philosophic self-knowledge has created three mighty movements. One of these, which is devoted to the historical study of philosophy, has just been described. The fundamental scientific value of the great philosophical systems of earlier days is investigated, their ultimate motives are examined, in order that we, more critical than our predecessors, may realize the value and the validity of these motives. Among the important organs for this phase of the subject are the *Kant-Studien*, published by Hans Vaihinger, of the University of Halle. The second movement is known as epistemology. All philosophical epistemology signifies a self-consciousness, not reflected backward into the past, but concerned with the present state of the individual sciences. The various individual sciences are artificially developed methods of acquiring knowledge. The individual investigator, to be sure, handles the machinery of such a process in masterly fashion, but is seldom clear as to the principles involved. In order to master the latter, critical reflection is required, that is, a guiding back or turning back of one's thought to the validity and the scientific value of one's own laws of thought. Epistemology and philosophical criticism, which go back to Kant, represent this reflection. It is the science of all the laws of thought characteristic of the various sciences. As a theory of knowledge it investigates the validity and the conditions; as a critique of knowledge it examines the limits of the application of these laws of thought. One of the most important results which modern philosophical investigation has attained in this field is that the methods and laws of thought of the natural sciences have a different logical structure from those of the historical sciences. We should not, therefore, attempt to confuse the two; there is many an historical investigator who should take this fact to heart. Another important result is often forgotten by philosophical investigators in natural science, namely, that care must be taken not to treat the said laws of thought without further ado as metaphysical realities. The counters of the intellect, atoms, for example, are by no means keys to the universe.

Among the philosophers especially able in the critique of knowledge the following may be mentioned, without prejudice to the services of not a few others.

Paul Natorp, born at Düsseldorf on January 24, 1854, who has held a chair at Marburg since 1894, is a leader of Neo-Kantism, especially in the

field of the practical sciences. Since Kant not only raised the question of the validity and the limits of the theoretical sciences, but also classified the moral law under new points of view, it seems reasonable enough to make Kant's critique more and more productive in the realms of ethics, pedagogy, sociology, and religion. In addition to his interesting contributions to the history of philosophy and his clear introductions to psychology and logic, the following profound works of Natorp have been of value on this side of the subject: *Religion innerhalb der Grenzen der Humanität* (1894), *Pestalozzis Ideen über Arbeiterbildung und soziale Frage* (1894), *Sozialpädagogik* (1898; 2d edition, 1904). His voice has also been heard in connection with contemporary educational legislation; and it is hoped that his appeals may not fall on deaf ears.

Alois Riehl, born at Bozen (Tyrol) on April 27, 1844, who has held chairs at Graz (1878), Freiburg i. Br. (1882), Kiel (1896), Halle (1898), and Berlin (1905–), has furnished excellent contributions to the history of philosophy, as *Giordano Bruno* (1889), *Friedrich Nietzsche, der Künstler und der Denker* (1897), *Immanuel Kant* (1904), and *Helmholtz als Philosoph* (1904). His most important work, however, lies in the field of epistemological theory, *Der philosophische Kritizismus und seine Bedeutung für die positive Wissenschaft* (Vol. I: "Geschichte und Methode des philosophischen Kritizismus," 1876; Vol. II*a*: "Die sinnlichen und logischen Grundlagen der Erkenntnis," 1879; Vol. II*b*: "Zur Wissenschaftstheorie und Metaphysik, 1887). Riehl is opposed to regarding philosophy as the doctrine of the theory of the universe; according to him, it is the science and critique of knowledge. This, he claims, is the Kantian conception, and the only one in accordance with which it may be conceived of as a science. Then he presents another, a Platonic conception of philosophy, as the art of mental conduct or of the representation of values; as such it is not a science, he holds, but a form of life, similar and equivalent to art and religion. Riehl has developed similar ideas in his "*Zur Einführung in die Philosophie der Gegenwart*" (1902), which, written in a clear and logical style, soon passed into a second edition (1904).

Wilhelm Schuppe is another advocate of the movement toward epistemological theory, in support of which he has established an ingenious doctrine. He was born at Brieg on May 5, 1836, and has held a chair at the University of Greifswald since 1873. He calls his doctrine the philosophy of the immediately given or the "immanent philosophy," in the interests of which he publishes a special periodical. According to Schuppe there is no existence which is not consciousness or mental content of conscious egos. These individual consciousnesses, the egos, do not stand side by side as separated individuals, but they have one and the same "general consciousness" for a common basis. Whenever we experience and come to an understanding of a reality independent of ourselves, whenever we ascend to objective thought-contents and objective values, the element of the "general consciousness"

contained in our individual consciousness becomes active. The disciplines of logic, ethics, and jurisprudence embrace the things we experience by means of this superindividual consciousness, while psychology examines the individual moment in our conscious experience. Schuppe has written a number of textbooks from his profound view-point, among others *Erkenntnistheoretische Logik* (1878), *Grundzüge der Ethik und Rechtsphilosophie* (1881), *Der Begriff des subjektiven Rechts* (1887), and *Der Zusammenhang von Leib und Seele* (1902).

Wilhelm Windelband, born at Potsdam on May 11, 1848, has held chairs since 1875 at Zürich, Freiburg i. Br., and Strassburg, and is now at Heidelberg. He regards philosophy as the critical science of universal values: truth in thinking, goodness in volition and action, beauty in feeling. The manner in which Windelband draws the line between history and natural science is particularly significant. According to him the latter is a science of law, the former of reality. Everything real is individual and separate, without admitting of repetition. The science of history, he holds, is concerned expressly and exclusively with the conduct of these separate elements in the course of events from the standpoint of values. In the natural sciences, on the other hand, we are not concerned with individual experiences and their concrete results, but rather with the selection of general laws, which, to be sure, hold good for all real entities, but which are themselves independent of time and history. The significance of these view-points has been referred to above. Windelband has expressed it frequently, as in his *Präludien, Aufsätze und Reden zur Einleitung in die Philosophie* (1884; 2d edition, 1903), in the *Lehre vom Zufall* (1870), and in the essay, *Geschichte und Naturwissenschaft* (inaugural address as rector, 1894). Windelband has also done excellent service by publishing various general presentations of the history of philosophy. They are planned on the principle of furnishing a summary of the problems involved (*Geschichte der Philosophie*, 1893; 3d edition 1903). Such a problem Windelband has recently treated in a systematic manner in his work *Über Willensfreiheit* (1904). Finally, he is publishing in co-operation with several other scholars, an important series, "*Die Philosophie im Beginn des zwanzigsten Jahrhunderts.*"

The third great stream of philosophic self-knowledge is formed by the broadly specialized and fertile branch of study devoted to the investigation of our own psychic states. Not history of philosophy, not epistemology, but psychology is the shibboleth that unites the representatives of this third party of modern philosophers. There is no absolute agreement among them as to the object and the methods of psychological investigation. One investigator is attracted more by the specific manifestations of soul-life, another by its typical traits. The methods employed are still more at variance. The introspective psychologist regards inner conception and immediate analysis as the chief source of psychological knowledge, while the experimental psychologist lays the main stress on psychological tests. Not a few of the Ger-

man universities are supplied with psychological laboratories. Every other year the experimental psychologists hold a convention in Germany, at which the results of the numerous careful investigations are communicated and examined, all bearing testimony to a diligently conducted, comprehensive, and well-classified line of investigation, which has produced valuable results, as, for example, the accurate and interesting analyses of memory, of attention, etc. A few of the contemporary German psychologists may be mentioned here:

Franz Brentano, born at Marienberg, near Boppard on the Rhine, on January 16, 1838, is a leader of the introspective school. He was consecrated as a priest in 1864; eight years later he was appointed regular professor at Würzburg, but resigned in 1873 as an opponent of the Vatican. From 1874 to 1880 he held a chair at the University of Vienna, but withdrew from his academic position, this time in consequence of his marriage. He continued to lecture as a *Privatdozent*, and has been living in Florence since 1895 (*vide* his *Meine letzten Wünsche für Österreich* (1895), and *Zur eherechtlichen Frage in Österreich*). His chief works are his *Psychologie vom empirischen Standpunkt* (1874) and *Vom Ursprung sittlicher Erkenntnis* (1889), both containing a wealth of keen and thoro investigation. Our moral judgment, according to Brentano, does not depend upon arbitrary laws, but upon a peculiar activity of the emotions, the love or hate, respectively—"characterized as correct *per se*"—which all men possess by nature. Brentano possesses a tremendous influence because of his educational activity. Such leading scholars as Alexius Meinong and Karl Stumpf belong to his school, altho, to be sure, they have maintained their critical independence with reference to Brentano's special theories.

Alexius Meinong von Handschuchsheim, born at Lemberg on July 17, 1853, has served as full professor at Graz since 1886. Among Meinong's numerous publications there should be mentioned in the first place his splendid investigations in the field of the psychology of knowledge; these are his *Hume-Studien* (Vol. I, "Zur Geschichte und Kritik des modernen Nominalismus," 1877; Vol. II, "Zur Relationstheorie," 1882), *Über Gegenstände höherer Ordnung und deren Verhältnis zur inneren Wahrnehmung* (1899), *Über Annahmen* (1902), a work in which Meinong opens up and analyzes an entirely new field of facts of immense importance for the understanding of art and play; "*Über die Erfahrungsgrundlagen unseres Wissens*" (1906) in the *Abhandlungen über Didaktik und Philosophie der Naturwissenschaft* (No. VI). His *Psychologisch-ethische Untersuchungen zur Werttheorie* (1894) are devoted to the moral problem. The elementary moral functions he regards as "conceptions of value," which are invariably based upon a knowledge of the existence or non-existence of their object; for the expression of the activity of these conceptions, Meinong employs mathematical terms in an astonishing manner.

Karl Stumpf, born at Wiesentheid (Bavaria) on April 21, 1848, has occupied

chairs at Würtzburg, Prague, Halle, and Munich, but has been connected with the University of Berlin since 1894. The accuracy and clearness of his doctrines are reflected in his writings. He has given to psychology two of its chief works: *Über den psychologischen Ursprung der Raumvorstellungen* (1873) and *Tonpsychologie* (Vol. I, 1883; Vol. II, 1890). By means of the former he helped bring about the victory of psychological nativism, the doctrine that in the visual sensation we are immediately and originally conscious of spacial differences. The second work ranks worthily beside the famous writings of Helmholtz on our sense perceptions.

Wilhelm Dilthey, born at Biebrich on the Rhine on November 19, 1833, has served as full professor at Basel, Kiel, and Breslau, and, since 1882, at Berlin. Dilthey, like Windelband, emphasizes the peculiarity and independence of the mental sciences in contradistinction to the natural sciences, but he does it in a somewhat different manner. The basis of the mental sciences, in his opinion, is psychology—not one that works with hypotheses and is on the hunt for "explanations" of psychic life, but rather a descriptive and analytic psychology; not an intellectualistic but a voluntaristic psychology, in accordance with which, for instance, our conviction of external reality does not go back to logical operations, but to experiences of our volition (impulse, intention, resistance). He claims that the description and analysis of historical and social reality is no longer known as psychology, but that it *is* psychology and that it takes place in the mental sciences. Dilthey's best-known work is his *Einleitung in die Geisteswissenschaften, Versuch einer Grundlegung für das Studium der Gesellschaft und der Geschichte* (1883). His treatises in the reports of the sessions of the Berlin Academy of Sciences are no less fertile in comprehensive and valuable suggestions. (*Beiträge zum Studium der Individualität*, 1896; *Beiträge zur Lösung der Frage vom Ursprung unseres Glaubens an die Realität der Aussenwelt*, 1894, etc.) Dilthey also enjoys a well-deserved reputation as a historian. He is editing the first complete edition of the writings of Kant, which is being published under the auspices of the Berlin Royal Academy of Sciences. Among his own historical works, special attention is called to his biography of Schleiermacher (1870).

Theodor Lipps, born at Wallhalben (Palatinate) on July 28, 1851, full professor at Breslau (1890–94) and Munich (1894–), is in the first place an introspective psychologist, who has succeeded admirably in analyzing psychic phenomena clearly and sharply. Such an analysis of general psychic processes is given in his *Grundtatsachen des Seelenlebens* (1893) and in his *Leitfaden der Psychologie* (1903, and 1906). In the opinion of Lipps, psychology constitutes the starting-point also for logic and ethics, and in accordance with this view he has written his *Grundzüge der Logik* (1898), his striking *Ethische Grundfragen* (1899; 2d edition 1905) and numerous works on æsthetics (*Der Streit über die Tragödie*, 1891; *Komik und Humor*, 1898; *Ästhetische Faktoren der Raumanschauung*, 1891; *Ästhetik*, Vol. I, 1903). The method,

content, and comprehensiveness of these writings assure Lipps a place among our leading æstheticians.

Wilhelm Wundt, born at Neckarau (Baden) on August 16, 1832, full professor at Zürich in 1874, and at Leipzig since 1875, is—as the successor of Fechner—the co-founder of experimental psychology. He has completed and generalized the experimental methods of Fechner, which were confined to the measuring of degrees of sensation, and applied them to the whole field of psychic phenomena. For these studies he has arranged a laboratory at Leipzig which is provided with ingenious instruments of extreme delicacy, and which has become the model for all similar laboratories in the world, especially in the United States. The experimental method developed by Wundt has given a great impetus to the study of psychology; many questions have assumed an entirely new aspect; new disciplines of considerable practical value have been established, as experimental didactics and the psychology of evidence, which have thrown new light on pedagogical methods and legal proceedings, respectively. But Wundt has accomplished wonders not only in the psychology of the individual, to which his *Grundzüge der physiologischen Psychologie* (3 vols., 1874; 5th edition, 1902) is devoted; he has done pioneer work also in his *Völkerpsychologie* (Vol. I, "Die Sprache," 1900; 2d edition, 1904; Vol. II, "Der Mythos," 1905), in which he has treated the psychology of language, of religious conceptions, etc.; exhibiting tremendous grasp of endless material.

Wundt's importance extends beyond the psychological field. In his *Logik* (Vol. I, "Erkenntnislehre," 1880; Vol. II, "Methodenlehre," 1883), his *Ethik* (1886; 3d edition, 1903), and his *System der Philosophie* (1889; 2d edition, 1897), he advances step by step, always resting upon the foundation of exact science, to a compact idealistic philosophy. In this respect he appears at the same time as a representative of the fourth group of German philosophers.

The scholars mentioned above all agree in rejecting metaphysical tendencies. The antimetaphysical trend of Hume and Kant has not yet lost its influence, a trend which regards all metaphysical problems as mere illusions of human reasoning. In order, therefore, to escape the criticism of transgressing the bounds of knowledge, many modern philosophers have turned all the more eagerly to historical retrospect, epistemology, and psychological investigations. But metaphysical problems cannot be rejected as pseudo-problems; they possess an objective value which reacts upon the knowledge struggling with them, dispensing light and power, in the same way that every function develops thru employment and activity, whereas it languishes as a result of disuse. The philosophers still to be named combine a comprehensive survey of empirical actuality with a bold courage in metaphysical reasoning.

Thus the conception of will reigns supreme in Wilhelm Wundt's "actualistic" view of life. The will which, as apperception, acts also in all reasoning

and in feeling, is actuality, pure happening. To its pure causality, which is bound to no substance and to no "soul," the law of the equivalence of cause and effect, which is, in the material world, manifested in the law of the conservation of energy, does not apply. Spiritual life possesses the attribute of "creative synthesis" and continually increases in energy, in accordance with a "heterogeneity of aims," which is the fundamental form of all spiritual evolution. Whenever an aim is realized, unforeseen foundations and impulses for new aims are thereby created, so that the success of every actual endeavor is richer than the original motive. In the social communities of human beings a new energy of volition is manifested, a true common will, which unites all humanity in the conscious accomplishment of definite endeavors. All the wills of the entire world are united in the reality af a supreme common will, namely God.

Rudolf Eucken, born at Aurich on January 5, 1846, who has filled a chair at Jena since 1874, is a fervent supporter of an objective idealism. In his writings he strives after life and spirituality, which we hope they will arouse. Among his important works may be mentioned *Die Einheit des Geisteslebens* (1888), *Der Kampf um einen geistigen Lebensinhalt* (1896), *Der Wahrheitsgehalt der Religion* (1901; 2d edition, 1905). He has also published noteworthy historical works: *Geschichte der philosophischen Terminologie* (1879), *Die Lebensanschauungen der grossen Denker* (1890; 6th edition, 1905), *Thomas von Aquino und Kant, ein Kampf zweier Welten* (1901). Of great value, too, is his *Grundbegriffe der Gegenwart* (1878; 3d edition, 1904).

Eucken teaches that in all intellectual life, uniform and supercosmic associations are at work, which tend toward the formation of a "personal world." He regards intellectual life as higher than dead mechanism, something higher, too, than mere psychic vitality, just as personaltiy is more than individual existence or subjectivity. Personality, according to Eucken, is spiritualized individuality, and it becomes so thru the process of the "creation of entities." Whenever we become immersed in a spiritual content and the latter reacts upon us, the formation of real nature takes place, in the form of a double-sided development—of us thru spiritual content, and of spiritual content thru us. By means of the contact with the ideal object spiritual life arises within us, and thru the work of the soul the material is disclosed and developed. Worlds of the good and the beautiful and the true open up to sight and reveal to us supercosmic depths. This supercosmic character, however, can be maintained and carried out only if we connect all real spiritual life with God.

Among the metaphysicians may be found also the most renowned of the living non-academic philosophers of Germany, Eugen Dühring.

Eugen Dühring, born in Berlin on January 12, 1833, is a clear-sighted philosopher and spirited author, whose sad experiences embittered him against all academic philosophy. Altho he had become blind, he began to lecture with much success at the University of Berlin in 1863, but was deprived of

the privilege in 1877, because of the extravagant attacks upon Helmholtz included in the second edition of his *Kritische Geschichte der allgemeinen Prinzipien der Mechanik* (prize-essay, 1873; 3d edition, 1887). In this work he emphasized the prior claim of Robert Mayer to the discovery of the law of the conservation of energy, unjustly refusing to give Helmholtz any credit whatsoever. He also honored the highly gifted Heilbronn physician in a special work (*Robert Mayer, der Galilei des* 19. *Jahrhunderts*, Vol. I, 1880; 2d edition, 1903; Vol. II, 1895). Dühring is the author of mathematical, economic, and political (anti-Semitic) works; he has also labored in the field of the history of literature, as well as in that of philosophy. His most noteworthy philosophical publications are the following: *Natürliche Dialektik* (1865), *Der Wert des Lebens* (1865; 6th edition, 1902), *Ersatz der Religion* (1882; 2d edition, 1897), *Sache, Leben, und Feinde* (1882; 2d edition, 1903).

Dühring attacks the criticism which denies the knowability of being. Our understanding can grasp reality as it is, but in his opinion, it should rest content with the apprehended facts. He considers it foolish to attempt to "explain" them in the bargain. The perception of reality culminates in that of the all-embracing being, which in its self-sufficiency has nothing beside or above itself, yet is not infinite, but limited. Philosophy, according to Dühring, however, is not merely perception of reality. He conceives of it also as the representation of a sentiment directed toward a nobler humanity. This sentiment repudiates pessimism—for men should become better, in order to become happier—as well as egoism—for the happiness of the individual should be incuded in and made subservient to the general good.

In the above paragraphs I have attempted to describe the different tendencies of German philosophy by presenting the theories of a few, not all of its prominent representatives. In all philosophy, in the words of Eucken, there is a struggle for a spiritual life-content. It is a struggle against the naïve but bold dogmatism of materialism, which renders the spirit empty and the heart poor. Yet it is also a struggle waged by philosophic ideas with and against one another. Nietzsche once referred to the ideas that control man as spirits more beautiful than himself, as "invisible heralds of things to come." And similarly, another saying of Nietzsche may be applicable to our philosophers: "Inventors of images and spirits shall they become in their enmities, and with their images and spirits they shall some day fight the supreme fight against one another."

THE PAST AND THE FUTURE OF GERMAN EDUCATION[1]

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It seems appropriate to conclude this historical survey with a prophecy about the future. This must naturally be based upon a consideration of the

[1] Book IV, chap. iii, of *Das Deutsche Bildungswesen*, by special permission of the author translated by Professor Rudolf Tombo, Jr., Columbia University.

previous course of development, and I shall therefore emphasize once more the tendencies of the movement. I need scarcely point out that the element of absolute certainty will, as a matter of course, be absent from any predictions I may make: disturbing influences and destructive catastrophies are likely to occur and seriously obstruct or alter the path of development. Nevertheless it is true that the more universal tendencies of civilization are scarcely affected by the accidental interruptions of the external course of events. Historical progress, after all, is not determined by accidents, but rather by the conscious operation of vital forces. The idea acts as a hidden power of attraction and thus determines the direction of the development.

In looking back over the entire field, we observe that two general principles stand out quite prominently: on one hand, the constant tendency to secularize institutions of learning and to place them under the management of the state, and on the other hand, the continuous dissemination of systematic school training over ever-widening circles of the community, or, if I may use the term, the "democratization" of education.

The first of these tendencies, which we might call progressive declericalization, manifests itself first of all in external secularization, that is, the passing of the control of education from the church to the state. In the Middle Ages the entire educational system was vested in the church, while at the present day the state has assumed control everywhere, merely intrusting to the church, with a greater or smaller semblance of good-will, power of no definite extent, especially in the field of public education. The universities set the ball rolling in the Middle Ages, the higher schools followed their example after the Reformation—at first in Protestant territory—and during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries the public school has been passing more and more under the control of the state. The cause of this movement evidently lies in the general deterioration of the church, and in the advancement of the state as the ruling power in modern life. This circumstance again is intimately related to the tendencies of the western peoples to lay greater and greater emphasis in their mode of thought and feeling upon the life upon earth; the conception of the life hereafter is continually losing its force and its power of motivation, and as a result the influence of the church is waning.

The outward secularization of education has been accompanied by a transfer of instruction from the clergy to laymen. Teachers, from the university down to the common school, are no longer ecclesiastical officers. Secular sciences and arts constitute the major portion of the programs of study. The arrangement of instruction according to the doctrines of the church has disappeared. The universities were the first to discard the old system, the process taking place definitely and generally during the eighteenth century; prior to that time, at least the faculty of philosophy, in addition to the theological faculty, was effectively controlled by the ecclesiastical system of instruction. At the present day, even theology has become a science that measures truth by means of immanent standards, at least that is the case in the evan-

gelical church. Ecclesiastical organs are attempting to fetter investigation with dogma, but on the whole these efforts have not been successful, altho they have been effective now and then in specific instances. As far as the school is concerned, religious instruction under the control of the church has not been exterminated, to be sure, yet it has lost its power. Less than two hundred years ago the entire school system, private as well as public, was steeped in ecclesiastical matters and denominational instruction; since then, however, religion has come to be ranked with other subjects, no longer overshadowing them in importance. In many cases it is regarded as a subject in a class by itself; indeed, it is occasionally looked upon as an alien subject, one which has outlived its usefulness, which is in reality no longer compatible with the general structure, and the removal of which is accordingly only a question of time.

Such has been the trend in the past, and there is no reason to suppose that a retrograde movement will take place. Partial and temporary reactions are of course possible. The church has by no means renounced its right to control the schools; the Catholic church especially maintains its claims firmly, and, as is well known, when a claim is once advanced by this church, it is never receded from. As a matter of fact, we must confess that education really belongs to the field which the church regards, and cannot but regard, as its proper sphere, that is, to the field of the *cura animarum*, the guidance of the soul and of morals. It is, however, impossible to alter the received situation. The state will not surrender the right to regulate education after having once attained this right, and we must not forget that the assumption of the control of education by the state is largely due to the fault of the church, which since the close of the Middle Ages has been almost entirely a retarding factor in the development of culture. Besides, we cannot deny that education is too intimately associated with the enlarged purposes and tasks of the state for the latter to countenance a return from the new political to the old ecclesiastical order. Every modern civilized nation conceives as its mission the preservation and elevation of its people. From the political and economic, the intellectual and moral standpoints, indeed, a nation is nothing more than the organization of the people with this end in view. This being so, the state cannot be indifferent to the education of the rising generation, upon which the maintenance of all culture directly rests, nor can it assign the difficult task to a power not dependent upon it, in the belief and expectation that this power will perform the task as the state desires and will serve the state's ends. This is such a self-evident fact, that even the nations who had been longest indifferent to this problem of the political community, like England, for example, have begun during the generation just past to take a profound interest in the regulation and advancement of public education. It is safe to say that the recent successes of the German people have done much to convince other nations how important is a national system of education and training for the entire population, for the efficient self-development of the

people from the military and economic standpoints as well. The carelessness with which many nations have in times past intrusted education to the church or to self-regulation according to the law of supply and demand has been supplanted in all European countries and elsewhere by paternal solicitude on the part of the state for educational efficiency.

This movement will proceed without interruption to its ultimate results. Among these I may mention in the first place the absolute control of all school inspection by the state. I am convinced that the heritage of the ancient ecclesiastical authority in school affairs, in the form of clerical school inspection, will disappear before very long, since it is in all respects incompatible with the organization of the modern educational system. District-school inspection, especially, will soon pass out of the weak hands of the clergy. The task has become a great and difficult one, which demands the entire strength of competent professional officials. The teachers have been of this opinion for some time, and they regard the system of placing them under control of an alien calling as a slight upon their profession and their standing, especially in view of the fact that the clergy exercise this control, without any inherent reason, primarily as subsidiary to their real vocation. Every advance in the development of our educational system and our systems for the training of teachers renders the old order more impossible, and at the same time more unbearable from the personal standpoint. The clergy, too, have recently called public attention more than once, and in emphatic fashion, to the disadvantages of this condition. The same process will take place in local school inspection. There is no reason why a clergyman should not serve as local school-inspector when he possesses the necessary qualifications and the inclination, and when the community desires it, but there is no reason whatsoever why a clergyman not possessing the necessary qualifications should be called upon to fill a position in which he is not wanted. A hundred years ago, to be sure, there was some reason in appointing to the position of school-inspector the only highly educated person in the community, that is, the clergyman, but this one-sided condition has since been remedied, especially thru the development of the teaching profession itself.

I regard the separation of the ministry of education from the state administration of ecclesiastical policy as another consequence of the development. The latter department, in case it is not established as a separate ministry, might most appropriately be combined with the ministry of justice. If this were done, it would at the same time be made evident that it was not a question of church authority, of *jus in sacra*, but rather of the maintenance of the legal boundaries between church and state. The old connection really went back to the time of a national church.

The question may be asked: How will *religious instruction fare*—will it too be excluded from school in consequence of the new organization of education? The answer depends somewhat upon what we mean when we speak of religious instruction. If we mean instruction that aims to convince pupils

of the necessity of the confession, then I should, indeed, be inclined to say that it is just as incompatible with the character of the modern state as it is with the new school organization. There can be no doubt that this was its original intention, that this was the reason why the reformed churches, and later on in the sixteenth century the Catholic church also, introduced religious instruction, and, as a matter of fact, the necessity of this instruction is still maintained in some quarters. A half-century ago the teaching regulations still expressly prescribed instruction of this nature, and the more recent regulations nowhere disclaim it absolutely. Even at the present day it still lies at the basis, formally at least, of actual instruction and of school inspection, altho it is no longer emphasized so strongly. Such religious instruction undeniably belongs to the school of the past, to the school which attempted to be naught else but a nursery of the church, and under such circumstances a method of instruction which endeavored especially to establish the confession of the church as the absolute and exclusive truth was most appropriate. On the other hand, it is obviously incompatible with the modern public-school system, if for no other reason than the simple one that the state has no creed. The individual subjects belong to denominations of various sorts, but the modern state on general principles holds a neutral attitude toward them: it tolerates all, but appropriates none. Under these circumstances it is obviously paradoxical for the state to allow dogmatic religious instruction to be imparted under state supervision by state officials in public schools upon which attendance is compulsory. This leads to a rather curious condition, inasmuch as in one school Catholic theology, with its doctrine of the infallibility of the Pope, in another the Reformed or Lutheran catechism, with its absolute rejection of the papacy, is taught as the infallible truth, both under the same authority. Force of habit and a general disinclination to take these matters seriously have rendered us indifferent to the inherent contradiction. This comes to the surface whenever the relations between church and state are strained, as for example at the time of the *Kulturkampf*, when a bitter struggle took place over the religious instruction imparted by state officials by order of the state, but not approved by the church. The contradiction is felt on the other hand by the dissenters, who are forced to permit their children to receive dogmatic religious instruction opposed to their faith or their scientific convictions; and the number of these dissenters is undoubtedly far in excess of the figure given in the census statistics. Finally, the contradiction is felt most sharply by teachers who are dissenters at heart but who are forced to give religious instruction along the lines of a creed that is not their own. Fervent expression to this feeling is given in a memoir recently prepared by the teachers of Bremen and submitted to the officials of that city (1905). The contradiction is present; of that there is no doubt, and the time will come when it will no longer be tolerated, when the public school in our country also will abolish dogmatic denominational instruction, leaving the church to provide such instruction wherever the demand exists.

The above remarks do not, however, solve the problem of general religious instruction, at least in Protestant territory. An individual may assume whatever personal attitude he chooses toward religion, yet there is no denying the fact that religion has played an important, perhaps the most important, rôle in the historical development of mankind, and in spite of occasional reports of the disappearance of religion, it still constitutes a very significant element of our spiritual life. Its influence is visible at every stage: Christianity, Christian faith, and Christian philosophy penetrate all the vital interests of the western world like an omnipresent element. In art and poetry, in architecture and music, in philosophy and science, at every point we encounter Christianity as the great omnipresent vital force; even today every human being is constrained to define his position toward it, be it positive or negative: the very struggle waged against it is a tacit acknowledgment of its importance. And similarly, the political history of the nations of Europe has been influenced at every point by the religious question, from the conversion of the first king of the Franks, and the crowning of Charles the Great as Roman emperor, to the great conflicts between secular and clerical power that fill the pages of mediæval history; and again from the Reformation to the Revolution and the *Kulturkampf*, there is not a finger's breadth of historical soil that has not felt the influence of Christianity and the church. If now we admit that the school must familiarize the youth with the environment in which they are later to labor, and that man's most intimate and most real environment is history, and not nature, then there cannot be the shadow of a doubt that the school cannot and must not evade the task of familiarizing the young with the importance and significance of Christianity as an historical fact. A person who knows nothing of Christian faith and Christian ideals, of biblical and ecclesiastical history, would appear in history even at the present day like a deaf man at a concert; he would be without the key to the understanding of a very large share of the conduct and actions, the emotions and productions of humanity. Thus we see that the school must needs consider these things; it must consider them as facts, which, just like natural reality, are not primarily the subject of criticism, but rather of comprehension. It will thus be an essential and permanent task of the school—no matter whether we call it instruction in religion, or history of Christianity, or what not—not only casually to consider, say in connection with instruction in history, the great historical factor whose origin we can trace back 1900 years to the soil of the Hebrew nation and which has gradually spread over all portions of the earth, but also to impart, so far as possible, a connected impression of the subject.

In reality our religious instruction has long been tending in the direction of such treatment. All we need do is to point the moral, and we may say that, as matters stand at present, and in view of the character of our teachers and students, it is the task of the school to impart an historical knowledge of Christianity and its faith, its literary monuments and its vital forms, its growth

and its revolutions. To convince the young of the absolute truth of one set of doctrines or another is a task which exceeds the capacity and the mission of the school. Were we only to adopt this conclusion, we should above all attain one thing, namely, that our teachers could again discuss religious matters with good conscience. No doubt many teachers suffer at present under the burden of dogmatic religious instruction. This is especially true of Protestant teachers, in whose case the matter is always ultimately left to the individual conscience, whereas the Catholic teacher can find a way out by explaining that it is the church that expounds the doctrines. I realize that instruction shorn of all denominational tendencies would not lack internal and external difficulties, but it would serve as a great step away from a position that has become intolerable. Perhaps the return of frankness and impartiality in the treatment of religious material would bring with it a greater willingness and desire to include the subject in the course of study. It goes without saying that there is a wealth of wisdom and precept contained in the writings of the Old and New Testaments; indeed, the Bible is a universal book without compare in regard to content and form, and there is absolutely no collection of writings that is as valuable to the teacher in initiating the young into the understanding of moral and ethical questions.

I am quite certain that religious life will not suffer either when denominational instruction is abolished in the schools. Certain formulations of religious ideas as we find them in the large catechisms, as, for example, the doctrines of original sin and the forgiveness of sins, of God incarnate and the crucifixion, of salvation and atonement, faith and justification, will then be heard more seldom, but that would be no loss, since under the old scheme pupils discuss problems and events which, as a matter of fact, are incomprehensible and meaningless to children of their age, and which only lead to senseless repetitions—the death of religious sentiment. Religious living is inspired by the contemplation of pious lives, especially of those with which the young come into personal contact; and the instruction itself can be made effective only by presenting illustrations of pious lives borrowed from history and literature. For the moral training of youth, however, the effectiveness of biblical writings would not be felt until they were freed from the strictures of dogmatic interpretation, and treated as purely human records of human events. None but a prejudiced person will fail to realize that we cannot dispense with the Scriptures in the important branch of education which is concerned with the formation of moral concepts and indirectly of moral volition, nor can we substitute selections from the literatures of the world, as the Bremen school demands. The absolute value of the Scriptures, as well as their important historical continuity, will always retain for the Bible a unique place in our world.

By means of such an inner development of religious instruction, we should furthermore be preparing for the goal that seems to lie in the future of our people, namely, a universal interdenominational public school. The univer-

sal and systematic introduction of the so-called undenominational school (*Simultanschule*), which political parties are at present ardently advocating, I do not consider an ideal solution of the problem; at all events, it is an absolute impossibility at the present day. If forced upon certain portions of the community by law, it would lead to a bitter educational conflict, and a further consequence would be, in case the law could be made operative, that denominational private schools would arise beside the undenominational national school, especially in Catholic, and presumably also in Protestant, territory. And the ultimate consequence of such a movement, dictated, not by positive necessity, but by political doctrinarianism, would be not the desired obliteration of denominational contradictions, but rather their intensification and aggravation. On the other hand, if matters are allowed to develop in the direction suggested, which is indicated by the great historical movements, if biblical instruction is permitted to advance more and more at the cost of dogmatic denominational instruction, for which no legal measures are required, but merely a willingness on the part of the administrative authorities to satisfy proper demands, then the time will come when the school will be inwardly prepared for the final step, common biblical-historical instruction in Christianity for all denominations, to which may be joined special instruction on the part of the churches as a preparation for admission to active membership.

I realize fully that this prospect will be regarded by many as utopian, by opponents as well as by adherents of such a movement. Nevertheless, I am firmly convinced that future developments will tend in this direction. The very blending of denominations among our people, which is becoming more and more rapid, will help to accelerate the tendency; soon there will not be a city in the empire nor a large rural district, where Protestants and Catholics will not dwell side by side. The spread of interdenominational schools, at least of the association of children of different denominations in the same school, as well as the increase of mixed marriages, will inevitably result. The more frequently the people of different denominations intermingle, the more rapidly will the element of estrangement disappear; they will learn to know and understand one another, for these two things are synonymous here. And the development in this direction will be aided by another factor, namely, the advancing nationalization of the German people. There is no doubt that the national element, as opposed to the denominational, is gaining more and more in importance in the life and sentiments of the people. We must not be deceived by the seeming intensification of denominational contrasts in the nineteenth century, thru the sudden violent tension of the culture-conflict; that was nothing more than the final spark of an old hostility, brought about by clerical fear for the control of souls, and by political bungling. In reality the Lutherans of Hanover or Schleswig-Holstein and the Catholics of Bavaria were very much farther apart at the beginning of the nineteenth century, in spite of the peace in clerical circles, than they are after the rehabilitation of

the empire at the beginning of the twentieth century. And this development will continue; should the love the different sections of the empire bear one another not be strong enough to assure it, then the hatred of the surrounding peoples will accomplish what remains to be done to weld the Germans into a homogeneous nation.

Education, too, has long followed this course: the national element has made constant progress at the expense of the denominational. Whereas in the middle of the eighteenth century the old denominational school still existed in all its onesidedness, especially in Catholic territories, since that time the humanitarian influence, on one hand, and the national influence, on the other, have become more and more powerful in Germany, as well as in other countries. In the national schools of France the cult of the fatherland has to a certain extent replaced the clerical cult. Altho we have kept aloof more from such exaggerations, we have nevertheless assigned a very promising place to instruction in the language, literature, and history of our country. Our common schools have long since ceased to be denominational schools, so far as instruction is concerned; they are national schools, which, to be sure, allow for denominational differences. The same trend is visible in the position of our higher schools; while in the eighteenth century they were still entirely under the influence of the international Latinity and the denominations, they have become in the course of the nineteenth century more and more pronouncedly national schools, in which instruction in German forms the focus of the course of study. They have cast off during the nineteenth century, at least in all essentials, the formal denominational character, which in the eighteenth century still adhered to them as a matter of course, and they are now, for the most part, schools with religious equality, or interdenominational institutions.

It will, therefore, be perfectly safe for us to let the fruit mature; the elementary school will follow this course of its own accord.

To be sure, it will not follow the road of the "religionless" school, to which not a few evidently believe they are leading it when they passionately advocate the undenominational school (*Simultanschule*). The only way in which this could come about would be under the condition that the Christian peoples inclined to it of their own accord. I believe, however, that those who foresee this result are greatly mistaken. The human spirit will never find complete satisfaction in science—not in this world. This fact will become all the more pronounced as the attempts to force the mind toward faith and thoughts of the hereafter will cease. But if religion continues to remain a manifestation of the spiritual life of the great world, it will not disappear entirely from the small world of education. There are countries in which no other way was possible: in Catholic France, for example, governmental and national education could be secured only at the expense of the exclusion of the religious element. In Germany, however, I consider the step neither necessary nor possible. I consider it a fortunate condition of our development that we do

not have to pay this price for our national education, that our teachers may continue to impart instruction in religion and retain their hold upon the Bible: it is thus made possible for them to be "molders of youth" in the fullest sense of the term.

There is another effect of the secularization of education which I desire to discuss briefly, and that is the ever-increasing strictness of regulation, which has for some time been at work in the direction of a decrease in freedom and spontaneity. This results from the character of the state, which, in its origin, is concerned with regulations for the maintenance of justice and defense; in these fields strict and uniform law reigns supreme and behind it stands force. In the same measure in which the state has assumed control of the administration of culture, it has made itself felt in the field of education, where law and force are no longer unknown. The church, from the very nature of the case, founded as it is entirely upon faith, hope, and love, was always somewhat more reluctant to employ force; and besides it did not possess the means. The last great advances in school regulation were made in the nineteenth century. Prior to that time compulsion for the most part was concerned only with externals, as with the foundation of schools and attendance upon them, but during the last century, internal matters have become subject to rigid control. Educational manifestos, promulgated with legal sanction from a central bureau, began to prescribe in detail for each school the subjects of study and the course of instruction, the number of hours and the ground to be covered in each field. Offices were established for the specific purpose of enforcing the regulations by means of stated inspections and examinations. The control was gradually extended also to the method of instruction, and even to prescribed sentiments among teachers and pupils, especially as a consequence of party spirit. In this way a degree of constraint has made itself felt in educational matters, which violently limits the personal initiative of the teacher, who, in a particular case, acts not in accordance with what is possible and necessary, but rather in accordance with the regulations that happen to be in force. And these are not likely to be more acceptable because they change every ten or twenty years; on the contrary, arrangements of a permanent character come in time to be regarded as natural laws, whereas constant change is traced to mere chance and arbitrary substitution. There is no doubt of the fact that this restriction is in many cases felt as a heavy burden by teachers, especially by the most powerful and independent natures. And this burden is felt also by the pupils, especially in the highest grades of the *Gymnasium*, in which the pupils more advanced in age resist the continuation of the regular school discipline and mode of instruction, with their daily assignments and their control in all subjects. Much of the ruling dissatisfaction with present educational conditions, which frequently finds voice in violent, unjustified, and extravagant statements, may be traced back to these causes.

Perhaps we may now add that administrative authorities have never

understood this dissatisfaction so thoroly, or shown such a desire to remedy the evil, as the Prussian authorities do today. It is to be hoped that their endeavor to remove the grievance will be successful, more successful, at any rate, than L. Wiese's was fifty years ago, for he approached his task with the same understanding. These efforts are certain to be crowned with success if the energetic and consistent desires of the government are met half-way by the good-will and proper understanding of the other side, above all and primarily by the teachers—a desire for freedom united to self-discipline and a feeling of responsibility are a *sine qua non*. Then, if the officials will learn to respect every serious manifestation of good-will, and to treat it with care, or correct it with gentle hand whenever it seems to be steering a questionable or wrong course, we may be permitted to hope that bureaucratic methods and reluctance on the part of the pupils will gradually disappear to make way for joyous initiative on the part of both teacher and pupil.

To be sure, even then the school will not correspond to the ideal of the most recent group in pedagogical literature, which we might call the anarchistic group; it will never be able to satisfy the demand to abolish all compulsion, and not only all compulsion, but also all strict order, and with it all required studies, by making instruction dependent upon the particular inclination of the pupil. The preceptor and teacher should by all means listen to the longings concealed in the breast of the child and pupil, and endeavor to fathom his soul; but that is not synonymous with abandoning all firm guidance; indeed, we may say that the child and pupil thoroly appreciates a firm guiding hand which teaches him gradually to become master of his vacillating inclinations and impulses, to acquire a will, and to develop into a personality. A good regimen, for which we pray in Luther's fourth supplication, is what in youth we can spare least of all, and we are never more contented, than when we are assured of strong guidance. A good regimen is of course not a harsh and pedantic or even an ill-tempered and angry one, but one which leads to the goal with strength and a firm will, to the goal which the one governed really wishes to reach. The pedagogical anarchism to which I referred above is nothing more than the natural reaction against exaggerated bureaucracy; but the reactionary movement is itself unduly exaggerated, as well as unsound. When in this age of neurasthenic authorship the movement seeks expression in mad clamors, as has happened here and there, it merely compromises, just as political anarchism does, efforts that are in themselves sound and essential. Freedom has no worse enemy than anarchy

As a second tendency beside the continuous secularization of the school and of education, we notice the unceasing advancement in the dissemination of education over ever-widening circles of the population, what we might call the continuous "democratization" of education, going hand in hand with an increasing "socialization" of educational provisions.

This development may be traced as follows: During the Middle Ages there were public institutions of learning only for the highest class, namely,

the clerical, and the prevalent educational ideal was accordingly a clerical one. With the Renaissance and the Reformation, the lower classes began to participate in the movement. After the universities had, even in the second half of the Middle Ages, loosened the old constraint of purely clerical education, nobles and citizens began to an increasing extent to assume control of education and the means of education. First an aristocratic educational ideal, prepared for in the Renaissance, lent its character to the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries; the secular nobles determined the type of aristocratic education. Since the age of enlightenment and neo-humanism, toward the close of the eighteenth century, the citizen classes have assumed control, and during the nineteenth century these determined the character of the reigning educational ideal, namely, that of Hellenizing humanism. In addition, the masses had gradually begun to take an interest in education and the means of education: reading and writing had become more and more common since the sixteenth century; during the nineteenth century the old purely clerical character of the common school also was gradually transformed along the lines of the humanistic-civil ideal. If we pursue the lines of the previous development farther, the twentieth century would bring a universal education of the people, in which the lowest class, too, the great mass of population, would have full share, thus realizing Fichte's ideal of a national education which does not recognize any οἱ πολλοί. The goal would not be equality of education for all, but participation of all classes of the people, each according to power and opportunity, in a uniform, popular, intellectual culture, accessible to all.

I wish to point out a few tendencies which aim at progress along this line. The last generation has brought us visibly nearer, not to the uniform school, but to a uniform national-school system. The old dividing line between the education of scholars and that of the people is being eliminated from both sides. The *Gymnasium* has long since lost the characteristics of the old Latin school, a school in which the Latin language was dominant from the very beginning and the German language was proscribed. With the abolition of the Latin essay it has also abandoned the fiction, long extant, that the world of scholarship writes and speaks a language different from that of the people. The physician, the juror, the pastor, the teacher, the scholar, no longer affect a peculiar vehicle of expression, as was still the case a few generations ago; all citizens speak and write the same language. Indeed, students who do not know any Latin at all are beginning to attend the universities. The advance of the new form of *Reformgymnasium* also tends in this direction, inasmuch as Latin, which was formerly begun in the sixth year, is now postponed to the twelfth, whereby much room is gained for a common foundation.

From the other side, the common school is reaching out toward the higher school. The raising of the standard of the course facilitates advancement to the intermediate school and the higher-grade school, and thru the *Ober-*

realschule to the university. The incorporation of a foreign language in the course of study in the normal schools for public-school teachers shows that, in view of the increasing intensity of trade, instruction in a foreign language is considered a task also for the upper grades of the advanced public schools of the large cities, especially the coast cities and commercial cities. We are thus likewise approaching a more uniform class of teachers, as has already been shown. While at the present time the difference between the teacher who has received a normal education and the one who has received an academic education is now and again emphasized with some degree of sharpness, there is no doubt of the fact that, so far as preparation is concerned, the two classes have approached each other considerably during the past century. The teachers who graduate from the new normal schools of 1901 will possess such a splendid scientific preparation, that no higher-grade school, even if it takes to itself the title of *Realschule* as a part of the system of higher education, need be ashamed of them. Thru an increase in university attendance, by means of common courses and conferences, presumably at some time, too, by means of the establishment of a uniform central school-board, we shall further approach the goal of a uniform national teaching force, not divided by all manner of rents and fissures.

There is another universal tendency working toward an internal assimilation of the separate spheres of education which I wish to point out, and that is the realistic feature that pervades the entire educational system of the present, and that draws it to reality, to work, to action. In the upper spheres, the old purely æsthetic-literary education, in vogue a century ago, which entered the *Gymnasium* in the form of Hellenistic classicism, has been dying out; reality has progressed in the world of thought at the expense of the classical world of fancy. As a matter of fact, classical philology itself has become more realistic: it seeks and observes in antiquity historical reality, with its limitations and its shadows, in the place of the old ideal picture of humanity. Mere appearance has lost in value everywhere, and nowhere, perhaps, is this more strikingly evident than in the education of women. A different type of woman is arising, whose characteristics are no longer æsthetic sentimentality and beautiful *Schwärmerei*, but clear, resolute bearing and serious professional occupation. It has begun to transform the system of education for women; in school the sciences are advancing at the expense of instruction in languages and literatures, and to this is added a special preparation for some future profession. The same tendency has for a long time been visible in the development of boys' schools; a realistic educational system has come to be recognized beside the old literary higher school, and there is no doubt that in the coming years the former will develop at the expense of the latter. In the same way the technological schools have become rivals of the universities, which have themselves, during the century just ended, passed thru a tremendous change in favor of realism. And everywhere, from the university down to the public school, a corresponding change is taking place in the

method of instruction, that is, a change from mere literary book-learning to the immediate comprehension and employment of reality. Independent research and experimentation in the scientific and medical faculties of our universities have gradually replaced the old type of teaching and learning by means of textbooks and lectures. The same movement is going on in the lower schools and will increase in force and volume. The United States and England have preceded us in the establishment of school laboratories and school workshops, and the pupils, even in the public schools, are thus led to independent observation and action. In consequence of this we experience a certain leveling of educational differences. There is no doubt of the fact that these differences are less strongly accentuated in the case of a realistic-technical course than in the case of an æsthetic-literary course. Educational pride especially thrives much better on the soil of æstheticism, of book knowledge and linguistic knowledge, than on the soil of the natural sciences and technology. People who never learn to understand and appreciate one another thru the medium of mere conversation will do so when they work side by side. Real educational snobbishness has been to this day the privilege of the philologists. The spread of gymnastics and sports is working toward the same goal. When every city and every village possesses an athletic field, where the young can measure their strength, then this too will act as a common rallying-point for those who were separated by the old system.

Finally, I wish to call attention to an effort which has recently asserted itself with some measure of success, namely, the striving once more to bring the people and art together—for they belong together. Art is the universal language of the soul, rather than science, which always becomes exclusive at a certain point. Art itself is assisting in the *rapprochement*. If you place the work of two artists like Thorwaldsen and Constantin Meunier side by side, you will realize at once how even sculpture, the most reserved of all arts, is getting closer to the people; in the works of Thorwaldsen we have a representation of grace and of play based upon Olympic mythology, while in those of Meunier we get a reproduction of vigor and labor, growing from the intimate life of the people and readily intelligible to everybody. And so we may safely say that everything which serves to encourage the artistic sense and æsthetic appreciation among the great masses of the population, tends at the same time to remove the differences in education. In this connection the development of the natural impulse to reproduce the form of objects especially deserves every encouragement. The old schematic geometric drawing succeeded not seldom in destroying this impulse instead of encouraging it; whereas we may expect that the new method, which proceeds from objects actually seen, will maintain and encourage the joy in observation and reproduction. At the same time, such a scheme of instruction in drawing, which of course includes the study and use of color, will prove an effective aid in the direction of the same realism to which reference has been made above. It leads school and pupils from the book to the objects themselves, from book

knowledge, acquired by rule, to a sense of initiative in observation and execution. At the same time this method bears a direct relation to subsequent practical employment in the solution of many vital problems in every trade and every art; and continued thru all kinds of academies and extension classes, there is no reason in the world why it should not become an important life-interest for all classes of the population.[1]

This movement from above is aided by an eager striving from below. There has never been a time when the mass of the population has been imbued with such a thirst for education as that shown at the present day. Connected with this condition is the fact that there has never been a period in which the individual has been offered better opportunities to rise to higher positions and more extensive activities. The elasticity and optimism of the New World beyond the ocean, which offers to everyone—irrespective of birth and origin—who is willing and able to work, an opportunity to employ his powers, is imparting an invigorating influence upon the Old World, since the way to the new lies always open. And why should not a new world grow up also on the soil of the old? We may blame the workingmen's movement, which is so powerful in these days, for many things; we may reproach it for the indifferent attitude it maintains toward the nation—which, in my opinion, would, if it ever came to the point, prove to be nothing more than a baseless charge raised against it by hostile parties—for the bitterness of its polemics, and for the carelessness of its dispositions for the future, but in spite of all this, it signifies a great upward movement: the masses have been aroused from their dull existence made up of work performed with apathy and mere sensual enjoyment. An idea of the future has been awakened in them and draws all powers into its service. A wealth of living interests has thereby been liberated; nature and history speak to men who have a question—the question of the future—to put to them. An extensive literature in the form of books and magazines has arisen, which imbues all objects with this new idea. This class of literature may stray very far from scientific accuracy and critical refinement, even from the truth itself, but it possesses one advantage: it is read, studied, imbibed with passionate eagerness; indeed, it is this class of writings which has made readers of the masses. And furthermore, I am convinced that the new labor movement has also liberated moral forces, forces of self-control and of self-discipline, of devotion and of personal sacrifice for a cause. No matter whether the cause *per se* be good and possible, these moral forces will retain their value and will not be lost. Perhaps here too we may have a repetition of the old experience: we go out to seek a realm of dreams and find a real world. Perhaps the Utopia of the social democrats may not be found in this world, but if the search for it furnish new ideals and new powers to our society, which is apparently unable to emerge from the baneful influence of mere tradition, it will have fulfilled its destiny.

[1] I would refer the reader to the beautiful work of Kerschensteiner (of the Munich board of education), *Die Entwickelung der zeichnerischen Begabung* (1905). It shows how instruction in drawing may become an important aid in leading children to the objects themselves, and in developing the productive faculties.

To sum up: there is no phase of historical life more likely to make one optimistic for the future than the history of education. Thru all the external changes in the fates of nations, an idea seems to have been maintained and preserved here which is closely bound up with the destiny of our race, the idea of humanity, which in the course of time and in the multiplicity of nations is developing more and more. In the field of education, peaceful emulation and hospitable exchange are taking place among nations that compete with one another for wealth and power and that wage war among themselves. The right of hospitality of institutions of learning is as old as the nations themselves. Upon the same soil, too, harmony, understanding, and confidence will thrive among social classes which are hostile to one another in their political and social life. There is no more beautiful hope than that those who have been estranged may be reunited thru mutual giving and taking.

And this would be the ideal of a truly national education: not equality in the education of all, but—upon the basis of a uniform education of the people, which itself would constitute a link in the chain of the education of humanity—a maximum of individual accomplishment in the infinite variety of tasks, powers, and endowments which creative nature brings forth. And the ideal of a national system of education would be that every individual would be given an opportunity to develop himself to a maximum of personal culture and social efficiency according to his gifts and his determination.

AGRICULTURAL INSTRUCTION IN THE KINGDOM OF HUNGARY

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A century and a half ago agriculture in Hungary was in a primitive stage. Pastural areas and plowed fields lay dormant. Cattle-raising was discontinued in consequence of almost two hundred years of Turkish rule. Centuries of war—the Hungarian nation being the buffer state for the European civilization—had depopulated the country and impoverished the people; and the wounds inflicted healed very slowly.

The great stretches of pasture land made the raising of domestic animals the only profitable branch of farming; and therefore the greatest attention was paid to the increase of live stock, both by the large land-owner and the farmer. For the raising of grain and of other commercial products but a restricted area was available, and this only in the valleys in the neighborhood of navigable streams, since in the remaining parts of the country the cost of transportation to the centers of consumption considerably exceeded the value of the field products. It followed that their production was restricted to domestic needs.

Later, two movements put an end to this condition of affairs: the one was the establishment of stud stables, for the improvement of the breed of horses,

[1] Announcement of the death of Monsieur Béla Tormay de Náduvar at Budapest on December 29, 1906, has been received. (Editor).

under auspices at first military, later agricultural; the other was the introduction of Merino sheep.

By means of the stables, the standard of horse-flesh was vastly improved. Thru the rapid increase in Merino herds agricultural activity was forced into certain new but highly profitable channels. Fodder-raising was inaugurated on the larger landed estates; and here and there the more intelligent agricultural specialists found employment. In a few quarters a demand arose for skilled sheep-raisers and overseers of farm hands.

It is noteworthy that the first efforts were not directed toward producing trained specialists in agriculture, but Hungary's first concern was to elevate and improve the condition of the rural population in the direction of developing good farm overseers for the larger estates, and of instilling in the minds of the serfs an ambition for better management of their holdings.

The cause for the slow development of agricultural schools whose curriculum embraced the application of science to agricultural methods was that the land-owners did not yet comprehend the utility of this class of institutions, and because the state, or the "Gubernium" of that time, encountered no demand from any quarter for the founding of such expensive establishments.

The first agricultural school in Hungary was founded by a pastor, Samuel Tessedik by name, in the year 1779, in Szarvas, which soon gained a high reputation. Tessedik was also the one who introduced alfalfa into Hungary and induced its adoption and cultivation thru his pupils.

In the last decade of the eighteenth century a new and energetic champion appeared to advocate giving his country scientifically trained agriculturalists, and thru them to bring about the cultivation of the spirit of investigation in Hungarian agricultural life. This extensive and prominent land-owner and patriot was the late Count George Festetics.

Count Festetics was the first to undertake the special training in agricultural branches of men whom he had engaged on his teaching force, and who had already acquired a reputation in their specialties. He sent them to Italy to study irrigation; to France to study viticulture; to England to study cattle-raising. He engaged the best obtainable botanist, a prominent zoölogist, etc.

After sending out the teaching force, he began the erection of the buildings for an admirable agricultural school. The adjoining farm constituted a supplement to the school buildings. Thus the first higher agricultural school of Hungary was opened.

Count Festetics furnished his school in Keszthely, which was called the Georgikon, with all necessary and obtainable appliances for instruction and experiment, and combated with energy and success the many who opposed his plans. He and his descendants defrayed all the expenses of this institution up to the year 1848.

In that year began the struggle for liberty in Hungary. The entire youth

of the Georgikon enlisted under the tricolor to stake blood and life *pro patria*. The institution, from lack of pupils, had to be closed.

In the year 1799 the late Cristof Valko erected on his beautiful estate in Szent Niklos a second agricultural school, with the sole purpose, originally, of training skilled farm laborers for his own estate. For fully nineteen years after this no further steps were taken by anyone in this direction. Then, in the year 1818, Archduke Albert Kasimir founded another agricultural institution upon his large estate at Magyar Ovár, which exercised a widespread and lasting influence upon the development of agriculture in the monarchy.

At the close of the great European wars, in the third decade of the nineteenth century, there began a greater activity in the industrial life of all of western Europe, and more especially in that of Hungary. Foremost in all this must be mentioned the labors of the great Stefan Széchényi. He brought life into the problem. He founded the Academy of Sciences at the cost of great personal self-sacrifice; and later was the father of the first steamship company which possessed itself of the control of the navigable waterways. As a result of his efforts governmental regulation of rivers and streams followed. He built the first steam mill, and thereby laid the foundation of the present milling industry in Hungary. Thru his instrumentality dikes were built, resulting in the reclamation of vast tracts of inundated land which had hitherto been useless, and grazing came to be of secondary importance. Grain-raising slowly became the prominent factor; and this, together with the coincident construction of the first railroad, marked another epoch in the agricultural history of Hungary.

Then came the struggle for freedom in 1848, already mentioned. At a stroke the serf became a freeholder of his land. Compulsory service and titles ceased. The lord of the manor of his own volition gave up his rights, and found himself no longer with serfs to work his estate. In order to make a living it became imperative for him to abandon the old industrial methods; and, because he possessed no capital with which to work "intensively," he took up the then very profitable occupation of distilling grain and the manufacture of wine, and carried on a temporarily profitable retail liquor business. Grazing was crowded out by wheat-raising, the cattle-raising industry again shrank considerably, and the equilibrium of the industrial forces became again greatly disturbed.

A recovery in the sixties followed the depression consequent on the reign of terror which was maintained thruout the fifties. Many agriculturists recognized that wine manufacture and grain-raising alone would lead to no very profitable or desirable results; there was a recognized need of intelligent men thoroly trained in special lines of agriculture. The first step in this revival was the founding of two agricultural schools. And, first, in Keszthely, a new school arose from the ashes of the Georgikon. These two new institutions—the second located beyond Koenigsteig—were very quickly succeeded

by two others: one in the Hungarian lowlands, at Debreczen, the other in the upper Hungarian mountain region, at Kassa. Further, in various sections of the country, nineteen schools of husbandry were shortly established.

At that time, then, there were to be found in Hungary (1) an academy in Magyar Ovár; (2) four agricultural institutions; and (3) nineteen schools of husbandry. Of these, thirteen were supported by the state, Count M. Eszterhazy bore the total expenses of one, two were aided by the state, and three were communal, i. e., supported by their respective districts.

Later, it became more and more apparent that, in view of the subjects to be mastered, the length of the course in the academy (two years) was too short and that the preparation required in the common-school course for admission to the agricultural institutions had been set too low. The academy could not accommodate the great numbers who reported for admission, and consequently students possessing the required maturity and preparation for admission to the university were enrolled in increasingly large numbers in the "agricultural institutions." These conditions induced the present minister of agriculture, Darányi, to remodel the higher courses of instruction. The agricultural institutes were raised to the rank of academies. The length of the course in all five was made three years, and admission to the academies is now permitted only to those ready to enter the university. Well-to-do agriculturists desiring to acquire scientific training in particular directions are permitted to enter on payment of tuition fees.

Connected with three academies are dormitories in which students may obtain room, board, heat, and light at a cost of forty kronen per month. Tuition, matriculation fee, and use of library cost fifty kronen per semester. Each academy has an experiment farm of 300 to 700 acres. On these experiment farms tillage, all branches of cattle-raising, horticulture, and viticulture are carried on. There is also a course in forestry. The method of instruction in all practical branches is concrete, and the lectures are always combined with practical and experimental demonstrations. The quizzes are obligatory. The final examinations are only on distinctly agricultural subjects. After successfully passing the final examinations the student receives his diploma.

Two decades ago experimental methods were not much in vogue and were subordinated to class instruction; but step by step they pressed into the foreground, becoming co-ordinated with class instruction, and now proceeding hand in hand with it. With each academy experiment stations are now established; there are likewise stations for plant culture, for agricultural chemistry and seed development, as well as phyto-pathological stations. For studying tobacco culture there is a separate large station connected with the academy at Debreczen, with two substations. In the chemical-experiment stations as well as the seed-development stations investigations, tests, and experiments for farmers are made free of cost. In the laboratories the students of the academies receive the necessary instruction. The results of investigation are added to the material for instruction, and are also published

in periodically printed pamphlets. With each of the five academies a "consulting board" is connected. This board gives advice to farmers on request, and works out or approves farming plans on any scale. The expense incurred in this direction is met by the state. If journeys are necessary, the cost of such is paid by the farmer benefited, who is instructed on the spot.

In connection with the agricultural instruction offered, there is also the school of veterinary medicine in which the subject of cattle-raising is treated on a broad basis: six semesters (of the prescribed eight semesters) are devoted to zoötechnique; and for the necessary practical training students spend a considerable time at the state's expense at the large state farms on which the state maintains stables in which all branches of breeding are carried on.

Classifying the foregoing statements, agricultural instruction in Hungary may be summarized as follows:

The methods pursued in agricultural instruction may be divided into the "direct" method and the "indirect" method. "Direct" instruction is given at the five agricultural academies to young men ripe for the university, along the lines of natural science and practical demonstration.

In the schools of husbandry the sons of small land-owners receive their education. The schools of husbandry, altho they are of secondary rank, are all supplied with suitable material for instruction. In these schools it is intended to train small farm-owners and overseers for larger estates. The primary object in view in these schools is thoroly to accustom the student to the familiar use of farm implements and machinery; to show him the possibilities of dairying; and to develop a skilful and practical applicability in all farm work. The teaching is practical. The course in theory is restricted principally to elementary subjects and to the elucidation of the tasks and branches of production connected with a farm. The hours of theoretical instruction come early in the morning and in the evening after completion of the farm labors, and on days when the weather does not permit outdoor work.

To the schools of husbandry such young people (sons of farmers and of agricultural laborers) are admitted as have completed the elementary branches of instruction in the people's schools (Volksschulen), are at least seventeen years of age, and have strong and healthy bodies. The course in these schools extends over two years. All are supplied with dormitories in which students live at such a cost as to enable them to lay aside some part of their earnings accruing to them from their labor. Tuition pupils are charged twenty-five kronen per month as their total living expenses.

For those desirous of taking up individual branches of agricultural practice, such as dairying, chicken-raising (both also for young women), bee culture, horticulture, and viticulture, there exist separate schools maintained by the state. Forestry is taught in the academy at Selmeczbinya; there are also gamekeeper's schools.

In view of the unmethodical methods of agriculture practiced in many parts of the country by the small land-owner, and for many other important

reasons, "indirect" agricultural instruction is of far-reaching significance and results. This form of instruction embraces first of all the normal schools for teachers. At these schools there are able and cultured faculties who train their pupils (the future common-school teachers) in the encyclopedia of agriculture. Following these, indirect instruction extends to the people's school teachers whose field of action is the graded schools of the villages. For these teachers separate courses of instruction in the schools of husbandry as well as in the horticultural schools are given annually, at which the teachers are received upon the nomination of the minister of public instruction. They live in the dormitories of the schools, and, in addition to theoretical instruction, they are drilled in practical exercises. The total expenses for board, traveling, and excursions are met by the state. In these courses 400 to 500 village school teachers participate annually.

Still another method of instruction is carried on in the public schools, and that largely by means of itinerant schools. This branch of the agricultural educational field receives the most liberal support from the minister of education. Agricultural societies and certain communities inaugurate the instruction, in which the methods most suitable to the particular locality are taught, and complete courses in agricultural domestic economy are also offered. Those co-operating in the above instruction are traveling teachers (institute conductors); teachers in the schools of husbandry; those who are engaged in teaching in normal schools; teachers in the *Volksschulen* who are fitted for this work; veterinary surgeons; and specially trained agriculturists who are best able to meet the local needs. In the domestic industries the teaching is done by skilled workmen. In these institutes instruction is given during the winter months, and also by means of Sunday lectures in summer, all of which may be attended by men and women alike. The teachers of the *Volksschulen*, as well as the students in normal schools, are supplied with textbooks without charge by the ministry of agriculture. The teachers who co-operate in the winter itinerant schools distribute printed matter, written in a popular style, relating to various agricultural questions which interest the locality. This instruction is either maintained entirely or supported in part by the ministry of agriculture.

The members of the courses on domestic economy frequently combine to form societies which, during the winter months, carry on studies of the subject in which instruction has been given, in its application to trade or industry. The attendance at the several schools is as follows:

Veterinary high school	389	
Agricultural academies	316	
Special higher schools	443	
Total receiving higher instruction		1148
Special instruction in individual branches	618	
Schools of husbandry	510	
Total in special schools		1128
Total receiving direct instruction		2276

Indirect instruction:	
Attending winter courses	2,676
Attending courses for domestic industry	6,002
Attending lectures of traveling teachers	126,420
Total receiving indirect instruction	135,098

The expenses which the state incurs for agricultural instruction (exclusive of forestry instruction and training of "meadow masters") are as follows:

	Expenses	Incomes	Excess of Expenses
For veterinary high school	564,348 K.	55,200 K.	509,148 K.
For agricultural academies	1,501,524 K.	356,978 K.	1,144,546 K.
For schools of husbandry	1,607,225 K.	340,324 K.	1,266,901 K.
For indirect instruction	434,200 K.	9,200 K.	425,000 K.
	4,107,297 K.	761,702 K.	3,345,595 K.

This, in brief, is a sketch of the system of agricultural instruction in force in Hungary, at the present time. In this chain, according to the view of many agriculturists, there is still lacking one link, and that is the training on a broad scientific basis, of the teaching force and the specialists who will be called to work in the academies and experiment stations. Whether this link should be supplied by an independent school; whether it should be added to the university course; or whether an agricultural high school may be united with the existing veterinary high school, are questions for the future.

HISTORICAL CHAPTER

I. EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS

ORIGIN OF FREE SCHOOLS IN THE AMERICAN COLONIES

The following account of associated effort in the establishment of free schools is quoted from Barnard's *American Journal of Education*, Vol. XVI (1866), pp. 311–12:

The history of associations for the establishment of schools and the advancement of education in this country—or the assent of several persons to a common method of accomplishing a specific educational purpose—begins with a subscription commenced by the Chaplain of the Royal James (Rev. M. Copeland), on her arrival from the East Indies, in 1621, towards the erection of a Free School—or an endowed Grammar School, in Charles City, Va. The first school in New England was probably started in the same way—that is, by a subscription by the "richer inhabitants of the town of Boston on the 22d of August, 1636," "towards the maintenance of a free schoolmaster for the youth with us." The *free schools* in Roxburie, designated by Cotton Mather as the *Schola illustris*, was established by an agreement or association of a portion of the inhabitants who joined in an act or agreement binding the subscribers and their estates to the extent of their subscription, "to erect a free schoole" "for the education of their children in Literature to fit them for the publicke service both in Churche and Commonwealthe in succeeding ages." Nearly all that class of schools now known as Grammar Schools, Academies, and Seminaries, except the Town, or Public High Schools, were originally established on the principle of association. So was it with nearly every College in the country. The ten persons selected by the synod of the churches in Connecticut in 1698 from the principal ministers of the Colony to found, erect, and govern a "School of the Church," met and formed themselves into a society and agreed to found a college in the Colony; and for this purpose each of the Trustees at a subsequent meeting brought a number of books and presented them to the association, using words to this effect, as he laid them on the table: "I give these books for founding a college in Connecticut," "wherein," as afterwards declared, "youth shall be instructed in all parts of learning to qualify them for public employment in church and civil state."

Although the Common School generally was established by act of legislation—as in Connecticut and Massachusetts—to exclude from every family that "barbarism as would allow in its midst a single child unable to read the Holy Word of God and the good laws of the Colony," those of Philadelphia and New York originated in voluntary associations of benevolent and patriotic individuals.

All of those educational enterprises, in which the religious element constitutes the leading object, such as the Sunday-School, the publication and dissemination of the Bible and religious books, have been carried on through voluntary associations.

The earliest movement for the advancement of education generally in the United States, thru an association, originated in Boston in 1826, but did not take shape till some years later, although the object was partially attained thru the agency of Lyceums, which were established for other purposes as well, in the same year. In the lectures and other exercises of the Lyceum, wherever established, the condition and improvement of schools—the school-house, studies, books, apparatus, methods of instruction and discipline, the

professional training of teachers, and the whole field of school legislation and administration, were fully and widely discussed.

Out of the popular agitation already begun, but fostered by the Lyceum movement, originated, about 1830, many special school conventions and associations for the advancement of education, especially in public schools. Most of these associations, having accomplished their purpose as a sort of scaffolding for the building-up of a better public opinion, and of a better system of school legislation, have given way to new organizations founded on the same principle of the assent of many individuals to a common method of accomplishing special purposes.

The following descriptions of "Home and School Training" about 1776, in two typical sections of the country, characterize the educational forces and methods of that time before the school had become the leading factor in education.

HOME AND SCHOOL TRAINING IN NEW ENGLAND IN THE COLONIAL PERIOD

REVEREND DR. THOMAS BRAINERD, OLD HADDAM, CONN.[1]

A boy was early taught a profound respect for his parents, teachers, and guardians, and implicit, prompt obedience. If he undertook to rebel, "his will was broken" by persistent and adequate punishment. He was accustomed every morning and evening to bow at the family altar; and the Bible was his ordinary reading-book in school. He was never allowed to close his eyes in sleep without prayer on his pillow. At a sufficient age, no caprice, slight illness, nor any condition of roads or weather, was allowed to detain him from church. In the sanctuary he was required to be grave, strictly attentive, and able on his return at least to give the text. From sundown Saturday evening until the Sabbath sunset his sports were all suspended, and all secular reading laid aside; while the Bible, *New England Primer*, Bunyan's *Pilgrim's Progress*, Baxter's *Saints' Rest*, etc., were commended to his ready attention and cheerfully pored over.

He was taught that his blessings were abundant and undeserved, his evils relatively few and merited, and that he was not only bound to contentment but gratitude. He was taught that time was a talent always to be improved; that industry was a cardinal virtue, and laziness the worst form of original sin. Hence he must rise early and make himself useful before he went to school; must be diligent there in study, and be promptly home to do "chores" at evening. His whole time out of school must be filled up by some service, such as bringing in fuel for the day, cutting potatoes for the sheep, feeding the swine, watering the horses, picking the berries, gathering the vegetables, spooling the yarn. He was expected never to be reluctant, and not often tired.

He was taught that it was a sin to find fault with his meals, his apparel, his tasks, or his lot in life. Labor he was not allowed to regard as a burden, nor abstinence from any improper indulgence as a hardship.

His clothes, woolen and linen, for summer and winter, were mostly spun, woven, and made up by his mother and sisters at home; and as he saw the whole laborious process of their fabrication, he was jubilant and grateful for two suits, with bright buttons, a year. Rents were carefully closed and holes patched in the "every day" dress, and the Sabbath dress always kept new and fresh.

He was expected early to have the "stops and marks," the "abbreviations," the "multiplication table," the "Ten Commandments," the "Lord's Prayer," and the "Shorter Catechism," at his tongue's end.

[1] This sketch is quoted from Barnard's *American Journal of Education*, Vol. XVI (1866), pp. 335–36.

Courtesy was enjoined as a duty. He must be silent among his superiors. If addressed by older persons, he must respond with a bow. He was to bow as he entered and left the school, and bow to every man or woman, old or young, rich or poor, black or white, whom he met on the road. Special punishment was visited on him if he failed to show respect to the aged, the poor, the colored, or any persons whatever whom God had visited with infirmities. He was thus taught to stand in awe of the rights of humanity.

Honesty was urged as a religious duty, and unpaid debts were represented as infamy. He was allowed to be sharp at a bargain, to shudder at dependence, but still to prefer poverty to deception or fraud. His industry was not urged by poverty but by duty. Those who imposed upon him early responsibility and restraint led the way by their example, and commended this example by the prosperity of their fortunes and the respectability of their position as the result of these virtues. He felt that they governed and restrained him for his good, and not their own.

He learned to identify himself with the interests he was set to promote. He claimed every acre of his father's ample farm, and every horse and ox and cow and sheep became constructively his, and he had a name for each. The waving harvests, the garnered sheaves, the gathered fruits, were all his own. And besides these, he had his individual treasures. He knew every trout-hole in the streams; he was great in building dams, snaring rabbits, trapping squirrels, and gathering chestnuts and walnuts for winter store. Days of election, training, thanksgiving and school intermissions, were bright spots in his life. His long winter evenings, made cheerful by sparkling fires within and cold, clear skies and ice-crusted plains and frozen streams for his sled and skates, were full of employment. And then he was loved by those whom he could respect, and cheered by that future for which he was being prepared. Religion he was taught to regard as a necessity and luxury as well as duty. He was daily brought into contemplation of the Infinite, and made to regard himself as ever on the brink of an endless being. With a deep sense of obligation, a keen, sensitive conscience, and a tender heart, the great truths of religion appeared in his eye as sublime, awful, practical realities, compared with which earth was nothing. Thus he was made brave before men for the right, while he lay in the dust before God.

HOME AND SCHOOL TRAINING IN THE SOUTH IN THE COLONIAL PERIOD

THOMAS JEFFERSON WERTENBAKER, GRADUATE STUDENT, THE UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA, CHARLOTTESVILLE, VA.[1]

It is to the home that one must look chiefly for the training of the Southern boy of the Colonial period. Economic conditions were such as to render the building up of a serviceable school system impossible. The people lived almost exclusively on large plantations and farms, and such towns as existed were scarcely worthy of the name, consisting usually of but a score or more of houses, and seldom boasting more than a few hundred inhabitants. As it was impossible to have more than one or two schools in each parish, it became necessary for many children to come miles to attend their lessons. This difficulty was made worse by the condition of the roads, and it would have been insurmountable, had it not been for the fact that horses were so plentiful that even the poorest planter could furnish his children with means of conveyance to and from school.

But few of these schools taught more than the most elementary subjects. All that was expected of them was to give the pupil a good knowledge of reading, writing, and arithmetic, and to drill him thoroly in the Ten Commandments, the Lord's Prayer, and the Catechism. If the parent desired a higher education than this for his child, he had either to send him to a high school at some distant point, or to employ a private tutor.

[1] This sketch was written for the *Anniversary Volume* in January, 1907, by Thomas Jefferson Wertenbaker, a graduate student in the University of Virginia, as a complement of the foregoing sketch of Dr. Thomas Brainerd.

There were several excellent high schools in Virginia at the outbreak of the Revolutionary War, situated in the most populous districts. Some of the best known of these were the schools of Thomas Martin, who prepared James Madison for Princeton; of James Marye, the preceptor of Thomas Jefferson; of William Yates, which was attended by John Page, Colonel Lewis Willis, Charles and Edward Carter, General Thomas Nelson, John Fox, and Colonel Robert Tucker. The teachers were men of the highest character, and were usually graduates of either Oxford or Cambridge. They impressed upon the minds of their pupils the principles of honor, of duty to God and man, of patriotism and reverence for the king. They were taught that a chivalric nature was the highest object to be obtained in this life, and respect for womanhood was placed next to the fear of God. These schools were modeled after those of England, and were admirably conducted. Latin, Greek, and Mathematics were the subjects held in highest esteem, altho a thoro training in English language was usual. French and Italian were also often taught.

Many families preferred to employ tutors for their children, and there were scores of these in Virginia at the outbreak of the Revolution. Chief Justice Marshall was instructed by tutors. A private tutor was employed to teach the four celebrated Lee brothers—Arthur, Richard Henry, Francis, and William. Rev. William Douglas taught in the family of Colonel Monroe. Not infrequently some young man was brought from England as an indentured "servant," to act as tutor in some private family. Thus John Carter, of Lancaster County, directed in his will in 1669 that his son Robert should have a young servant bought for him, "to teach him his books in English and Latin." The custom was continued until late in the eighteenth century.

But by far the most important influence in molding the mind and character of the young southerner was his home life. First of all he was taught to command. He was made to realize that some day he must take from his father's hand the charge of the vast plantation with its thousand cares and responsibilities. Even as a boy he was given authority over the slaves and made to direct them in their work. He had to accompany the overseer in his rounds and to learn all the countless things that had to be done in conducting the estate. He had to know how to farm, how to cultivate grapes, to plant corn, how to raise tobacco, and how to cure it and prepare it for shipping; he had to know how to build houses, for there was constant need of constructing and preparing barns, outhouses, and the slaves' quarters; he had to be a stock raiser, for upon the plantation were scores of horses; and finally he had to be a merchant, for he knew that some day would fall upon his shoulders the responsibility of disposing of all the products of the little world in which he lived. The plantation life gave him an intense love of out-of-door sports. He delighted in horse-racing, in hunting, in fishing, and swimming. He loved horses, and fox-hunting early became with him a favorite pastime. All this tended to make him practical, self-reliant, intelligent, and robust.

He early learned from his father the duty of hospitality, and he looked upon the guest as a privileged person. He was taught to love music and art, and there were few colonial mansions that did not contain a violin or guitar, or were not decorated with such paintings as their owners could procure from England. Usually a large and well-chosen library was at his disposal so that he could atone for the limitations of his education by a wide and helpful course of reading.

Lastly, he was made to feel that some day he was to take an active part in politics, and his interest in public affairs was early awakened by the conversations of his father with his guests. As a boy he was made to know the principles of the opposing parties, the meaning of different bills, and all the details of the political system. His mind was thus made enquiring, and his reasoning powers developed and sharpened.

When we contemplate the influences that acted upon the youth of the South in the Colonial period, there can be no surprise that they produced that galaxy of great men that came to the front in the Revolutionary War, and brought honor and success to their

country. Sound in mind and in body, well schooled in politics, practical yet forseeing, habituated to command, they were well fitted to join hands with the best men of New England to assume the lead in the great crisis, and to drive back from their native land the English invaders.

II. THE EARLIEST EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES

It is difficult to determine exactly the question of priority of organization among several educational associations of a national or semi-national character in the United States. The period of earliest activity in the direction of organization for the advancement of educational interests seems to have been about 1830 and the following years. It appears, however, that the position of seniority belongs to the American Institute of Instruction. This association was organized in Boston, Mass., in August, 1830. The preface of the volume of proceedings of this meeting (350 pp.) recites that a meeting was held in Boston in March, 1830, for discussion of educational questions and remained in session four days. A committee was chosen to prepare a constitution. Several meetings of this committee were held in May and June. A meeting for organization was held on August 19, 1830, and following days. The constitution was adopted and officers elected. The following historical sketch of this association was prepared for the *Anniversary Volume* by Dr. A. E. Winship, editor of the *Journal of Education.*

THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION

ALBERT E. WINSHIP, EDITOR OF THE "JOURNAL OF EDUCATION," BOSTON, MASS.

The American Institute of Instruction was well born in the Massachusetts State House, August 19, 1830, with President Francis Wayland, of Brown University, as president.

The changes in the educational world since then are incredible. Prior to 1830 there had been no educational association, barring one or two temporary gatherings, notably one at Brooklyn, Conn., in 1827. Today there are city organizations that will have an audience of 2,000, counties that can gather 3,000 teachers, sectional state meetings with 4,000, state associations with 5,000, while the National Educational Association has reached 40,000 paid memberships in a year. There are more than a third of a million teachers gathered in conventions annually, and yet there are hundreds of members of the National Educational Association who were born before there was any educational association. It is well, therefore, to pause in our admiration of the educational association spirit and grandeur of today and worship at the shrine of the mother of them all.

In order to appreciate what it signified to have an association of educators in those days we must consider the conditions. There was no public-school

teaching force from which to draw. There was not a state, county, or city superintendent in the country; not a state or city normal school; not six free public high schools; no public libraries; no state university or state college; no textbook publishing houses or agents; no makers of school furniture, of school furnaces, of ventilating appliances, fire escapes, school apparatus, lead pencils, steel pens, blackboards, crayons, maps, charts, of kindergarten materials, or of teachers' books or teachers' journals. No one had ever earned a dollar as an educational lecturer. Eliminate all the classes and interests herein suggested, and who can conceive of an educational convention today?

It is well, also, to consider the difficulties under which this first meeting was held. There were no electric lines, no steamships, no railroads. President Wayland had to go forty miles by stage to reach the meetings, which were held in Boston for the first seven years. It was the only place to which all stage lines ran. William B. Calhoun, of Springfield, who was president for six of the first nine years, made the stage ride of a hundred miles each way to be at the meetings. The more one studies the conditions, the more he wonders at the achievements of those days.

And yet out of this wilderness of neglect, under inconceivable conditions, there blossomed into full bloom a convention whose first meeting—whose first seven meetings—have never been surpassed in significance. With no railroad assistance those early meetings always paid all bills out of the membership fees. This included paying for a volume of *Proceedings* whose addresses have never been exceeded in importance by any association since.

In the famous congressional library at Washington the names of the twelve world educators are inlaid in the ceilings. Of these, three only are Americans—Thomas H. Gallaudet, Samuel G. Howe, and Horace Mann; and these three greatest of American educators were at the first meeting of the American Institute of Instruction, and were frequently in attendance upon the meetings for the first few years.

Great men stood forth with more grandeur in those days than at present. Every man stood for something clear and distinct and was fighting for it in a statesmanlike way. "Wire pulling"—I use the term with no disrespect—was unthought of then. Opinion must be fortified with fact, philosophy, and logic in order to win. This association furnished the forum for great exploitation of schemes for public care of the insane and feeble-minded, and public education of the deaf and blind. Here William B. Fowler exploited phrenology for years; Dio Lewis, physical culture; Lewis B. Monroe demonstrated elocutionary possibilities; and other men of historic importance pleaded eloquently for various causes. Here may be said to have been born Greenleaf's notable *Arithmetics*, Greene's famous *Analysis*, Harkness' Latin series, Newman's *Rhetoric*, Fowler's textbooks, George S. Hillards' *Readers*, Mason's *Music Series*, Wayland's *Philosophies*, Bradbury-Eaton's *Arithmetic*, and a host of other books of high merit and great popularity.

Students of American education know full well the significance of the names

of men who were in frequent attendance: Mann, Howe, Theodore Parker, Samuel J. May, Gallaudet, Henry Barnard, Ralph Waldo Emerson, Cyrus Pierce, Asa Gray, Benjamin Greenleaf, James G. Carter, David P. Page, Gideon F. Thayer, Thomas Sherwin, Wm. C. Woodbridge, Barnas Sears, George S. Boutwell, Charles Northend, William Russell, William H. Wells, John D. Philbrick, George B. Emerson, Edward Beecher, William D.Ticknor, Wm. C. Fowler, C. C. Felton, Ariel Parish, Daniel Huntington, John Pierpont, A. Bronson Alcott, and Elizabeth Peabody.

The American Institute of Instruction was largely responsible for giving Horace Mann to the educational leadership of America. If it had done nothing more, this alone is all-sufficient reward for its existence. Mr. Mann was in the legislature, but his plans were political and his purposes philanthropic. He was interested in the defective and dependent classes and was working for the insane, the blind, the deaf, and the feeble-minded. He was a good lawyer, a brilliant public speaker, and an intense leader of any conscience cause. Even up to the moment when he accepted the secretaryship of the Massachusetts State Board of Education his closest friends never thought of him as an educator. He was in 1830 a member of the Massachusetts legislature, and Francis Wayland, president of his *alma mater*, was presiding over the American Institute of Instruction in the Massachusetts State House. Of course, Mr. Mann was there and was intensely interested in what was being planned, and this inspiration was largely influential in leading him into educational work for life.

The chief glory of the American Institute of Instruction is that it was a cause and not an effect. Had it come ten years later we should have had several causes to assign for its coming, but in 1830 there is really no adequate suggestion as to the cause, with many resultant effects apparent.

The year 1830 was notable in Massachusetts' history. Then it was that Daniel Webster made his famous "Reply to Hayne" in the United States Senate. Colonel Hayne had made a bitter attack on Massachusetts while lauding South Carolina. To this Mr. Webster replied by praising South Carolina more charmingly than had Hayne, but declined to praise Massachusetts farther than to say, "Massachusetts, there she stands!"

The effect of that oration was electrifying. The conditions in Massachusetts helped to produce Webster's oration as surely as the oration thrilled the people of the Old Bay State, and something was sure to be done when a great people was aroused by a noble purpose.

For seven years all the meetings were held in Boston. They were always well attended, the membership dues were promptly paid, and all expenses were readily met.

Local jealousy, or a missionary spirit, got in its work at the end of seven years, and it began its migratory life. It would be interesting to know the line of argument that controlled affairs in 1837. Perhaps President Calhoun had wearied of that stage ride from Springfield; but, be that as it may, Mr

Mann got the Massachusetts legislature to appropriate $300 a year toward the expenses; and the next seven meetings were held in Worcester, Lowell, Springfield, Providence, Boston, New Bedford, and Pittsfield. This appropriation, increased in 1866 to $500, was continued until 1873.

Despite the legislative subsidy, the Institute was not in as good financial condition for forty years after as it was in the first seven years.

The American Institute of Instruction fostered the public-school sentiment and developed it into a scheme which more nearly approximated a "system" than was to be found elsewhere in the United States; but this great service was not appreciated by the beneficiaries of its labors. No grammar-school men took any part in its official life for sixteen years. The management was in the hands of the classical men and educational statesmen.

While public-school positions were multiplied and salaries increased because of the association, the public-school people shunned the meetings, and proceeded to organize state associations in Massachusetts (1845) and Connecticut (1846) in which no one was admitted to membership who was not actually engaged in teaching, and they had a teachers' program and published a teachers' monthly. It is assumed that they meant well, that they sincerely believed that professional class consciousness would be advantageous; but this we do know, that they dealt a serious blow to the American Institute of Instruction, and to the cause of education.

The men at whom the act of elimination was aimed were Horace Mann, Dr. S. G. Howe, Gallaudet, Charles Sumner, Edward Everett, Josiah Quincy, Edmund Dwight, Gardner Brewer, and their distinguished associates, who proceeded to eliminate themselves from all responsibility, organized various other associations for the exploitation of their philanthropic purposes, and the public school felt the loss of these influences. It is never an easy matter to think in large units, or in extensive units, and these men surely failed, so others have failed, in seeing the danger in the narrowing influence of professional class consciousness. The state association took up its specific work, and these same men came into control of the Institute of Instruction and ran it along broader lines than the state association, but on narrower lines than those of its early years.

While the meetings were interesting and important the finances were a constant source of trouble from 1845 to 1875, when a new order of things prevailed. It is commonly spoken of as "the coming of the reign of Rhode Island." For eight years thereafter there was not a Massachusetts man in the presidency, and eight years out of ten there was no Massachusetts man in the secretaryship. Prior to that time there had never been a secretary who was not from Massachusetts. This was in no sense intentional or the result of a conspiracy. The Massachusetts men had wearied of the burden, and some of them desired its abandonment for the advantage they thought would come to the state association. It is a sad fact, that, left to the Bay State men, the historic and glorious American Institute of Instruction would probably have departed

this life before it was fifty years old. To Rhode Islanders is largely due its new life and prosperity. True, they commercialized it, but the stimulant was indispensable to its life. These men put the American Institute of Instruction on a new tack, leading the world in the idea of making the reduced railroad rate dependent upon membership in the association. Since then the income has been much larger, but unfortunately the style of expenses increased as well as the income, and for twenty years after the notable meeting at Fabyan's, presided over by T. W. Bicknell, there was frequent anxiety as to the meeting of expenses; but in 1897, at Montreal, there was not only a larger enrollment than ever before, but the expenses were radically and permanently reduced so that since then the treasury has always had several thousand dollars at command. Therefore the last ten years have been the most prosperous, financially, since the first seven years. Of course, it all looks small beside the N. E. A. membership and fund, but its prosperity, in view of all the facts, is highly gratifying.

The meetings have not been large as compared with some state and county associations. The largest enrollment was at Montreal in 1897, when there were 2,234, which was nearly 200 above the meeting at Fabyan's, which was next largest; but the program has always been of the highest order of talent, of the best of spirit, and has had a noble purpose.

PLACES OF MEETING

The first seven meetings were held in Boston, while only one meeting has been held there in the last forty years, and in the last thirty years but one has been held within forty miles of Boston. The original idea was to save as much travel as possible, but for forty years it has been to get as much as possible. Then they dodged travel; now we seek it. They sought places with the most people; we seek places with the fewest.

In the seventy-six years two meetings have been held outside the United States, at Montreal and Halifax; four in Saratoga; and one at Troy; so that a tenth of the meetings have been held out of New England. One-third of the meetings have been held in Massachusetts; but of the twenty-four meetings fifteen were prior to 1855 and but one since 1875. New Hampshire has had a fourth of all the meetings, but of seventeen twelve have been since 1875, and but two before 1855. The White Mountains have been the greatest permanent attraction.

OFFICIAL LEADERS

Inevitably there has always been a group of men directing the affairs of the American Institute of Instruction. In the first sixteen years these men were educational statesmen, and their programs and purposes were broad but distinctly educational. There were few actual teachers in the ranks of the association. For the next thirty years the men were all teachers or practical school men, mostly from near Boston. The last thirty years have largely eliminated the teacher from the official life, and enthroned the "administrator."

In the first forty-five years there was never a superintendent of any kind in the presidency, while in the last thirty years there have been five state superintendents, two assistant state superintendents, and two city superintendents. There has been no normal-school man in the presidency, but one college president, and one professor. Two-thirds of the presidents have been Massachusetts men—one-half of these from Boston. In the first forty-five years three-fourths were from Massachusetts, and in the last thirty years only a third have been from that state.

The executive board has always consisted of the president, secretary, and treasurer, making in the executive board, for the seventy-six years, eighty-one men. Of these men more than fifty have lived in Boston, or in its immediate vicinity.

In the last fifty years six presidents and two-thirds of the secretaries have been grammar-school principals. In this regard the American Institute of Instruction is in a class by itself. Almost nowhere else, even in state associations, has the grammar-school principal been largely in evidence officially. The same is true as to high-school principals. There have been ten high-school principals in the presidency, which is highly significant. In other words, for the past half-century it has been, very largely, distinctly a teachers' organization officially, tho its program has been exceedingly broad in its personnel. I recall the meeting of 1894, in the White Mountains, at which there were five New England college presidents on the program. These men, with their wives in most cases, were present for several days; and at table, in the parlors, on tramps and drives, they were hearty in their comradeship with any grade of teachers who chanced to be thrown in their way.

THE SOCIAL FEATURES

In forty years of attendance upon the leading educational meetings of all parts of the country the one distinctive feature of the Institute of Instruction has been the uniform accessibility of the eminent men to the humblest members. There has never been anything of the professional caste spirit. This, together with the fact that the offices are open to high-school and grammar-school men, has made these meetings of inestimable benefit to the rank and file of the men.

Personally, I have known the American Institute of Instruction for forty years, attending the meeting at Burlington, Vt., in 1866; and three years later, at Trenton, N. J., I began my attendance upon the National Educational Association; so that I have known both associations, and have loyally enjoyed both these many years. Of course it is impossible to compare them, tho the personality of each is as fascinating as it is distinct. The quiet, peaceful, cozy comradeship of the older has never lost any of is charm when contrasted with the magnificence of the larger.

The American Institute of Instruction is today in better condition in every way than it has been for seventy years. Its treasury was never more satis-

factory, and it never presented a better program than for the past few years. At New Haven last July there were addresses by men who were in attendance in 1846 and 1851, and in the counsels of the official board these men were ardent champions of the most progressive policy.

The influence of the grammar-school principals and of the high-school men, is, unfortunately, less and less in evidence. The program is broad and noble, but the attendance is now due almost exclusively to excursion attractions. The rank and file do not go unless there is ample reward in sight-seeing at the lowest available rates. But in this feature the American Institute of Instruction is not alone.

In age it is peerless, in historic educational prominence it is unsurpassed, in delightful professional comradeship it is in a class by itself, and the present prosperity is adequate for all of its necessities. The past is glorious, the present gratifying, and there is no reason why the future should not bear out its early prophecy of service to the public.

The Western Literary Institute and College of Professional Teachers came second in order of organization, altho by some it is claimed to be the oldest educational association in America. This may be true if we consider that its existence dates from 1829, when the Western Academic Institute and Board of Education was organized in Cincinnati in 1829 thru the exertions of Albert Picket and Alexander Kinmont, both teachers in Cincinnati. At the first annual meeting of this institute the name Western Institute and College of Professional Teachers was chosen. A constitution was adopted with the following preamble:

Whereas, The convention of teachers assembled in Cincinnati, deeply impressed with the importance of organizing their profession in the valley of the Mississippi by a permanent association, in order to promote the sacred interests of education so far as may be confided to their care, by collecting the distant members, advancing their mutual improvement, and elevating the profession to its just and intellectual and moral influence on the community, do hereby resolve ourselves into a permanent body, to be governed by the following Constitution:

The following sketches of several early associations were prepared for the *Anniversary Volume* by Will S. Monroe, of the State Normal School at Westfield, Mass.

WESTERN LITERARY INSTITUTE AND COLLEGE OF PROFESSIONAL TEACHERS (1831–1845)

WILL S. MONROE, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, WESTFIELD, MASS.

The Western Literary Institute and College of Professional Teachers was in existence from 1831 to 1845. It held fifteen annual sessions and several extra meetings and its officers and speakers were of the first order among the ranks of educational workers in the country at that time. The late Henry Barnard very properly says of this association:

It was not only one of the earliest educational associations of our country, but also proved itself one of the best, one of the most active, energetic, and laborious, and one of the most practical and widely influential. Started by practical teachers, it early enlisted in its cause the aid and co-operation of the most prominent professors and teachers in the numerous colleges and high schools of the West, and through them acting with that freedom and energy of will and soundness of judgment which characterize a new country, and the West especially, it exerted a beneficial influence upon teachers and schools generally, and somewhat more indirectly upon public opinion, legislative action, and public-school systems.

Among the early workers—speakers and officers—of the association may be found such well-known names as Lyman Beecher (1775–1863), Alexander Campbell (1786–1866), Thomas S. Grimke (1786–1834), William S. Johnson (1796–1855), Samuel Lewis (1799–1854), Benjamin O. Peers (1800–1842), Calvin E. Stowe (1802–86), Edward D. Mansfield (1801–80), William H. McGuffey (1800–73), Joseph Ray (1807–57), Henry Barnard (1811–1900), Samuel Galloway (1811–72), and Elias Loomis (1811–89). Nor were women denied participation in its proceedings, as in most of the similar later associations organized in the eastern section of the United States. The names of a large number of women appear in the proceedings of the association, including such well-known women educational leaders as Mrs. Emma Willard (1787–1870), Mrs. Lydia H. Sigourney (1791–1865), Mrs Almira H. L. Phelps (1793–1884), and Miss Catherine E. Beecher (1800–78).

While largely represented by the four states of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and Kentucky, the association had a scattered membership in many other states in the Union. Active members paid an annual fee of one doller. The first eleven sessions of the institute (1831 to 1841, inclusive) and the last (1845) were held at Cincinnati, and the other meetings (excepting an extra session in 1842) were held at Louisville, Ky. Three sessions were held each day, and the annual gatherings were of five days duration. The association published *Proceedings* of the first ten meetings.

The program of the fourth annual meeting may be summarized as typical of the association. This meeting was held at Cincinnati October 6 to 11, 1834, with Albert Picket, Sr., as president. Among the notable addresses—more than twenty in all—the following may be enumerated: "Need of Higher Standards of Professional Requirement," by Albert Picket; "Philosophy of Family, School, and College Discipline," by Daniel Drake; "Study of the Greek and Latin Languages as a Part in the Course of a Liberal Education," by T. M. Post; "Neither the Classics nor Mathematics Should Form a Part of a Scheme of General Education in Our Country," by Thomas Smith Grimke; "Utility of Mathematics," by Edward D. Mansfield; "Ought the Classics to Constitute a Part of Education?" byAlexander Kinmont; "Physical Sciences," by Elijah Slack; "Government of Public Literary Institutions," by M. A. H. Niles; "Moral Influence of Music," by William Nixon; "Best Methods of Teaching Languages," by William Hopwood; "Emulation as a Motive in Education," by Thomas H. Quinan and Thomas J. Matthews. The *Proceedings* for 1834 cover 324 pages.

AMERICAN LYCEUM ASSOCIATION (1831–1839)

WILL S. MONROE, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, WESTFIELD, MASS.

After the Western Literary Institute, the next earliest educational association of a national character was the American Lyceum Association. State meetings were held as early as 1826, but the organization did not assume national dimensions until 1831. Josiah Holbrook (1788–1854), who organized the first industrial school in the United States after the model of Fellenberg at Hofwyl, was the moving spirit in the new movement.

The purpose of the American Lyceum Association was, (1) to secure better legislative provisions for schools; (2) to improve the qualifications of teachers; (3) to secure closer relationship between common schools and colleges; (4) to improve methods of school instruction and school discipline; (5) to introduce the natural sciences into the course of study; (6) to provide schools with books, apparatus, and teaching appliances; and (7) to arouse an interest in the education of girls and women. Clearly, a broad program!

The list of officers and speakers who participated in the nine annual meetings includes most of the men and women prominently identified with American education during the first half of the last century—Stephen Van Rensselaer (1765–1839), Alexander Proudfit (1768–1843), Henry Davis (1772–1852), John Griscom (1774–1852), Amos Eaton (1777–1842), William Alexander Duer (1780–1858), Thomas Smith Grimke (1786–1834), Theodore Frelinghuysen (1787–1861), Josiah Holbrook (1788–1854), Lydia Huntley Sigourney (1791–1865), Denison Olmsted (1791–1859), Goold Brown (1791–1857), William Channing Woodbridge (1794–1845), James Walker (1794–1874), Ebenezer Bailey (1795–1839), Theodore Dwight (1796–1860), Samuel Joseph May (1797–1871), Benjamin Orr Peers (1800–42), and Catherine Esther Beecher (1800–78).

At the first national convention held in New York City in May, 1831, President Henry Davis, of Hamilton College, presided and three topics were discussed: "The Teaching of Natural Science in the Schools;" "The Use to Be Made of the Bible in School Instruction;" and "The Qualifications of Teachers."

The program of the second annual convention included addresses and discussions on the following topics: "School Discipline;" "Importance of Making the Constitution and Political Institutions of the United States the Subject of Study in Schools;" "Primary Education in Spain;" "Introduction of the Natural Sciences into Common Schools;" "Learning to Read and Write the English Language;" "Infant Education;" "Extent to Which the Monitorial System is Advisable and Practicable in Common Schools;" and "Appropriate Use of the Bible in Schools." Besides Griscom, Grimke, and Frelinghuysen, who had participated in the first convention, the new speakers were Walter Rogers Johnson (1794–1852), Chester Dewey (1784–1867), John M. Keagy (1795–1837), and Professor Pizarro, of Spain.

At the third meeting of the association the papers and discussions included "The Study of Physiology;" "Vocal Music;" "Geology;" "Education of the Blind;" "Manual-Training Schools;" "Principles of Education," and "The Schools of Mexico." Mr. Woodbridge, William A. Alcott (1798–1859), and Juan Rodriquez, of Mexico, were among the speakers.

At the fourth meeting of the association the four leading topics discussed were, "The Grading of Schools;" "The Merits and Defects of the Monitorial System;" "Female Education;" and "Education in Foreign Countries—Poland, Mexico, Cuba, and New Granada." Besides Mrs. Sigourney and Henry Rowe Schoolcraft (1793–1864), the other leading speakers were: Augustus Yakonbusky, of Poland, Juan Rodriquez, of Mexico, Justo Velor, of Havana, and Joaquin Mosquera, of New Granada. This meeting appointed a committee "to collect imformation and otherwise to promote the establishment of a central seminary for the education of common-school teachers." The American Indian was the subject of several papers at the fifth convention; also papers were read on: "Education in Armenia;" "Schools for the Blind;" and "Female Education." The paper on the latter subject by Miss Catherine E. Beecher called forth extended discussion and it was the sense of the convention

that the subject of female education deserves more attention than it has yet received; that the establishment and liberal endowment of female seminaries of a high order, especially for the education of female teachers, is highly deserving of the benefactions of the wealthy and intelligent of the community, as well as of legislative patronage.

"School Funds;" "Mutual Instruction;" "Emulation as a Motive to Study;" "The Education of the Blind;" and "Co-operation in Common-School Education" were the principal topics at the sixth convention and Samuel Gridley Howe (1801–76) and Harvey Prindle Peet (1794–1873) are the new names on the program. The monitorial system, then a live question, reappears at the seventh and the subsequent meetings of the association. Other topics at the seventh meeting were, "The Study of Meteorology;" "Education of the Deaf;" "The use of Questions in Teaching;" and "The Cure of Stammering."

At the eighth meeting there were papers upon, "The Embellishment and Improvement of Towns;" "Religious Instruction in Common Schools;" "The Primary Schools of Boston;" "Need of an International Copyright;" and "Eye-training." Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet (1787–1851) was one of the leading personages at this meeting.

The ninth and last annual meeting of the association was held in Philadelphia in November, 1839. It was well attended and it memorialized Congress to devote the funds received from the sale of public lands to education. Among the noted names in the proceedings of the final convention are Charles Brooks (1795–1872), Alexander Dallas Bache (1806–67), and Enoch Cobb Wines (1806–79).

Practically all the educational interests of the United States were represented

in the American Lyceum Association during its nine years existence as a national organization. Out of the movement grew many library and lecture associations; keener interest in the education of girls; and the introduction of science studies into American courses of instruction.

Ten years after the last meeting of the American Lyceum Association, which occured in 1839, and four years after the last meeting of the Western Literary Institute and College of Professional Teachers in 1845, a new effort was made for the organization of a national association of teachers. The following account of this movement appears in Barnard's *American Journal of Education*, Vol. XXIV (1873), pp. 330–336. Extracts from the opening and closing addresses at this meeting by the president, Hon. Horace Mann, at that time a member of Congress, are quoted here as setting forth the high aims of the leaders of this movement which was destined to be continued thru the National Teachers' Association and, later, the National Educational Association.

It would not really be far amiss to date the history of the National Educational Association from this meeting in Philadelphia in 1849 instead of from the meeting in Philadelphia in 1857, when the National Teachers' Association was actually organized.

SCHOOL TEACHERS AND SUPERINTENDENTS

CONVENTION OF TEACHERS AND SUPERINTENDENTS OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS, HELD AT PHILADELPHIA, OCTOBER 17, 18, AND 19, 1849

A national convention of teachers, superintendents of public schools, and friends of education generally, assembled at Philadelphia, in the hall of the comptroller of public schools, on October 17, 1849, and continued in daily and evening sessions until the close of the evening of the 19th—under the presidency of Hon. Horace Mann, member of Congress, and late secretary of the Board of Education for the state of Massachusetts.

OPENING ADDRESS OF THE PRESIDENT, HORACE MANN

Gentlemen of the Convention:—The duty of setting forth the specific purposes of this meeting does not devolve upon me; but there are some benefits to be derived from it, so signal and prominent, as to deserve a passing notice.

I suppose the great proportion of the gentlemen whom I see around me, and whose presence on this occasion I most cordially welcome, to be practical teachers—men whose daily occupation is in the schoolroom. But from the fifteen states which are represented here, there are men of another class—men who fill high and responsible offices in the great work of public instruction—secretaries of state, who are charged with the interest of public education in their respective states, superintendents of schools, secretaries of boards of education, and others, to whose hands vast and precious interests have been confided, upon whom the most weighty responsibilities have been cast; and from whose administration, the matured fruits of wisdom are expected. Now all teachers have felt the genial and upholding influences of sympathy, in discharging the duties of the schoolroom.

All have grown wiser while listening to the counsels of experience. The teacher who has met a hundred of his fellow-teachers in a public assembly, and communed with them for days, enlightening his own judgment by the results of their experience, and kindling his own enthusiasm by their fires, goes back to his schoolroom with the light of a hundred minds in his head, and with the zeal of a hundred bosoms burning in his heart.

Now, if school teachers need this encouragement and assistance in their labors, and can be profited by them, how much more do those high officers need encouragement and assistance upon whom rests the responsibility, not of one school only, but of all the schools in a state. If the vision of the one, in his narrow sphere, needs enlightenment, how much illumination ought to be poured over the vast fields of the other. I see those around me who have been engaged in the great work of organizing systems of education for a state; I see those on whom has devolved the statesman-like duty of projecting plans of improvement for a whole people around them, and for generations after them, where a mistake would bring calamity to the most precious and enduring interests of mankind, and where wisdom and genius would throw forward their light and happiness into coming centuries; and I know I shall have their assent when I say that no position in human life could impose more anxiety and solicitude and toil upon its possessor than the perilous position they have occupied. Without guide, without precedent, without counsel, they have had no helpers but in their own forethought, fidelity, and devotion. How cheering and sustaining to them must be such opportunities as the present, where the errors of others may become admonitions to them, and the successes of others may be used for their guidance.

Still better is it, when the teachers of schools and the superintendents of schools can meet together, as on the present occasion, and render reciprocal aid in the discharge of their respective duties. At meetings like this, whatever wisdom the country possesses on the subject of education may be brought into common stock, and, by self-multiplying process, the whole of it may be carried away by each individual. At least, so much of the whole may be carried away by each as he has capacity to receive.

By a national organization of teachers, great and comprehensive plans may be devised, to whose standard each state may be gradually brought into conformity: for instance, such as relate to the organization of territory into school districts; to the proper age at which children should go to school; or, as the Germans so beautifully express it, when a child is "due to the school."

. . . . . .

These advantages pertain to the head, to our ability to conduct the great work of education, in the wisest manner and with the most beneficial results. But the heart may be as much warmed as the head is instructed. By the communion and the sympathy of assemblies like this we can not only enlighten the guiding forces of the mind, but we can generate the impulsive forces of the heart. We can not only diffuse new intelligence, but we can excite new enthusiasm. Throughout the whole country the machinery of education needs to be increased in strength, and worked by a mightier power. In all material interests we are proverbial as a people for our enterprise. Let us seek for our country the higher honor of becoming proverbial in our regard for moral and spiritual interests. Let us devise systems of education that shall reach every child that is born in the land; and, wherever political privileges exist, let the intelligence be imparted and the virtues inculcated, which alone can make those privileges a blessing. . . . .

Look, too, at the condition of our country, and see what need there is of comprehensiveness in our plans and of energy in their administration. We have a higher object than to prepare a system of education for any one locality, or for any one party. To the West a region spreads out almost interminably—a region to be soon filled, not with savages, but either with Christians, or with men as much worse than savages as Christians are better. On the East, there comes pouring in upon us a new population, not of our own production, not of American parentage nor the growth of American institutions. Owing to the marvelous improvements in the art of transportation, the Atlantic Ocean has been

narrowed almost to a river's breadth. The western and the eastern continent by the power of these improvements lie side by side of each other. Their shores, for thousands of miles, lie like two ships, broadside and broadside; and from stem to stern the emigrant population of Europe is boarding us, tens of thousands in a day. We must provide for them, or we will all sink together.

And what are we doing to prepare for the great exigencies of the future, which the providence of God seems to have placed in our hands; and, I speak it with reverence, to have left to our disposal? A responsibility is upon us that we cannot shake off. We cannot escape with the lying plea of Cain, "Am I my brother's keeper?" Let us then be aroused by every consideration that can act upon the mind of a patriot, a philanthropist, or a Christian; and let us give our hands, our heads, and our hearts to the great work of human improvement, through the instrumentality of free, common schools. As far as in us lies, let us save from ruin, physical, intellectual, and moral, the thousands and hundreds of thousands, aye, the millions and hundreds of millions of the human race, to whom we are bound by the ties of a common nature and of kindred blood, and who, without our assistance, will miserably perish, but with our assistance, may be saved to usefulness and honor, and immortal glory.

The discussions of the convention were confined closely to the following topics, relating to the organization and administration of a system of public instruction adapted to the different sections of the United States, introduced by the business committee, of which Henry Barnard, of Connecticut, was chairman.

1. *Territorial, or civil subdivision of the state:*—Involving the extent to which the district system, should be carried, and the modifications of which the same is susceptible; and the official superintendence required for each subdivision, state, county, town, and neighborhood.
2. *School architecture:*—Including the location, size, modes of ventilation, warming, seating, etc., of buildings intended for educational purposes.
3. *School attendance.*—Including the school age of children, and the best modes of securing the regular and punctual attendance of children at school.
4. *Grades of schools.*—The number and character of each grade.
5. *Course of instruction.*—Physical, intellectual, moral, and religious; esthetical; industrial. Studies: books, apparatus, methods.
6. *Teachers.*—Their qualifications; their examination and compensation; normal schools, teachers' institutes, books on the theory and practice of teaching.
7. *Support.*—Tax on property, tax on parents, school funds—local and state.
8. *Parental and public interest.*
9. *Supplementary means.*—Library, lyceum, lectures.

CLOSING ADDRESS.

In rising to adjourn the convention, as the clock struck ten, the hour fixed on for closing its proceedings, the president (Horace Mann) remarked as follows:

Gentlemen of the convention:—The clock is now striking the hour—the air is now waving with its vibrations—at which it has been decided to bring the labors of this convention to a close. We have been looking for the last three days upon the bright side of the tapestry; the dark side is now turned toward us. The pleasing acquaintances which have been formed, and which can have been to none more pleasing than to myself, must be broken, and we must go away, carrying such good as we can, from the deliberations of this assembly. In parting from you, I cannot forbear to express my warmest acknowledgments for the continual kindness with which you have been pleased to regard the performance of the duties of the chair. You have made all its labors light, and all its difficulties nominal. In parting from you, gentlemen, it is impossible for me to express

the feelings of hope, mingled with anxiety, with which I look forward to the consequences of this meeting. We shall separate. We shall go away to move in different and distant spheres. From these narrow walls which now inclose us, we shall find ourselves, at the end of the week, in a dozen different states, east, west, north, and south. Shall the influences which have been here concentrated and brought to a focus be dissipated and lost, when our local proximity to each other is gone; or shall the moral influences, which have been here generated, expand themselves over the vast spaces where we shall soon be found, keep themselves vivid and animate, and make the common air electric with their fulness of life? I trust the latter, and our zeal will not be of the flashy kind, that will evaporate as soon as the exciting cause is withdrawn, but that it will be like the heat of the sun, which, being once kindled, glows on forever.

Gentlemen, this occasion has brought together two classes of men, sufficiently distinguished from each other to be the subjects of a division. May I be permitted to address a few words to each? We have before us the practical teachers; men who have devoted themselves to the business of the schoolroom, who do not exercise a very diffusive influence in a broad sphere, but an intense influence in a narrow sphere—points of strong light thrown upon a small space, rather than wider radiations of a flame that is weakened by its expansion. What are the duties of the school teacher? I have not time to enumerate or define them. I can not even mention the names of the long catalogue; but I will call your attention to one which comes very near to embracing all. By this one I mean *thoroughness* in everything you teach. Thoroughness—*thoroughness*—and again I say THOROUGHNESS is the secret of success. You heard some admirable remarks this morning from a gentleman from Massachusetts (Mr. Sears), in which he told us that a child, in learning a single lesson, might get not only an idea of the subject-matter of that lesson, but an idea how all lessons should be learned; a general idea, not only how that subject should be studied, but how all subjects should be studied. A child in compassing the simple subject, may get an idea of perfectness, which is the type, or archetype of all excellence, and this idea may modify the action of his mind through his whole course of life.

Be thorough, therefore, be complete in everything you do; leave no enemy in ambush behind you, as you march on, to rise up in your rear to assail you. Leave no broken link in the chain you are daily forging. Perfect your work so that when it is subjected to the trials and experiences of life, it will not be found wanting. . . . .

So, in the after periods of your existence, whether it be in this world, or another world from which you may be permitted to look back, you may see the consequences of your instruction upon the children whom you have trained. In the crises of business life, where intellectual accuracy leads to immense good, and intellectual mistakes to immense loss, you may see your pupils distinguishing between error and truth, between false reasoning and sound reasoning, leading all who may rely upon them to correct results, establishing the highest reputation for themselves, and for you as well as for themselves, and conferring incalculable good upon the community. So, if you have been wise and successful in your moral training, you will have prepared them to stand unshaken and unseduced amidst temptations, firm when others are swept away, uncorrupt where others are depraved, unconsumed where others are blasted and perish. You may be able to say that, by the blessing of God, you have helped to do this thing. . . . .

There is another class of men in this meeting—those who hold important official situations under the state governments, and who are charged with the superintendence of public instruction. Peculiar duties devolve upon them. They, in common with the teachers, have taken upon themselves a great responsibility. When in the course of yesterday's proceedings, a resolution was introduced, proposing to make this a national convention, with a permanent organization, I confess that, as I sat here in my chair, I felt my joints trembling with emotion, at the idea of the responsibility you were about to assume. Shall this body establish itself as a national convention? Shall we hold ourselves out to this great country as a source of information and a center of influence on

one of the most important subjects that can be submitted to the human faculties? Shall we hold ourselves up here in full sunlight, and virtually say to the whole country, come here and fill your urns from our fountains of wisdom? Those views came over me with such force, as almost to make me forget where I was, and the duties I had to discharge; for experience has led me to know something of the difficulties of the work. Yet it was the pleasure of the convention to adopt the resolution; and through the signatures of your officers you will severally subscribe to that conclusion. You have already authorized a committee to send out this determination, and to proclaim it to the world. Now, by these acts *you have signed and sealed a bond.* You have obligated yourselves to perform great duties, and you cannot deny or elude this obligation, without a forfeiture of honor and character. If we fulfill the duties we have assumed, this meeting will prove one of the most important meetings ever held in this country. If we fail in our respective spheres of action to fulfill these duties, this meeting will be the ridicule and shame of us all. By itself it is a small movement, but we can make it the first in a series that shall move the whole country. It begins here upon the margin of the sea, but we can expand it until it shall cover the continent. However insignificant in itself, it is great by its possibilities. To the eye of the superficial observer beginnings are always unimportant; but whoever understands the great law of cause and effect, knows that without the feeble beginnings the grandest results could never have been evolved. He who now visits the northwestern part of the state of New York, to see one of the wonders of the world—the Falls of Niagara —may see also a wonder of art not unworthy to be compared with this wonder of nature. He may see a vast iron bridge spanning one of the greatest rivers in the world, affording the means of safe transit for any number of men or any weight of merchandise, and poised high up in the serene air hundreds of feet above the maddened waters below. How was this ponderous structure stretched from abutment to abutment across the raging flood? How was it made so strong as to bear the tread of an army, or the momentum of the rushing steam car? Its beginning was as simple as its termination is grand. A boy's plaything, a kite, was first sent into the air; to this kite was attached a silken thread, to the thread a cord; to the cord, a rope; to the rope, a cable. When the toy fell upon the opposite side, the silken thread drew over the cord, and the cord the rope, and the rope the cable, and the cable, one after another, great bundles or fascia of iron wire; and these being arranged, side by side, and layer upon layer now constitute a bridge of such massiveness and cohesion, that the mighty genius of the cataract would spend his strength upon it in vain.

Thus, my friends, may great results be educed from small beginnings. Let this first meeting of the National Association of the Friends of Education be like the safe and successful sending of an aerial messenger across the abyss of ignorance and superstition and crime, so that those who come after us may lay the abutments and complete the moral arch that shall carry thousands and millions of our fellow-beings in safety and peace above the gulf of perdition, into whose seething floods they would otherwise have fallen and perished!

The subsequent history of this movement so auspiciously begun is set forth in the following sketch by Professor Monroe.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF EDUCATION

WILL S. MONROE, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, WESTFIELD, MASS.

The American Association for the Advancement of Education, the parent of the National Teachers' Association and the grandparent of the National Educational Association, originated in a meeting held in Philadelphia in 1849.

The first meeting was in response to a call for a "National Convention of the Friends of Common Schools and of Universal Education," and was signed by thirty-seven representative schoolmen, twelve of whom were state superintendents of public instruction and several were presidents of colleges. The purpose of the convention, as stated in the preliminary call, was "that the great cause of popular education in the United States may be advanced and the exertions of its friends strengthened and systematized by mutual consultation and deliberation."

Two meetings were held in Philadelphia; the first, October 17, 18, and 19, 1849, and the second, August 28, 29, and 30, 1850, under the auspices of the convention of the Friends of Common Schools and of Universal Education. Horace Mann (1796–1859), then secretary of the State Board of Education of Massachusetts, presided at the first meeting, and Eliphalet Nott (1773–1866), president of Union College, presided at the second meeting. The printed *Proceedings* of the first meeting cover 40 pages, and of the second meeting, 175 pages. Among the topics discussed were : "School Organization and Supervision;" "Normal Schools and Teachers' Institutes;" "Moral and Religious Instruction;" "Evening Schools;" "School Architecture;" "The Grading of Schools;" "The Teaching of Phonetics;" "School Funds;" "The Smithsonian Institution;" "Plan of a National Teachers' Organization," etc. Among those who participated in the proceedings were Henry Barnard, John Griscom, Joseph Henry, Alonzo Potter, Gideon F. Thayer, John S. Hart, Nathan Bishop, and John Kingsbury.

At the second Philadelphia meeting (1850) it was resolved to adopt a permanent constitution and to take the name of the American Association for the Advancement of Education. Alonzo Potter was chairman of the committee on a constitution for the organization of the new association. The membership fee was fixed at two dollars, and it was provided that annual sessions, of not less than four days, should be held during the month of August.

The third meeting (first under the new organization) was held at Cleveland, August 19, 20, 21, and 22, 1851. Alonzo Potter (1800–65), then a bishop in Philadelphia, presided. The topics discussed included "Influence of the Spirit of the Age upon Education," by Samuel P. Bates (1827–), superintendent of schools in Crawford County, Penn; "The Use of School Libraries," by Professor Daniel B. Reid (1805–63), of the University of Indiana; "The Office and Influence of Women in Education," by Professor Agnew of the University of Michigan. Among others who participated in the proceedings were: James Johonnot, Samuel S. Greene, Loren Andrews, Asa D. Lord, Ira Mayhew, and Samuel Galloway. The *Proceedings* and Journal of this meeting were printed in a pamphlet of 146 pages. Bishop Alonzo Potter also presided at the fourth meeting held at Newark, N. J., August 10 to 13, 1852. Among the notable papers and addresses were the following: "Value of Educational Periodicals," by Thomas Henry Burrows (1805–71), superintendent of public instruction in Pennsylvania; "The True Function of Text-

books," by George Barrell Emerson (1797–1881), principal of a girls' school in Boston; "School Discipline," by Asa D. Lord (1816–75), superintendent of schools at Columbus, Ohio; "Cultivation of Taste and Imagination," by Barnas Sears (1802–80), secretary of the State Board of Education of Massachusetts; "Etymology," by Professor Samuel Stehman Haldeman (1812–80), of the University of Pennsylvania, and "School Architecture," by William D. Swan (1809–64), principal of a grammar school in Boston.

The fifth meeting was held at Pittsburg from August 9 to 12, 1853. Joseph Henry (1797–1878), the director of the Smithsonian Institution at Washington, presided, and his presidential address on the "Objects of the Smithsonian Institution" was a notable paper. Several Englishmen were in attendance, and C. Wentworth Dilke of London spoke on "Agricultural Education in England" and "The School of Arts in London." "The Care and Training of Backward Children" was discussed by James B. Richards (1817–86) of the Pennsylvania school for feeble-minded; and there were papers and addresses on: "The Teaching of Drawing;" "The Use of Museums in Science Work;" and "The Education of Girls."

The sixth session of the association was held at Washington, December 26 to 29, 1854, with Alexander Dallas Bache (1806–67), president of Girard College, as president. John S. Hart (1810–77), principal of the Philadelphia high school, read a paper on "The Study of the Anglo-Saxon Languages;" Henry Barnard (1811–1900) gave an account of the educational congress and exhibit held that year in London; Zalmon Richards (1811–99), of Washington, discussed "Mental and Moral Discipline;" and W. P. Ross gave a paper on "The State of Education among the Cherokee Indians."

The seventh meeting was held in New York City, August 28 to 31, 1855, with Henry Barnard (1811–1900), commissioner of common schools in Connecticut, as president. This was in some respects the most important session thus far held. The late Bishop Frederic Dan Huntington (1819–1905), then a professor in Harvard College, gave his classic, "Unconscious Tuition," at this meeting.

The subject of "A National University" was discussed by Alexander Dallas Bache (1806–67), Professor Samuel S. Haldeman (1812–80), Charles Brooks (1795–1872) and Professor Benjamin Peirce (1809–80). President Henry Phillip Tappan (1805–81), of the University of Michigan, gave an account of the recent educational movements in Europe. Professor Denison Olmsted (1791–1859), of Yale College, discussed "Democratic Tendencies in Science." Charles Brooks (1795–1872), a leader in the New England normal-school movement, gave a comprehensive paper on "Moral Education." President Frederick A. P. Barnard (1809–89), of the University of Mississippi (and later of Columbia University), outlined needed improvements in American colleges. John George Hodgins (1821–), deputy superintendent of education in Ontario, reviewed educational conditions in Canada. The subject of compulsory religious instruction in the school occupied three ses-

sions and called forth the keenest discussion in the history of the association. Professor Charles Davies (1798–1876), of the Albany Normal School, introduced the resolution, which, after a vigorous discussion by Superintendent Samuel S. Randall (1809–81), of New York City, Principal William Harvey Wells (1812–85), of the Westfield Normal School, Ethan A. Andrews (1787–1858), Gorham D. Abbott (1807–74), of New York, Bishop Potter, Professor Huntington and others, was (with the amendments) laid upon the table.

The eighth meeting was held at Detroit, August 12 to 15, 1856, with Chancellor Henry P. Tappan (1805–81), of the University of Michigan, as president. Henry Barnard (1811–1900), the retiring president, gave three addresses: (1) "Magnitude of the Educational Interests of the United States;" (2) "Extension of the System and Agencies of Public Instruction in the Several States;" and, (3) "Reformatory Education." President Charles White of Wabash College, Indiana, presented a paper on "The Relation of Education and Religion." Professor A. S. Welch (1821–89), of the Michigan Normal School, made a plea for "A Higher Order of Instruction," and President Tappan gave a paper on "The Educational Views of John Milton." This was the last meeting of the association concerning which I have been able to get detailed information. In the educational journals of the day I find announcements of a ninth meeting held in New York City in 1857, and a tenth at Albany in 1858; but I have been unable to obtain records of either of these meetings. The National Teachers' Association, discussed elsewhere in this volume, was organized in 1857 and naturally absorbed the American Association for the Advancement of Education.

III. OTHER EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS

The logical order of development would require that the history of the National Educational Association follow the historical sketch of the American Association for the Advancement of Education, but it is deemed best to insert here sketches of other associations and agencies, national and semi-national, which during the past fifty years or more have contributed to national educational progress.

The oldest of these associations, the American Association for the Advancement of Science, is the successor of the Association of American Geologists which was organized in Philadelphia in 1840, and reorganized as the A. A. A. S. in the same city in 1848. It has held annual sessions from 1840 to this date, 1907, except during the five years of the Civil War, from 1861 to 1866.

The following historical sketch was prepared for this volume by Dr. L. O. Howard, the permanent secretary:

THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF SCIENCE (1838–)

L. O. HOWARD, PERMANENT SECRETARY, WASHINGTON, D. C.

This organization, which represents for America the field covered by the British Association for the Advancement of Science and the French and German associations of similar character, is at the present time composed of some four thousand two hundred members and fellows, representing all sections of the United States and including many Canadian members, some Central American members, and many Americans resident in different parts of the world. The fellows of the Association comprise, in the words of the constitution, "such of the members as are professionally engaged in science, or have, by their labors, aided in advancing science." There are at the present time 1,864 fellows. The field covered by the Association is a very large one and its component sections are as follows: (*a*) Mathematics and astronomy; (*b*) Physics; (*c*) Chemistry; (*d*) Mechanical science and engineering; (*e*) Geology and geography; (*f*) Zoölogy; (*g*) Botany; (*h*) Anthropology; (*i*) Social and economic science; (*k*) Physiology and experimental medicine. The Association, moreover, has under consideration at the present time the addition of psychology to section *h*, making it "Anthropology and psychology," and the formation of an additional section, namely (*l*) Education.

The Association had its beginnings in 1838 in a correspondence between certain leading geologists among whom were Professor Edward Hitchcock, of Amherst, Henry Darwin Rogers, of Philadelphia, and the four New York geologists, W. W. Mather, Ebenezer Emmons, Lardner Vanuxem, and James Hall, and the paleontologist, T. A. Conrad. The latter five gentlemen held a meeting in 1838 at the house of Dr. Emmons in Albany, and agreed to bring together an organization of scientific men by means of correspondence. In 1840 the Association was founded at Philadelphia on April 2, in the rooms of Franklin Institute, and the name adopted was "The Association of American Geologists." With the adoption of a constitution at the third annual meeting the title was changed to "The American Geologists and Naturalists," indicating a desire for a broader scope. The annual meetings continued under this title until 1848 when on account of the increased interest in certain branches of science, notably mathematics, astronomy, physics, chemistry, ethnology, zoölogy, and botany, a widening of the scope of the Association seemed to be necessary and with it a change of name. At the Boston meeting of the Association of American Geologists and Naturalists, in 1847, it was resolved to enlarge the scope of the existing society and develop its organization so that other workers might be included, and the machinery was put in operation to effect the transformation. Therefore, in 1848, the first meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, as such, was held, on September 20, in Philadelphia, with a membership of 461. Annual meetings were held until 1861. The meeting in 1860 had been held at Newport, R. I.,

with 135 members in attendance and a membership of 644. The meeting for 1861 had been planned for Nashville, Tenn., but owing to the breaking-out of the Civil War this plan was abandoned, and on account of the unfortunate condition of the country for the next five years no meetings were held. In 1866, however, sessions were resumed on August 15, at Buffalo, with an attendance of 79 and a listed membership of 637. Since that date there has been at least one meeting a year down to the present time.

The objects of the Association, as set forth in the constitution, are "by periodical and migratory meetings, to promote intercourse between those who are cultivating science in different parts of America, to give a stronger and more general impulse and more systematic direction to scientific research, and to procure for the labors of scientific men, increased facilities and a wider usefulness." For a few years the greatest possible simplicity was maintained in the organization, the officers being president, secretary, and treasurer. In 1872 two sections were established, *a* and *b*, with a vice-president for each section. These sections were (*a*) Mathematics, physics, and chemistry, and, (*b*) Natural history. In 1882 nine sections were established, which correspond with those listed above, from *a* to *h*, with the exception that instead of (*g*) Botany, there was (*g*) Microscopy. In 1886 the section of microscopy was given up and botany was split off from Section *f*, which, up to that time, had been a section of biology. There is now a vice-president for each of the sections and a secretary also for each section. The vice-president is elected annually and delivers an address on retiring from office. The secretaries of the sections are elected for terms of five years each. The permanent secretary and the treasurer are elected also for terms of five years each. All of the formal legislation of the Association is enacted by its Council, which is composed only of fellows, and on the Council a certain degree of permanence is assured by the election of the fellows from each section and of fellows also by the Council itself for terms of three years.

Of late years the interest of scientific specialists in the Association has been divided by the founding of many national scientific societies of specific and restricted scope, such as the great engineering societies, the American Chemical Society, the American Physical Society, the Society of American Geologists, and others. It has resulted from this that interest in the work of the sections has fallen off to some extent, but the desire on the part of members not only to associate with specialists in their particular department of work but to affiliate with specialists in other branches of scientific investigation has rendered the meetings of the Association even more numerously attended than before. The founding of these societies has also brought about another condition of affairs which has resulted in the establishment of many of these organizations as societies affiliated with the American Association. A specific society of sufficiently high aim may be made an affiliated society on vote of the Council of the American Association and is then entitled to epresentation on the Council of the A. A. A. S., so that this Council as at

present constituted is the broadest and most representative body of active scientific workers in existence in the United States.

The publications of the Association consist of an annual volume of *Proceedings*, and the weekly journal *Science* has since 1900 been the official organ of the Association and publishes all its reports and notices. It is sent free to all members of the Association. The fees are: life membership, $50; entrance fee, $5; and annual dues $3. The meetings of the Association are migratory and the more recent ones have been held in the following cities; 1894, Brooklyn; 1895, Springfield; 1896, Buffalo; 1897, Detroit; 1898, Boston; 1899, Columbus; 1900, New York; 1901, Denver; 1902, Pittsburg; 1903, Washington; 1904, St. Louis; 1905, Philadelphia; 1906, New Orleans; 1906 (summer) Ithaca.

Down to the time of the Pittsburg meeting (June, 1902) the Association met in the summer, but, beginning with the Washington meeting, the so-called "convocation week" was established, *viz.*, the week in which the first day of January falls, and the annual meetings have since been held during that week. An occasional extra summer meeting like that held June 27–July 3, 1906, at Ithaca, may be held.

Considering the Association of American Geologists and Naturalists as essentially the same organization as the American Association for the Advancement of Science, there is then a history of 66 years to cover in any account of the activities of the Association. It is safe to say that all American scientific men of prominence have been connected with it, and it is also safe to say that nearly all of the great scientific discoveries during that period have been announced at its meetings. Its position at the present time is a strong one, and its influence toward the advancement of science is greater than ever before.

The present officers are:

PRESIDENT

W. H. WELCH, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.

VICE-PRESIDENTS

A.—Mathematics and Astronomy—EDWARD KASNER, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

B—Physics—W. C. SABINE, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.

C—Chemistry—CLIFFORD RICHARDSON, 122 E. 34th St., New York, N. Y.

D—Mechanical Science and Engineering—W. R. WARNER, 1722 Euclid Ave., Cleveland, Ohio.

E—Geology and Geography—A. C. LANE, State Geologist, Lansing, Mich.

F—Zoölogy—E. G. CONKLIN, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.

G—Botany—D. T. MACDOUGALL, Carnegie Institution, Washington, D. C.

H—Anthropology—HUGO MÜNSTERBERG, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.

I—Social and Economic Science—CHAS. A. CONANT, Morton Trust Co., New York, N. Y.

K—Physiology and Experimental Medicine—SIMON FLEXNER, Rockefeller Institute, New York, N. Y.

PERMANENT SECRETARY

L. O. HOWARD, Cosmos Club, Washington, D. C.

General Secretary

John F. Hayford, U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey, Washington, D. C.

Secretary of the Council

F. W. McNair, Michigan School of Mines, Houghton, Mich.

Secretaries of the Sections

A—Mathematics and Astronomy—L. G. Weld, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa.

B—Physics—Dayton C. Miller, Case School, Cleveland, Ohio.

C—Chemistry—Charles L. Parsons, New Hampshire College, Durham, N. H.

D—Mechanical Science and Engineering—Wm. T. Magruder, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

E—Geology and Geography—Edmund O. Hovey, American Museum of Natural History, New York, N. Y.

F—Zoölogy—C. Judson Herrick, Denison University, Granville, Ohio.

G—Botany—Francis E. Lloyd, Department of Botanical Research of the Carnegie Institution of Washington, Tucson, Arizona.

H—Anthropology—George H. Pepper, American Museum of Natural History, New York, N. Y.

I—Social and Economic Science—John Franklin Crowell, The Wall Street Journal, New York, N. Y.

K—Physiology and Experimental Medicine—Wm. J. Gies, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

Treasurer

R. S. Woodward, Carnegie Institution, Washington, D. C.

The present constitution of the Council is as follows:

The Council shall consist of the past presidents, and the vice-presidents of the last two meetings, together with the president, the vice-presidents, the permanent secretary, the general secretary, the secretary of the Council, the secretaries of the sections, and the treasurer of the current meeting, of one fellow elected from each section by ballot on the first day of its meeting, of one fellow elected by each affiliated society, and one additional fellow from each affiliated society having more than twenty-five members who are fellows of the Association, and of nine fellows elected by the Council, three being annually elected for a term of three years. The members present at any regularly called meeting of the Council, provided there are at least five, shall form a quorum for the transaction of business. The Council shall meet on the day preceding each annual meeting of the Association, and arrange the program for the first day of the sessions. The time and place of this first meeting shall be designated by the permanent secretary. Unless otherwise agreed upon, regular meetings of the Council shall be held in the Council room at 9 o'clock A. M., on each day of the meeting of the Association. Special meetings of the Council may be called at any time by the president. The Council shall be the board of supervision of the Association, and no business shall be transacted by the Association that has not first been referred to, or originated with, the Council. The Council shall decide which papers, discussions, and other proceedings shall be published, and have the general direction of the publications of the Association; manage the financial affairs of the Association; arrange the business and programs for general sessions; suggest subjects for discussion, investigation or reports; elect members and fellows; and receive and act upon all invitations extended to the Association and report the same at a general session of the Association. The Council shall receive all reports of special committees and decide upon them, and only such shall be read in general session as the Council shall direct. The Council shall appoint at each meeting the following subcommittees who shall act, subject to appeal to the whole Council, until their successors are appointed at the following meeting: 1, on Papers and Reports; 2, on Members; 3, on Fellows.

The relation of public libraries to public education has long been regarded as one of the most important problems of national education. The following sketch by Melvil Dewey, of the American Library Association, sets forth the origin and progress for thirty years of an important new movement in education.

AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION: ORGANIZED 1876, *INCORPORATED* 1879

MELVIL DEWEY, LAKE PLACID CLUB, ESSEX CO., N. Y.

The A. L. A. is the organized expression of the conviction that education is in two distinct parts of equal importance. Attention has been focused on schools from kindergarten to university, and pedagogs, parents, press, and public have thought of them as a complete system, but for most citizens the schools can do pathetically little. The industrial masses have an average of only four or five years of schooling; perhaps five in one hundred get secondary training, and possibly one in one hundred, higher education. The masses are taught at best only to read, many merely like parrots, never acquiring the art of drinking the author's ideas from the printed page, tho they may pass tests for illiteracy. They go out as breadwinners, and their education, if they get anything beyond the pitiful smattering of these four or five years, must be gained from the library and its close allies, museums, study clubs, extension teaching, with tests and credentials for home work, all of which the new movement more and more treats as integral parts of the library system.

Never has there been such a demand for education from adults who have long been out of school, as evidenced by full pages of high-priced magazine advertising of correspondence and other home education schemes. Hundreds of thousands are not only working hard evenings and holidays, but also paying from meager earnings tuition enough to meet all expenses and yield, in some cases, enormous profits, while our schools receive countless millions in endowments and from taxes before they are able barely to meet expenses. Existence of the need is proved, experience shows also that this second half of education can be given effectively and at practicable cost only thru a general system of libraries, receiving as unquestioned a support from public funds as is given now to schools.

In fact the library movement is repeating in a marvelous way, step by step, the exact history of the public-school movement: foundation and support by individuals, cordial recognition as a public necessity, favoring laws, establishment of state departments, library appropriations, training-schools for librarians as for teachers, state aid, reports, and inspection. As it is studied closely the parallel is astonishing. Experience thus confirms the theory that schools and libraries are the two halves of public education. Thru them the state must protect itself against its deadliest foe, ignorance. The public library has the same sanction as the public school. There is the same necessity to foster and liberally support the one as the other. The state raises,

as its chief crop, men. Knowledge is power. Ignorance is poverty. To have its citizens stand on the shoulders of all their predecessors and utilize the wisdom and experience of all the ages, means more than successful armies or inexhaustible mines. Books and brains are better than battleships and big battalions.

A total readjustment of point of view is necessary for most people. When one says that the library is a valuable and useful adjunct to the school, putting it on the same plane as laboratory or gymnasium, he wholly lacks that broad conception of education in which the library is recognized, not as something desirable, but as an absolutely necessary complement to the schools in any satisfactory educational system.

"School education" is carried on by elementary and high schools, colleges, professional and technical schools, and universities, all assuming that attendance on their courses is the student's main business. "Home education" involves no change of residence or interruption of regular vocations, but centers round the library, no longer limited to its etymologic meaning, for it now includes not only books but also museums, study clubs, extension teaching, tests, and credentials. Using these words in their broad senses, libraries furnish the education that comes from reading, museums what comes from seeing, clubs what comes from mutual help. Schools work with those in attendance. Libraries work with those at home. Schools are chiefly for the young. Libraries are for adults as well, including all from cradle to grave. Schools are for a limited course. Libraries are for all of life. School work is compulsory, at least in the lower grades, and is duty under a master. Library work is optional, and is pleasure under a friend. It calls for joyous exercise of the intellectual powers, which always gives most rapid and satisfactory development.

The great function of the teacher, to which he should bend every energy, is to give his pupils a strong taste for reading. Much of the best will follow. Huxley wisely said that to teach boys and girls to read without provision for what that reading shall be is as senseless as to teach them the expert use of knife, fork, and spoon with no provision for their physical food.

The eye rather than the ear is the great gate to the human soul. Most ideas and ideals are chiefly drawn from reading. Books, magazines, and papers more than sermons, addresses, or conversation, set in motion the effective currents. Investigations by educational experts as to what most influenced the lives of children showed that it was neither father nor mother nor school, but their reading. By common consent the supreme thing in education is character building; but character grows out of habits, habits are based on actions, actions on motives, and motives on reflection. But it is reading that makes most people reflect and that is therefore most influential in building that supreme thing, character. A competent and enthusiastic librarian may largely shape the reading, and thru it the thought, with its incalculable influence on character, of his whole community. The old library was a

reservoir concerned chiefly with gathering material. In our generation the reservoir has been changed into a fountain. With every generation the comparative importance of reading increases. Many delegates to meetings and conventions, even when deeply interested, seldom listen to papers and addresses, because they can get the ideas so much more quickly and clearly later from print. The eye can sweep rapidly over matters of little interest, dwell on points of importance, go back to verify preceding statements; so that in much less time much more is gained.

On the material side evidence is just as conclusive. The book is the chief factor in the marvelous evolution of the race. The brute has not the divine gift of speech. We admire the wonderful instincts of bird, or fox, or squirrel, but with minor variations they are the same that their ancestors have had for a thousand generations. The savage with speech and without books passes on something of his acquired knowledge from father to son, but the development is slow. Civilized man has become as a god in what he dares and does, because he stands on the shoulders of all his predecessors and utilizes the work of millions of men in thousands of years.

> For a dwarf on a dead giant's shoulders sees more
> Than the live giant's eyesight availed to explore.

The Indian stripped the birch and built his bark canoe in a day. He felled a tree across the stream and his bridge was done. But our sons have taken the skill and knowledge of their fathers and increased it, each beginning where the other left off. They build a Brooklyn bridge or a ship, either of which costs as much as the land, houses, and furniture of fifty average villages. All this has been possible because the accumulated skill and knowledge has been preserved in print and passed on from generation to generation, so that we may fairly say that the lofty pedestal of our civilization is built up of printed sheets of paper.

It is a supreme concern to provide for our people the best of the literature of power, which inspires and builds character, and of the literature of knowledge, which informs and builds prosperity. This can be done effectively and economically only thru free public libraries. A limited number can buy or hire their books, but experience has proved that knowledge must be as free as air or water, or it is fearfully handicapped; and the state cannot afford to allow any obstacle to remain between a citizen and his desire for either inspiration or information.

Supremely important is the selection and supervision of reading. With a half-dozen nations producing 60,000 to 70,000 new volumes each year, besides the millions already published, it is possible even in a great library, with trained bibliographers and careful study and organization, only to approximate in the effort to supply each reader with what is then and there and to him most valuable. It is the chief work of the American Library Association to help its members with such facilities as they can command to get each year nearer this ever-remote ideal.

ORIGIN

Early in 1876 a firm believer in the great work just opening before libraries as an educational force, and demanding organization and active co-operation, laid out a definite campaign on a plan steadily followed for thirty years. The public was to be educated to the superlative importance of the library, the longest lever with which human hands have ever pried. There was needed at once

1. A monthly journal to focus and interchange results of experiment and experience, to record progress in the whole library field, and to keep all earnest workers in constant touch with the leaders.
2. A national, and, later, state and local organizations.
3. A professional training-school for librarians and assistants.
4. A library bureau as a business supplement to the purely educational agencies.

In carrying out this comprehensive plan, the *American Library Journal* issued its first number September, 1876, having as its board of associate editors twenty recognized leaders in American librarianship.

A year later at the International Library Congress in London, it was made the official journal for the United Kingdom, and the word American was dropped from its title. This library journal, now in its thirty-second year of monthly publication, like each of the other agencies has done well the great work for which it was planned. Its subscription price of $5 never fully met its expenses, but was prohibitive to many, so that in 1896 to meet the demand for an inexpensive periodical *Public Libraries* was started as a monthly at $1 a year. With its resulting much larger circulation, it has done a great work, especially for smaller libraries.

Another pressing need was organization of those interested. The founders of the journal therefore called a library conference in connection with the Philadelphia Centennial Exposition. Hearty responses from prominent librarians led to press announcements and special invitations, thru the U. S. Bureau of Education, to American and leading foreign librarians. October 4, 1876, 103 enthusiastic librarians met in Philadelphia and spent three days comparing methods and actively interchanging views and experience.

The great practical benefits derived and the possibilities of progress and influence suggested by this first meeting convinced the most skeptical, and October 6, 1876, the American Library Association was permanently organized.

GROWTH

A. L. A. influence for some years extended little beyond its own active members. Except for the devotion and self-sacrifice of individuals the A. L. A. and *Library Journal* would have been abandoned in the first half-decade, Then the leaven that had been quietly working began to show itself in improved library methods. Similar plans were adopted for conducting work in many libraries. Co-operative work in many lines was started. Library clubs were formed in various cities. Library associations were organized for

many states. All this, however, was done by those directly connected with libraries. When a library commission was formed by legislative action, it was the first formal state recognition of the library as a necessary part of the educational system. At last the American Library Association, now thirty years old, is generally recognized as one of the great educational forces of our country.

Thus the national organization of 1876 has been supplemented by state associations for more specific work pertaining to single commonwealths, and these in turn are supplemented by organized efforts of local clubs devoted to the general library interests of a single vicinity.

OBJECT OF A. L. A.

The A. L. A. and its supplementary organizations aim to promote the welfare of libraries:

1. By organization and force of numbers to effect needed legislation and other reforms and improvements most of which could not be brought about by individual effort.

2. By co-operation, to improve results and to lessen labor and expense of library administration.

3. By discussion and comparison, to utilize the combined experiments and experience of the profession in perfecting plans and methods and in solving difficulties.

4. By meetings and correspondence, to promote acquaintance and esprit de corps, and to advance the common interests of librarians, trustees, and others engaged in library or allied educational work.

Condensed papers and practical discussions occupy the whole time of its meetings, and the A. L. A. is widely known as perhaps the hardest working of annual conventions.

RECENT MEETINGS

Date	President	Held at	Total Attendance	Members Added
1896, Sept. 1–8....	John Cotton Dann.....	Cleveland.....	363	173
1897, June 21–25.	Wm. Howard Brett.....	Philadelphia.....	315	134
1897, July 13–16.	Justin Winsor.....	London (international).....	94	...
1898, July 5–9....	Herbert Putnam.....	Lakewood-on-Chautauqua, N. Y.....	404	141
1899, May 9–13...	Wm. Coolidge Lane.....	Atlanta, Ga.....	215	83
1900, June 6–12...	Reuben Gold Thwaites....	Montreal.....	452	208
1901, July 3–10....	Henry James Carr.....	Waukesha, Wis.....	460	274
1902, June 14–20..	John Shaw Billings.....	Boston and Magnolia, Mass.....	1018	345
1903, June 22–27..	James Kendall Hosmer....	Niagara Falls, N. Y.....	684	240
1904, Oct. 17–22...	Herbert Putnam.....	St. Louis.....	577	264
1905, July 4–8.....	Ernest Cushman Richardson	Portland, Ore.....	350	174
1906, June 29–Jul. 6	Frank Pierce Hill.....	Narragansett Pier, R. I.....	891	...

Thirty-one have been held from 1876 to 1906. Meetings in 1878 and 1880 were omitted and the international meetings of 1877 and 1897 at London were extras. The whole country has been covered from Boston to San Francisco and Portland; from Montreal to Atlanta and New Orleans. The A. L. A. has met twice in Philadelphia, London, Boston, Washington, and St. Louis. Its central location has given New York state eight of the twenty-nine American meetings. Experience shows June to be the best month, and meetings usually alternate between West and East with an occasional trip to

the South. Those held at summer resorts where nearly all members can be together at one hotel prove more profitable and enjoyable than those in cities where delegates are scattered, and where social attentions break into the time needed for constant business meetings and informal conferences. Intense interest makes most attendants greatly prefer professional to the most attractive social opportunities.

CONSTITUTION

The constitution adopted in 1900 includes these provisions:

The object is to promote the welfare of libraries in America.

Any person or institution engaged in library work may become a member or fellow by paying the annual dues, $2 for individuals and $5 for libraries, and others, after election. Any individual member may become a life member, exempt from dues, by paying $25. For $100 any individual member may become a life fellow, and any institution a perpetual member.

All receipts from life and perpetual memberships and life fellowships, and all gifts for endowment purposes, constitute an endowment fund, invested, and kept forever inviolate, the income only being spent as the council directs, usually thru the publishing board.

All business is entrusted to the board and council, but the association may, by a three-fourths vote of those present and voting, take direct action, or revise the action of the board or council, or give them mandatory instructions.

The president, first and second vice-presidents, secretary, recorder, and treasurer, with the president for the preceding term, constitute this executive board and also serve as officers of board and council.

The president is the representative head of the association, but the secretary is the active executive officer, elected first for one year, and on re-election for three years. He has a salary fixed by the council. The executive officers, president, secretary, treasurer, and recorder, are chosen solely with reference to their ability and willingness to serve the association.

The board administers all business except that intrusted to the council; and, in intervals between meetings of association or council, may act on all matters on which it is unanimously agreed.

Approval in writing by every member of council, board, or committee has the force of a vote. The president and secretary, with one other member arrange the program for meetings and designate persons to prepare papers, open discussions, etc., and decide whether any paper shall be accepted or rejected, and if accepted, whether it shall be read entire, by abstract, or by title. They recommend printing accepted papers entire or to any desirable extent.

The board annually appoints committees of five on library training to investigate the whole subject of library schools and course of study, and report results with recommendations; of three on library administration to consider and report improvements and recommend co-operative plans for greater harmony, uniformity, and economy in administration.

The council consists of the executive board and twenty-five members elected, five each year, to hold office five years. It adopts by-laws and nominates officers for the association, and, may, by two-thirds vote, establish sections or promulgate recommendations; and no resolutions except votes of thanks and on local arrangements can be otherwise promulgated. Nine are a council quorum for routine business, but no section can be established and no recommendation promulgated unless seventeen are present. Council records, so far as of general interest, are printed with association proceedings.

The publishing board of five is appointed by the executive board for terms of three years, to secure preparation and publication of such catalogs, indexes, and other bibliographic and library aids as it may approve. Its treasury is entirely distinct from that of the association, which is not liable for any debts incurred by the board, but money may be appropriated from the association treasury for the board's running expenses.

Sections are established by the council for discussion, comparison of views, and investigations on subjects of special interest to a limited number. No authority is granted any section to incur expense on account of the A. L. A., or to commit it by any declaration of policy. Any A. L. A. member eligible under section rules may join by registering his name.

Provision is made for sessions of the various sections at annual association meetings, and programs are prepared by section officers in consultation with the program committee. No person may vote in any section unless registered as a member.

The section meetings, open to all, provide specially for each class of workers, and afford more opportunity for discussion of details, leaving the regular, or undivided, sessions free for subjects of general interest concerning the entire association.

Various sections have been formally organized:

1. The college and reference section (since 1889).
2. The catalog section (since 1900).
3. Library work with children (since 1900).
4. State library commissions section (since 1902), now merged in the league of library commissions which continues its program and work.
5. Trustees' section (since 1890). More trustees each year recognize the practical value of having their librarians attend the A. L. A., allowing not only their time, but also necessary expenses. Many trustees find that it pays them also to attend the A. L. A. meetings each year. By comparing views, and advising with each other on their peculiar duties, mutual aid is rendered toward efficient discharge of their public trust. Some meetings of trustees are held jointly with librarians interested in supervisory problems; others with only trustees present, thus favoring joint and separate discussion of salaries, laws, vacations, rules for staff, and other questions in which librarians have a personal interest that might modify their judgment.

AFFILIATED BODIES

These former sections have grown to an organization of their own, with kindred aims, meeting with the A. L. A. with which they are formally affiliated.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF STATE LIBRARIES

This was started at the A. L. A. St. Louis meeting of 1899, and deals with all matters pertaining to state libraries.

LEAGUE OF LIBRARY COMMISSIONS

This concerns itself chiefly with the problems of small libraries.

Both these organizations deal with the most important library problem now before the country, the relation of the state to libraries. This includes legislation, subsidies, state aid, exemption from taxation, public documents and their distribution, library commissions, traveling libraries, public libraries departments, annotated lists of best books prepared and distributed by state authorities, and similar questions.

The results already obtained thru library commissions now established in most states indicate that state recognition and organization are the greatest agents of library advancement in the immediate future.

A. L. A. PUBLISHING BOARD

This was a section started in 1886 to secure preparation and publication of catalogs, indexes, and other bibliographic and library aids. At first an annual fee of $10 was charged as in a publishing society. Later it had the income of an embryo endowment fund, and in 1902 Andrew Carnegie started an adequate endowment by giving it $100,000. The board of five give their services outright. It issues books greatly needed, but which a publisher would decline as likely to be commercially unprofitable. To have brought out these valuable aids by co-operative effort and made them self-supporting reflects great credit on the board. The list of publications and extent of sale and usefulness steadily increases. These monthly bulletins guide librarians in spending their public money to the best advantage, both in books and administration.

The growing work of the A. L. A. publishing board at headquarters promises to be the most potent force in increasing the practical efficiency of the modern library movement.

AMERICAN LIBRARY INSTITUTE

The latest outgrowth of the A. L. A. is a library senate, for consideration by the best authorities of the larger questions of librarianship which cannot have adequate treatment in general meetings where programs must regard locality and the many young librarians who come for information and inspiration. The new institute is a kind of library French academy. Election to it is the highest honor the profession can show its recognized leaders.

Its recently adopted constitution (to be had from its president, Melvil

Dewey, Lake Placid Club, Essex Co., N. Y.) gives as its object "to provide for study and discussion of library problems by a representative body chosen from English-speaking America, regardless of residence or official position." There are not to exceed 100 fellows. Recognized library thinkers and workers in other countries, whose co-operation is wished, may be elected corresponding members by unanimous vote of the board or a three-fourths vote of the institute. All ex-presidents of the A. L. A., and, during their terms of office, members of its executive board and council, have seats in all meetings, of which there are to be at least two annually. All formal votes are by correspondence. On request of five fellows any proposition may be submitted to vote with summaries of the arguments for and against. No conclusion can be promulgated as an expression of the institute till it has been approved by a three-fourths vote of all the fellows.

The secretary records those present at each meeting; the number and, on request, the names voting for and against any proposition. This extreme care to protect against hasty or ill-advised promulgation of conclusions, is designed to give the institution's decisions unquestioned authority.

A. L. A. CATALOG

In 1879 the A. L. A. enthusiastically adopted its secretary's proposal to prepare and publish, with the co-operation of the most experienced librarians and specialists, a list of 5,000 of the best books, with compact notes indicating scope, character, and value, to be known as the A. L. A. catalog and to serve:

1. As a guide to bookbuyers whether for private or public libraries.
2. As a guide to readers in choosing what books they might best take from the library or from their own shelves.
3. As a manual to teach younger and prompt older librarians or booksellers in answering most wisely the constant inquiry for the best book on a given subject.
4. To take the place of the printed catalog in small public libraries. The call number of all books in the library could be written in the margin, thus showing at once that the library had the book and where it could be found, while unmarked titles would be the best list to buy first.
5. As a most convenient catalog for private libraries, by checking in the margin all books owned.
6. As a check list of books read, personal notes being added in margins.

For the World's Columbian Exposition of 1893 an edition without notes was issued, called *Catalog of A. L. A. Library.*

The classified and annotated *A. L. A. Catalog* of 1904, prepared for the St. Louis Exposition, includes 7,520 volumes best adapted to small libraries and those just starting, but suitable also for any public library.

LIBRARY SCHOOLS

The public-school system amounted to little, even with great appropriations, till normal schools and academic training classes were established to prepare teachers for their work. The founders of the A. L. A. insisted that its corner stone was professional training of librarians and assistants from the

best men and women who could be enlisted in the new work. While collections of books called libraries were as old as Nineveh and Babylon, the missionary spirit which makes the modern library movement was new. May 7, 1883, the A. L. A. secretary, then chief librarian of Columbia University, urged its trustees to found the first library school. This he opened January 5, 1887, and continued as director for nineteen years. April 1, 1889, it was transferred to the state when its head became director of N. Y. state library interests. Several other schools conducted by its graduates have been started; the first three at Pratt Institute (Brooklyn), University of Illinois, and Drexel Institute (Philadelphia). These were followed by Western Reserve University of Cleveland, Syracuse University, and Simmons College, Boston. The Pittsburg Carnegie Library has a training-school for children's librarians, and the Atlanta Carnegie Library has a Southern Library School to meet their special needs. Summer schools are regularly conducted by New York State, by Chautauqua, Wisconsin, Iowa, Minnesota, and McGill Universities, and by several state library commissions. Librarianship is now firmly established as a distinct profession. Its best schools are growing more efficient, and poor ones will be crowded out or improved, as has been the case with training for teachers.

RESULTS OF LIBRARY DEVELOPMENT

In 1896, twenty years after the A. L. A. was founded, the N. E. A. created a library department. Before the unanimous vote, it was made clear that it meant more than had the establishment of other departments for various sections of school work; that it would be official recognition of the validity of the strong A. L. A. claim that education was in two great parts: (1) the schools; (2) the library, and like agencies of home education equally deserving public interest and financial support.

While America is recognized thruout the world as the pioneer and leader in this modern library movement, other nations have not been idle. International library congresses were held in London in 1877; at Chicago in 1893; in London again in 1897, when delegates from some thirty nations were present, and at St. Louis in 1904. The time has now come for international library organizations, and committees are now doing the preliminary work.

This recognition of the power and interest of library and reading has broadened, deepened, and grown steadily, rapidly, and irresistibly. It appeals almost invariably to the good judgment of all classes. No movement has had so little opposition and so general support, so much favorable legislation, so large appropriation of public funds, so munificent gifts from private sources.

Historians already tell us that the future will record this marvelous growth and improvement in libraries as distinctively the library age, as we now recognize as the "cathedral age" the period when so many of the world's greatest churches were built.

The library campaign of the last thirty years has produced many obvious results. Buildings, books, and facilities have grown almost incredibly. Every

self-respecting community, even tho very small, recognizes the library as a necessity and would feel insulted to be asked, "Have you a library?" just as it would to be asked "Have you a school, or a church, or a post-office?" Branches and deliveries have sprung up in the larger places. Open shelves where readers may handle books freely for themselves are common. Special rooms, furniture, books, and librarians are provided for little children. Pictures, music, and museum specimens are treated as a legitimate part of the library, not only for reference, but for circulation and as part of that modern agent of wonderful utility, the traveling library (public, home, and house) that lends collections of books more freely than we used to lend single volumes. Schools have bulletin notices from the nearest library of new books most likely to interest and profit pupils. Teachers take their classes to the local library where they receive the warmest welcome and every help that special training, skill, and earnestness can give. The leading state libraries are waking to new life and responsibility and taking on a part at least of their natural functions as book centers for the whole state. At last we have a national library at Washington of which every American is justly proud. Its books, services, and publications are no longer merely for Congress and the capital, but for every citizen who really needs them in any part of the United States. Bibliographies and other aids of the greatest practical value from the government printing office are sent free, or at nominal cost, to all our public libraries. The more progressive cities appoint experts at high salaries whose sole duty is to help public-school pupils utilize more fully their library privileges.

While all experience proves that the best results can be obtained only when libraries and schools are under independent governing boards, cordial co-operation between school and library officials is the rule. The school in the few early years gives the tools with which children acquire their education; the library thru the rest of life gives the material without which these tools are useless.

The successful modern librarian is an altruist and an optimist. Library meetings are famous for their many and long sessions and hard and enthusiastic work. The A. L. A. from its inception has been singularly free from the self-seeking, personal politics and other elements which so often cripple large organizations.

To meet the growing demand the A. L. A. in 1906 opened permanent headquarters at 34 Newberry St., Boston, and expects within a few years to have similar offices in New York, Chicago, and possibly other great centers, more effectively to help libraries in each section accomplish the greatest good possible with the means at their disposal. This provides for the first time a permanent central home for the great collection of library blanks, forms, pictures, models, and appliances collected by the various officers and committees since 1876, and deposited with the Library School, because the A. L. A. had not yet a place of its own for exhibiting them.

In these days of rapid library progress every librarian who wishes to keep

abreast of his profession must keep in close touch with this representative national body. In it are enrolled from all parts of the country, not only librarians, but also many others interested in libraries as an educational agency. To its leaders libraries everywhere turn for advice as to buildings, administration, and employees; and from its ranks nearly all important library positions in the country are filled. A recognized authority says:

> This national body has already accomplished a great and steadily growing educational work. It is not merely a union of professional librarians, but includes many who appreciate that the greatest educational problem is development of public libraries as a supplement to public schools, and who recognize in this association the organized forces now shaping the modern library movement in America.

The time was when a library was a museum, where visitors looked with curious eyes at ancient tomes and manuscripts, and the librarian was a mouser in musty books. The time now is when a library is a school, and the librarian in the highest sense a teacher.

Two recently organized boards for the advancement of public education in those sections most needing aid are here presented in sketches by the respective secretaries of these boards.

GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD

WALLACE BUTTRICK, SECRETARY, NEW YORK CITY

The General Education Board is an organization chartered by Congress, with offices at No. 2 Rector Street, New York City. It employs a force of experts in the continuous and systematic study of educational conditions in all of the states of the Union, and the intelligent promotion of education, by means of gifts and otherwise, in the discretion of the Board of Trustees. The scheme originated with Mr. John D. Rockefeller's Committee on Benevolence, and was under advisement in his office from time to time for several years before the organization was finally effected. The plan of such an organization was designed and adapted to assist Mr. Rockefeller in distributing his gifts to education; but it was not the purpose to confine the work of the organization to the administration of funds given by Mr. Rockefeller. It was designed to meet a wider need and to afford a medium thru which other men of means, who desire to promote education in its various forms in the United States, could do so in a systematic, intelligent, and effective way.

The gentlemen forming the first board were the late William H. Baldwin, Jr., Wallace Buttrick, the late Hon. J. L. M. Curry, Frederick T. Gates, Daniel C. Gilman, Morris K. Jessup, Robert C. Ogden, Walter H. Page, George Foster Peabody, John D. Rockefeller, Jr., and Albert Shaw. These gentlemen were all chosen for their knowledge of educational conditions and their experience in educational benefaction. They were already members either of the Peabody Board, or the Slater Board, or the Southern Education Board, or other organizations aiming to foster education in the United States.

The board in its make-up was thus representative of all educational interests and of all sections of the country.

These gentlemen met at the invitation of Mr. John D. Rockefeller, Jr., at his home in New York, on February 27, 1902, Mr. Edward M. Shepard being present also as counsel. A temporary organization was there formed pending the securing of a charter by act of Congress.

A few days later Mr. John D. Rockefeller pledged a million dollars to the work of the board, confining its use particularly to the study of education in the southern states and the promotion of the same—a contribution which he had long had in mind to make so soon as a suitable organization could be prepared for the proper administration of the fund.

A broad and generous charter, prepared by Mr. Edward M. Shepard, was passed by Congress and signed by President Roosevelt on the 12th day of January, 1903.

The permanent organization of the board was completed at a meeting in the City of Washington on the 29th day of January, 1903, when formal by-laws were adopted. Mr. W. H. Baldwin, Jr., was chosen chairman, Mr. George Foster Peabody, treasurer, and Mr. Wallace Buttrick, secretary and executive officer.

Subsequently the membership of the board was enlarged by the addition of Mr. Hugh H. Hanna, of Indianapolis, Mr. Starr J. Murphy, of New York. the late President William R. Harper, of the University of Chicago, Chancellor E. Benjamin Andrews, of the University of Nebraska, President Edwin A. Alderman, of the University of Virginia, Acting President Harry Pratt Judson, of the University of Chicago, and Principal H. B. Frissell, of Hampton Institute, The board has been depleted by the death of Mr. W. H. Baldwin, Jr., Hon. J. L. M. Curry, and President W. R. Harper.

SURVEY OF THE FIELD

The board opened an office in New York City on April 1, 1902, and formally began its work. Its first attention was given to a careful survey and study of educational conditions and needs in the southern states. Thru the courtesy of state officers conferences were held with state and county superintendents and leading educators in eight of the southern states. Blanks were prepared and sent to incorporated schools of all grades in the southern states and to county superintendents of schools. Agents of the board traveled extensively in all of the states of the South, conferring with school authorities and other citizens interested in education. Catalogs of colleges and schools, and other published material, were gathered, studied, filed and cataloged in the office of the board. Monograph studies of the several states were prepared for the use of the office and for the members of the board.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

As one result of its studies the board decided that it could best aid in the promotion of elementary schools in the southern states by seeking to increase

productive efficiency of rural life. The board was led to this conclusion by the following considerations:

(1) The elementary school cannot be given to a community, but must represent community ideals, community initiative, and community achievement.

(2) The South is rural; 85 per cent. of the people of the southern states live in the country and are engaged in agriculture. With the exception of certain favored localities, farming is not sufficiently profitable to support elementary schools of high grade and full term; schools are poor, homes are poor, farms are isolated, and the community spirit does not prevail.

(3) There is a large body of agricultural knowledge which has not been put to practical use.

(4) The best way to improve elementary schools in the South, therefore, is to train present farmers in scientific farming so that thru the renovation and renewal of soils, the rotation of crops, the choice of selected seeds, and thoro cultivation, more money can be made by farming. It is, of course, not possible to teach the science of farming in elementary schools that do not exist, nor is it sound pedagogy to expect that science, properly so called, can ever be taught in schools of elementary grade, much less so taught as to materially influence the methods of present farmers. It is also true that the bulletins put forth by departments of agriculture have not given the farmer the definite information needed to improve his agricultural processes. The average man is not trained to interpret scientific documents. The only place to write this information is on the soil. When written there it will be read and intelligently understood by farmers.

Learning of the demonstration fields and farms established in Texas by the United States Department of Agriculture under Dr. S. A. Knapp, special agent of the department, the board sent its representative to look into this work. It was found that by demonstration fields and farms Dr. Knapp and his assistants had not only been able to overcome the ill effects of the boll weevil, but had so taught scientific farming as greatly to increase the agricultural output of Texas, to enhance the value of land, and to create a condition of hope and general prosperity among the farmers of the state.

In conferring with the Secretary of Agriculture it was learned that the department could co-operate with the General Education Board in promoting this work in other states of the South. The board has therefore entered into such an agreement with the Department of Agriculture for the promotion of this work in Alabama and Mississippi and expects to extend the work to other states in the South as rapidly as trained men for supervision can be found. The work is extending as rapidly as facilities of administration will permit. It is the conviction of the board that the prosecution of this form of work thru a period of years will so increase the productive efficiency of rural life as to make it possible for rural communities to support an efficient system of elementary schools.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

A further result of the studies of the board was the conviction that one of the special educational needs of the South is that of an efficient system of public high schools. In the past the "preparatory" schools of the South were among the best in the country. In the cities of the South excellent high schools have been established, and many graded schools have added from one to three high-school grades. But for its population the South has but a limited number of standard public high schools.

The board decided that it could best promote the founding of high schools by co-operation with state universities. It therefore made appropriations to several state universities for the salaries and traveling expenses of "professors of secondary education" who are regular members of the university faculties and whose "main and principal work shall be to ascertain where the conditions are favorable for the establishment of public high schools not now in existence; they shall visit such places and shall endeavor to organize in such places public high schools in accordance with the laws of the state, shall endeavor to create in such community a public sentiment that shall permanently sustain such high schools, and shall endeavor to place the high schools under such local leadership as shall give them intelligent and wise direction, and they and the university shall exercise a fostering care over such institutions."

Professors of secondary education, under the above plan of co-operation, have been appointed in the state universities of Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, and Tennessee. The monthly reports of these men are manifolded, bound together, and sent to the several professors of secondary education, the presidents of the universities, and to the members of the General Education Board. In November, 1906, a conference of these professors together with university presidents and state superintendents of education was held at Charlottesville, Va. The work has now been thoroly defined and organized, and more than two hundred new high schools have been established during the past year.

A LARGER GIFT TO HIGHER EDUCATION

On June 30, 1905, the board received the following communication:

I am authorized by Mr. John D. Rockefeller to say that he will contribute to the General Education Board the sum of ten million dollars ($10,000,000) to be paid October 1, next, in cash, or, at his option, in income-producing securities, at their market value, the principal to be held in perpetuity as a foundation for education, the income above expenses of administration to be distributed to, or used for, the benefit of such institutions of learning, at such times, in such amounts, for such purposes, and under such conditions, or employed in such other ways, as the board may deem best adapted to promote a comprehensive system of higher education in the United States.

Yours very truly,

(signed) F. T. Gates.

This large gift Mr. Rockefeller paid in cash, and the board, in accepting

it, designated it as "The John D. Rockefeller Foundation for Higher Education."

The income of this large foundation for higher education enabled the board to extend its work thruout the whole country, as contemplated in its charter. Studies had already been made of the colleges in the southern states and such studies were at once made of the colleges in other parts of the United States. After such comprehensive study and the careful consideration of how best to aid in the development of an adequate system of colleges in all of the states of the Union, the board adopted the following principles as defining its general policy: *To co-operate sympathetically and helpfully with the religious denominations; to choose the centers of wealth and population as the permanent pivots of an educational system; to mass its funds on endowments, securing in this work the largest possible local co-operation.*

Conditional appropriations have been made, from the income of the John D. Rockefeller Foundation, to colleges in the states of Iowa, Kansas, Wisconsin, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Tennessee, Missouri, Colorado, Indiana, Ohio, Maine, Connecticut, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania. Applications from all the remaining states and territories of the Union are now under consideration. The total amount conditionally appropriated by the board up to March 26, 1907, was $1,702,500. When this sum has been paid and the conditions fulfilled more than $9,215,000 will have been added to the endowment of the colleges of these nineteen states.

From the original one million dollar gift to the board by Mr. Rockefeller, appropriations have been made to schools in the South amounting to $416,000, one-half of which has gone to schools for the colored people.

On February 7, 1907, at a special meeting of our Board, the following communication was received:

General Education Board,
54 Williams Street, New York City.
Gentlemen:

My father authorizes me to say that on or before April 1, 1907, he will give to the General Education Board income bearing securities, the present market value of which is about Thirty-two million dollars ($32,000,000.), one-third to be added to the permanent endowment of the Board; two-thirds to be applied to such specific objects within the corporate purposes of the Board as either he or I may from time to time direct, any remainder not so designated at the death of the survivor, to be added also to the permanent endowment of the Board.

Very truly,
(signed) JOHN D. ROCKEFELLER, JR.

This fund has also been turned over to the custody of our Board.

On April 4, 1905, Miss Anna T. Jeanes of Philadelphia, Pa., gave to the board in trust the sum of $200,000, the income of which is to be used for the "assistance of the negro rural schools in the South." The board accepted this gift and named it "The Anna T. Jeanes Fund for the Assistance of Negro

Rural Schools in the South." By request of Miss Jeanes the income of this fund is appropriated for the present on the joint recommendation of the Principals of Hampton Institute and Tuskegee Institute, subject to the approval of the board.

From the foregoing it will be seen that in the northern states the board devotes itself exclusively to the promotion of collegiate education, having always in view the desirability of aiding such institutions as taken together will constitute an adequate system of higher education for each of the several states, thus seeking to correct and prevent duplication and waste and securing the highest efficiency.

In the southern states its work for colleges is similar to that done in the North, and in addition it seeks to promote public high schools thru the state universities and the state departments of education, and to promote elementary education (or common schools) by increasing the productive efficiency of rural life.

The officers of the board for 1907 are Frederick T. Gates, chairman, George Foster Peabody, treasurer, Wallace Buttrick, secretary.

THE SOUTHERN EDUCATION BOARD

EDGAR GARDNER MURPHY, SECRETARY, MONTGOMERY, ALA.

Present organization.—President, Robert C. Ogden, 784 Broadway, New York City; vice-president and treasurer, George Foster Peabody, 54 William St., New York City; secretary, Edgar Gardner Murphy, P. O. Box 347, Montgomery, Alabama; associate secretary, George S. Dickerman, 140 Cottage St., New Haven, Conn.; chairman of the campaign committee, Edwin Anderson Alderman, president of the University of Virginia, Charlottesville, Virginia. Additional members of the board, Albert Shaw, Wallace Buttrick, Walter H. Page, F. R. Chambers, New York City; Chas. W. Dabney, president of the University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio; H. H. Hanna, Indianapolis, Ind.; H. B. Frissell, principal of Hampton Institute, Hampton, Virginia; D. F. Houston, president of the University of Texas, Austin, Texas; S. C. Mitchell, professor in Richmond College, Richmond, Virginia; Henry E. Fries, Raleigh, N. C.; P. P. Claxton, professor in the University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tenn.; Sydney J. Bowie, Birmingham, Alabama. Members deceased, J. L. M. Curry, late agent of the Peabody and Slater Boards; William H. Baldwin, Jr., late president of the Long Island R. R.; Walter B. Hill, late chancellor of the University of Georgia; Charles D. McIver, late president of the State Normal and Industrial College of North Carolina.

History.—On the evening of June 29, 1898, a small but earnest group gathered in the chapel of the Capon Springs Hotel at Capon Springs, West Virginia, for the consideration of educational conditions in the South. The members of this group, representing elements in the "unofficial statesmanship"

of both sections of the country, were united by a desire to understand more fully and to serve more broadly the needs of the overburdened South. The second conference met at Capon Springs on June 20, 1899; and the third on June 27, 1900. The presidents of these successive gatherings were, respectively, Rt. Rev. T. U. Dudley, D. D., bishop of Kentucky; Hon. J. L. M. Curry, agent of the Peabody and Slater Boards; and Mr. Robert C. Ogden, of New York City. The secretary and treasurer was Rev. A. B. Hunter, of Raleigh, N. C. The continuous life of the conference was made possible largely thru the wise and efficient activities of Hollis Burke Frissell, D.D., principal of Hampton Institute.

The death of Captain W. H. Sale who, as proprietor of the hotel at Capon Springs, had acted as the host of the gathering, suggested the advisability of holding the conference at other points within the South. The fourth conference met, therefore, at Winston-Salem, N. C., on April 18, 1901, under the presidency of Mr. Robert C. Ogden. Since his first election in 1900, Mr. Ogden, by the unanimous request of southern and northern members, has acted as the presiding officer. At Winston-Salem the demand for more positive and aggressive activity than could be expressed thru the influences of an annual gathering resulted in resolutions looking toward the establishment of an executive board.

The appointment of this body was intrusted to the president with the understanding that he was to be included within the number. After extended correspondence and mature consideration the Southern Education Board was thus organized in the City of New York on November 3, 1901: its earliest members being Robert C. Ogden, president; J. L. M. Curry, supervising director; George Foster Peabody, treasurer; Charles D. McIver, secretary; Chas. W. Dabney, Edwin Anderson Alderman, Wallace Buttrick, and Hollis Burke Frissell. These gentlemen added to their number Messrs. Baldwin, Shaw, Page, and Hanna, as indicated above. Mr. Edgar Gardner Murphy, of Montgomery, Alabama, was named by Mr. Ogden as executive secretary, associated with the president, was later added to the membership of the board, and later still was elected as the board's secretary. Dr. George S. Dickerman of New Haven was appointed a general field agent, and in 1906 was elected a member of the board with the position of associate secretary. Dr. Booker T. Washington, of Tuskegee, Alabama, while not a member of the organization, was appointed a general field agent, and has been of special service in relation to the various phases of negro education. Messrs. Houston, Mitchell, Fries, Claxton, and Bowie were elected members of the board in the year 1906.

The conferences have not been abandoned with the creation of the board. Its annual meetings have continued, and have served to give popular interpretation to the policies of the board, to bring the scattered forces of the southern educational movement into closer personal association, to awaken popular interest, and to give direction and efficiency to enthusiasms already aroused. The meeting of 1902 was held at Athens, Ga.; of 1903 at Richmond,

Va.; of 1904 at Birmingham, Alabama; of 1905 at Columbia, S. C.; of 1906 at Lexington, Ky. In each instance the place of meeting was selected in response to urgent local invitations usually representing the municipality, the legislature, the governor, and the state department of education. The attendance has been chiefly from the South, but there has been each year a notable representation from the North as well. The center of the northern group has been a party of distinguished educators, clergymen, publicists, and men of affairs brought by special train thru the personal courtesy and generosity of the president of the conference and of the Southern Education Board, Mr. Robert C. Ogden.

Personnel.—One of the distinguishing marks of the movement represented by the Conference for Education has been the varied character of its membership. Public education has been conceived in its relation to citizenship, and the active participants in these annual gatherings have not been limited to teachers. In an effort of genuine civic consecration, men of affairs from every department of activity—merchants, members of Congress, journalists, governors of states, bankers, and manufacturers have united with the educators of the South in an effort to equip and extend the school as an institution of society itself—not as a restricted interest of technical "education," but as a constructive agency of the state. The same conception of educational service is reflected in the personnel of the Southern Board. At its semi-annual meetings, trained and professional educators are found in administrative conference with the lawyer, the merchant, the clergyman, the journalist, the manufacturer.

Principles and policies.—Within these meetings the reports from every quarter of the South are presented and considered, and the broad outlines of future policy are determined. The active work of the board is in the hands of the "campaign committee," made up exclusively of the southern members, namely, Edwin A. Alderman, chairman; with Messrs. Frissell, Dabney, Murphy, Houston, Mitchell, Fries, Claxton, Bowie. The title of the committee indicates the distinctive activity of the board. It is not a body for the holding and disbursement of funds. It has no money to give to educational institutions. Its resources and energies are expended in the couduct of a practical "campaign" for the arousing and the wise direction of educational sentiment. The administration of financial aid to educational institutions and enterprises is the function of its allied organization, the General Education Board, to an account of which in this volume (p. 490) the reader is referred. The Southern Education Board is solely the organization of the propaganda, laboring at the South, in close and cordial co-operation with the state departments of education, to increase the popular interest in the public schools, to inaugurate or to support local movements for increased taxation, the improvement of schoolhouses, the creation of school libraries, and the general development of all that makes for a just, wholesome, and efficient system of public education. As the free education of both races at the public cost is the established and official policy of each southern state, the

board has stood for the right training of all the people, white and black, accepting in the affairs of the South the initiative of its southern members and working in conformity with the fixed conditions of the local educational system.

But the essential standpoint of the board is national rather than sectional. The presence of its northern members has been vital to its most distinctive work. The sympathetic co-operation of northern and southern men has helped to bring into clearer relief the national phases of the whole southern situation—the South with limited resources struggling with the double burden of the education of two populations, the masses of the white population poor, the black poorer still; the races estranged by the conditions which preceded war and still further estranged by the conditions which followed; inadequate resources strained by that ineffective distribution of social forces which is usually characteristic of sections preponderantly rural; and doubly strained by the necessity for a dual system of schools, a separate housing of the races, demanded alike by their interests and their aversions. The whole nation has been so intimately involved in the creation of this problem in its earlier stages, that the constructive leadership of the South has found both fellowship and inspiration in the men of national temper who have recognized in our southern difficulties a challenge to a national response.

Practical methods.—It is difficult within the brief space at command to deal with the detail of a movement so inspirational and untechnical in its character and so complex in its ramifications.

In order to provide a general as well as a statistical literature of the subject a bureau of publication was maintained for two years at Knoxville, Tenn., under the oversight of Dr. Charles W. Dabney, then president of the University of Tennessee. Its work was far-reaching in its interest and usefulness.

The chief function of the board, however, has been the winning of rural communities to a larger policy of local taxation for school purposes. In states where the unit of taxation has been the county, assistance has been given to the "county campaign," the representatives of the board helping in the organization of public meetings, defraying the actual expenses of effective speakers, creating and circulating the literature of the subject, and co-operating generally with the local educational leaders in an effort to secure an affirmative popular vote on the question of a larger local tax for the benefit of the schools. In one state more than forty counties have voted the additional tax within a period of two years, adding over $350,000 per year to the public education funds of the state.

Where the unit of taxation is the school district, the same methods are employed; the board working here, as always, solely thru the authorized and accepted agencies of the locality concerned. These local campaigns have powerfully affected the general school legislation of the state. State funds—heretofore the chief resource of the southern school system—have rapidly increased, in a number of states, from 50 to 100 per cent. during the past five years.

Local organizations of women for the improvement of rural schoolhouses have been established; or, in cases where such activities have already existed, they have been strengthened and equipped for still larger work. The movements for the formation of school libraries, for the development of high schools, for agricultural education and manual training have all received recognition and reinforcement. The board does not assume that the educational awakening of the South has been wholly due to its initiative, but its vital part in this arousal of popular enthusiasm for the common schools is generally recognized. Its activities have been conspicuous and at many points decisive.

Bibliography.—See the *Annual Reports of the Conference for Education in the South* (Publication Committee, General Education Board, 54 William St., New York City); also *Bulletins and Publications of the Bureau of the Southern Education Board*, Knoxville, Tenn. (many of which, however, are now out of print); also chap. viii of the *Report of the U. S. Commissioner of Education for 1903;* and *Problems of the Present South*, by Edgar Gardner Murphy, Secretary of the Southern Education Board, Macmillan & Co., New York and London, 1904.

The special problems and needs of the South led to the organization in 1888 of a Southern Educational Association which has uniformily co-operated with the National Educational Association. The following historical sketch was prepared for this volume by Superintendent Tighe of Asheville, N. C., who has been the executive secretary of the association for a number of years.

THE SOUTHERN EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

RICHARD J. TIGHE, SECRETARY OF THE SOUTHERN EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, ASHEVILLE, N. C.

The need of an educational association for the tier of states south of the Potomac and of the Ohio began to be seriously felt and discussed about the year 1888, when several state educational journals gave expression to that need in editorials and contributed articles. In June, 1889, the *Educational Exchange*, published at Birmingham, contained a paper upon the subject written by President R. N. Roark, of the Kentucky State Teachers' Association, together with an editorial by the editor, approving the suggestion that such an organization should be established at once. The June issue of the *Georgia Educational Journal* contained the following:

> The *Journal* sounds the call for a Southern Educational Association. In 1878, a convention of southern educators was held in Atlanta, and several important questions concerning education in the South were discussed, but no effort was made to make the organization permanent, and it adjourned "without day." We said then, and we repeat it now, that there is great need for a Southern Educational Association, and we appeal to our leading men in the profession from Virginia to Texas to take the matter under serious consideration. Nor do we mean that such an organization should in any way antagonize the National Educational Association. On the other hand, it would most certainly prove auxiliary in many ways to that body. And we unhesitatingly nominate

Alabama as the state to take the lead in the movement. She is the key in the South Atlantic Arch, and her teachers are thoroughly awake and inspiringly enthusiastic. Let her able and progressive state superintendent, Hon. Solomon Palmer, lead off in the matter and issue a call for a meeting of southern educators, in Birmingham, Atlanta, or Columbia, in December, to organize a Southern Educational Association.

At a meeting of the Alabama Educational Association held in Birmingham June 25–27, the same year, the following resolution, introduced by Professor S. L. Robertson, was adopted:

Resolved, That the Alabama Educational Association favors the organization of a Southern Teachers' League or Association, in the interest of our southern educational system, and that the representatives of the southern states, at the Nashville meeting of the N. E. A., in July, be requested to meet and discuss the advisability of such an organization.

This is the first official act, of which we have any record, with regard to the association. A few days later a similar resolution was adopted by the Kentucky State Teachers' Association. At the Nashville meeting, however, it was not found convenient to hold the meeting advised by these resolutions.

The *Educational Exchange*, in December 1889, and in succeeding issues published a large number of communications and editorial expressions with regard to the purposes, time and place of holding such an association. The general tenor of all the expressions was to the effect that the Southern Association was not intended as a substitute, but rather as a helpful assistant to the National Association.

During the month of January, 1890, the following formal call was issued from the office of State Superintendent Palmer of Montgomery:

The undersigned, feeling a lively interest in the educational progress of the whole country, and especially of the South, and believing that this end can be best secured by an organization composed of southern educators, who will meet at least annually, for the purpose of discussing questions that now confront the South alone in her educational advancement, and believing that such organization will not in the least detract from the attendance of the southern school men upon the National Educational Association, but will rather contribute to increase the interest in and attendance upon such meetings of the National Educational Association, and believing that no city in the South is as favorably located for such a meeting as Montgomery, Alabama, and no time so favorable as the 26th of June, 1890—the time when the State Educational Association of Alabama meets in Montgomery—we do respectfully and most cordially invite and urge the State Superintendents of Maryland, Virginia, West Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Tennessee, Kentucky, Florida, Mississippi, Louisiana, Texas, and Arkansas, and all other school officers and teachers of the states named, and of other states, feeling an interest in the progress of education in the South, to come together at Montgomery, the capital city of Alabama, on Thursday, the 26th day of June next, for the purpose of effecting the organization of an association that shall accomplish much good in advancing the educational interests of the South.

Solomon Palmer, State Superintendent of Alabama
J. S. Hook, State School Commissioner of Georgia
J. R. Preston, State Superintendent of Mississippi
J. A. Breaux, State Superintendent of Louisiana
O. D. Smith, President Alabama Educational Association, Auburn Ala.

W. F. Slaton, Superintendent of Schools, Atlanta, Ga.
J. H. Phillips, Superintendent of Schools, Birmingham, Ala.
L. B. Evans, Superintendent of Schools, Augusta, Ga.
E. C. Branson, Superintendent of Schools, Athens, Ga.
W. Harper, Superintendent of Schools, Dalton, Ga.
Miss M. Rutherford, Pres. Lucy Cobb Institute, Athens, Ga.
W. A. Candler, President Emory College, Oxford, Ga.
J. C. Lyner, Pres. Military College, Milledgeville, Ga.
R. N. Roark, President State Normal College, Lexington, Ky.
Jas. K. Powers, Pres. State Normal College, Florence, Ala.

In accordance with this call, the meeting was held and proved a great success, both from the standpoint of interest and attendance. All the southern states, except two—West Virginia and North Carolina—were represented. Important and interesting addresses were made by Captain W. R. Garrett, of Tennessee, then secretary, and later president of the National Educational Association; by Hon. John E. Massey, state superintendent of education, Richmond, Va.; Hon. J. R. Preston, state superintendent of education, Jackson, Miss.; Superintendent Warren Easton, of New Orleans, and others. Hon. Solomon Palmer, of Alabama, was elected president, and Professor Frank A. Goodman, of Tennessee, was elected secretary. Invitations were extended to the association by Chattanooga, New Orleans, Atlanta, and Nashville, but the selection of the place for the next meeting was left to the executive committee, which later selected Chattanooga.

A circular letter dated January 30, 1890, was issued by Mr. E. G. Harrel, Editor of the *North Carolina Teacher*, calling for the organization of a Southern Educational Association at a meeting of the North Carolina State Teachers' Association at Morehead City. This organization was effected in July, 1890, some time after the Montgomery Association had been organized. The circular calling for the Morehead City organization was inspired by an unfortunate incident, which occurred at the Nashville meeting of the N. E. A., and separation from the National Association was one of its strongest purposes. There was a strong desire, however, to unite the two organizations, but the membership of the Montgomery Association could not indorse all the ideas, for which the Morehead City branch stood. After some correspondence, President Palmer called a meeting of his executive committee at Chattanooga, January 24, 1891, to consider a plan for the consolidation of the two associations. Members of the executive committee were present from Alabama, Georgia, South Carolina, Tennessee, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Florida, while the secretary, Mr. F. A. Goodman, held proxies from all those from other southern states who were unable to be present. After spending the entire day in conference, resolutions were adopted, in which a formal proposition was made to the Morehead City Association for union, which was accepted by its president, Mr. Josiah H. Shinn, of Little Rock, Arkansas.

The basis of union consisted of the following:

1. The consolidated association shall in no way antagonize the National Educational Association.

2. One-half the program of the next meeting shall be arranged by the executive committee of each association.

3. The next meeting place to be Chattanooga, Tennessee.

4. That the officers elected at Morehead City shall continue as the officers of the consolidated association.

In accordance with the foregoing, the Southern Educational Association held its first regular session in Chattanooga, July 9, 10, and 11, 1891. Subsequent meetings of the association have been held as follows:

July, 1892, Atlanta, President, Solomon Palmer
July, 1893, Louisville, President, W. F. Slaton
December, 1894, Galveston, President, W. H. Bartholomew
December, 1895, Hot Springs, President, J. R. Preston
December, 1896, Mobile, President, J. H. Phillips
December, 1898, New Orleans, President, Geo. J. Ramsey
December, 1899, Memphis, President, Junius Jordon
December, 1900, Richmond, President, R. B. Fulton
December, 1901, Columbia, President, G. R. Glenn
July, 1902, Chattanooga, President, W. N. Sheets
July, 1903, Asheville, President, J. W. Nicholson
December, 1904, Atlanta, President, F. P. Venable
November, 1905, Nashville, President, C. D. McIver
December, 1906, Montgomery, President, J. W. Abercrombie

No meeting of the association was held in 1897, on account of the yellow fever epidemic in New Orleans.

The change of the time of meeting from summer to winter was made in the effort to find a time when the annual meetings would not conflict with the various state meetings and with the national meeting, but this is still as much a problem as ever. It is practically agreed, I think, that the association cannot, for some time to come, hold great popular meetings like those of the National Educational Association or some of the larger state meetings, because of distances in the South, the low salaries paid southern teachers, and the conflicts in time with other meetings. It is rather a convention for the meeting of the leaders of southern educational thought, and a clearing-house for southern educational ideals.

Among the peculiar problems confronting the people of the South may be mentioned those arising from the great social and economic changes of the past generation, and the comparatively recent organization of public-school systems for the education of both races; a great paucity of educational means, a scattered population in the rural districts, the enfranchisement of illiterate voters, white and colored; and a great illiterate population. That these conditions call for special study and particular remedies seems to be quite evident. The Committee on Aims and Purposes which reported at the Jacksonville meeting stated clearly the position of the association with reference to these matters in the following paragraph:

To study and discuss the problems and policies with which we who live and work in the southern states are concerned, to compare the experiences of each so that they may

be profitable to all, to investigate conditions and needs peculiar to our own section, to publish for the information of all the results of the study and work of those who can skillfully investigate the problems which specially concern our section, and to encourage each other in these efforts to which our highest duty calls us in the great work that is ours, are the aims of the Southern Educational Association.

In the next paragraph the report continues:

> We understand fully that the educational needs of any section of our country must be considered in their relation to those larger elements of nationality, to which they most vitally contribute. Nationality is the unit of measurement with which our diverse local conditions and sectional needs must be compared. The American ideal of democracy embraces historical, political, economic, and ethical elements, which largely determine our sectional requirements. However widely the educational needs of the South may differ from those of other sections, they are still in an important sense national needs, and must be considered in the light of national ideals, and in the spirit of that broad patriotism which regards sectional problems as elements in the life of the nation.

So far as can be ascertained at this writing, the association has always published its *Proceedings* and papers annually with the exception of those of the Galveston, New Orleans, and Chattanooga meetings. In the first two cases the funds in hand were not sufficient to pay for the publication, and in the latter case the *Proceedings* were allowed to go unpublished. With the Chattanooga *Proceedings* perished the revised constitution. There are on hand with the secretary at the present time a number of bound volumes of the *Proceedings* of the meetings in Memphis, Richmond, Columbia, Asheville, Atlanta, Jacksonville, and Nashville. The Montgomery volume will be published about April, 1907.

The original constitution of the association provides that

> The membership shall consist of white persons, divided into two classes, active and honorary. The active membership shall consist solely of teachers and friends of education engaged actively in promoting the cause of education in the South. Honorary members may be elected from any part of the Union, and shall have all the privileges of active members, except that of holding office and voting.

But the membership clause of the new constitution ratified at Jacksonville in 1904 reads as follows:

> Teachers and friends of education may become members of this association entitled to all rights and privileges upon the payment of the annual membership fee of two dollars.

The old constitution also provided for a membership fee of two dollars, which is still the annual dues.

The original constitution did not provide for the organization of departments, tho at the second annual meeting (Lookout Mountain) the Department of Supervision and the Department of Textbooks and Journals held afternoon sessions, the former two and the latter one. Since then there have been sessions of the following departments: Kindergarten, Superintendence, Higher Education, Secondary Education, Elementary Education, Normal Instruction, Industrial Education, and Child-Study. The last constitution contains the following clause: "The Departments of the Association shall

be such as may be regularly admitted by the Board of Directors." From time to time new departments have been added and others dropped, so that at the present time the active departments are those of Superintendence, Administration, Child-Study, Industrial and Manual Arts, and Normal Instruction.

Among the topics for discussion at the various meetings we find the following to be typical: "Local Taxation;" "How to Improve Our Rural Schools;" "What the South is Doing for Public Education;" "Education and Crime;" "Education in the Old South and in the New;" "Industrial Training in Public Schools;" "Education of Women in the South;" "Drawbacks to Educational Organization in the South;" "Industrial Education in the New South;" "Negro Education in the South;" "Textile Education;" "The County Superintendent and His Mission;" "Relation of the Southern College to the Public School;" "Manual Arts in Rural Schools;" "The Demands for Science and Technology in the South." One of the most valuable features of the general sessions, introduced at the Jacksonville meeting, is the report of progress for the year by each of the state superintendents. These reports are short, concise, and helpful as statements of the results of each year's work.

I think there is little doubt that the Southern Educational Association is slowly but surely accomplishing the purposes of its founders. Especially is this true since the regular publication of the annual volume of the *Proceedings* and papers, which goes out to many who do not attend the meetings, as well as public and college libraries. Besides this many of the papers and addresses are published by the best educational journals of the South and in this way the work of the association is popularized thruout the South and the country.

I regret that the material at my command and the brief space and time allowed for the production of this paper preclude a better statement of the history and work of the Southern Educational Association. I am indebted to Superintendent J. H. Phillips, of Birmingham, Ala., who was one of the organizers of the Southern Educational Association, for that part of this paper relating to the Montgomery and Moorehead City meetings and the consolidations of the two branch organizations in the Chattanooga meeting.

The most recent organization for the aid of national education is The Carnegie Foundation, whose aims and plans of organization are briefly set forth by its president, Dr. Henry S. Pritchett:

THE CARNEGIE FOUNDATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF TEACHING

HENRY S. PRITCHETT, PRESIDENT, NEW YORK CITY

There has been quietly inaugurated within the last year an institution whose influence in higher education is likely to be far-reaching. Incorporated by Congress under the name, "The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching," the institution had its origin in the generosity of Mr.

Andrew Carnegie. In a letter addressed to twenty-five trustees selected by him, of date April 16, 1905, Mr. Carnegie transferred to them as trustees $10,000,000 of 5 per cent. first mortgage bonds of the United States Steel Corporation, the income of which was to be used in establishing a system of retiring allowances in the higher educational institutions of the United States, Canada, and Newfoundland.

The trustees selected by Mr. Carnegie were twenty-five in number and included twenty-two presidents of educational institutions and three business men. Amongst the college presidents who were selected were representatives of great universities, of colleges, and of technical schools, and they were drawn from all sections of the country. They represent, therefore, the educational interests of the American continent.

Upon organization in the spring of 1906, President Henry S. Pritchett, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, was selected as chief executive of the trust, the officers of the board of trustees being President Charles W. Eliot, chairman; President David Starr Jordan, vice-chairman; and President Charles F. Thwing, secretary.

The institution has had so brief a history that its place in education cannot yet be fixed. It has, however, thru its executive officers and particularly thru its president formulated the general principles upon which it will be administered. These principles are the following:

The purpose of this fund is the strengthening of the profession of the teacher and the dignifying of that profession. To this end it is essential that the endowment should be used to found a system of retiring allowances which should come to the professor as a matter of right, not as a matter of charity. To this end, therefore, it is essential that so far as possible the retiring allowances should be conferred thru an institution and in accordance with fixed rules.

Secondly, the gift is also one to higher education and such institutions must therefore be selected with some regard to their academic standing. For this purpose, the board of trustees has adopted for the present a provisional definition of a college, which is the same as that in use under the laws of the state of New York.

In the third place, while the work of the Foundation will be done in the main thru institutions, its officers will seek to recognize eminent teachers in institutions not admitted to this list, but whose services have been exceptional either by reason of length or quality.

Under the conditions imposed by the founder and expressed in the act of incorporation, institutions under the control of a denomination or which require their trustees or officers to belong to a specified denomination are excluded.

It is the hope of the trustees and their wish to administer this fund in a generous and wise spirit. The definite end which they expect to accomplish is the establishment of the retiring allowance as a part of the American system

of education, so that a teacher in an institution of higher learning may count upon a retiring allowance in old age and upon a similar provision for his widow as a regular part of the academic compensation, a part which may counterbalance, in some respects at least, the modest pay which goes and which is likely to go with the profession of the teacher. The board of trustees believe that the income in their possession will establish a system of retiring allowances in perhaps one hundred and fifty institutions thruout the United States and Canada. When this shall have been done for so large a number of institutions situated thruout the whole country, it would seem clear that institutions which, for one reason or another, cannot share in the benefits of this fund must provide retiring allowances from other sources. The result would be, in any case, the establishment of the retiring allowance system as a part of the academic life.

The first annual report of the president, which contains an account of the proceedings for the first fiscal year as well as the rules established for the awarding of retiring allowances, will be ready for distribution January 1, 1907, and may be obtained by application at the offices of the Foundation, 542 Fifth Avenue, New York.

A historical review of agencies for the advancement of material educational interests would be quite incomplete without a representation of the work accomplished by the educational journals since the publication of the first American educational journal, *The Academician*, in 1818.

EDUCATIONAL JOURNALISM

C. W. BARDEEN, EDITOR OF "SCHOOL BULLETIN," SYRACUSE, N. Y.

Several contributions to the history of educational journalism in this country appear in the *Proceedings* of the N. E. A. for 1893, and I shall save repetition and space by summarizing some of these, referring to them for fuller detail under the letter "P." I shall make similar reference to two published addresses of my own, "Educational Journalism," delivered before the New York State Teachers' Association in 1881, citations from which will be marked "J;" and "The History of Educational Journalism in the State of New York," prepared for the congress of 1893, and of which about a thirtieth is given in the summary, P 826, 7. This will be cited as "Y." Both these pamphlets are out of print, but as considerable editions of both were printed and sold, they are likely to be found in some of the larger libraries. The two addresses are also printed in *The School Bulletin* (Vol. VII, pp. 160–67; and Vol. XIX, pp. 133–34, 141–44; Vol. XX, pp. 4–9, 20–22).

The first American educational journal, *The Academician* (P 811, 2; J 18, 19; Y 3–5), appeared February 7, 1818, a semi-weekly octavo (6x9½) of 16 pages, at $3.00 a year. The editors were Albert Picket, president of the Incorporated Society of Teachers, and John W. Picket, corresponding

secretary of the same. We find a series of articles on the new Lancasterian and Pestalozzian systems, and an essay on the evil tendency of theatrical representations at school. On the whole *The Academician* is dry reading. The full twenty-five numbers were published, with an index and a preface which announced that the editors had completed their labors.

Russell's *American Journal of Education* (P 812; J 19–21) and the *Annals of Education* (P 812; J 20, 1) have been described at considerable length in *The School Bulletin* (Vol. XXVII, pp. 211–19). The transfer from one title to the other was somewhat involved, but it may be assumed that the *Journal* continued for five years, 1826–30, while the *Annals* was published nine years longer, 1831–39.

In the first number, for January, 1826, the editors say that the leading object of the *Journal* will be to furnish a record of facts, and the directors will endeavor to aid in diffusing enlarged and liberal views of education. Each number is to consist of 64 pages, at $4 a year. The title is spoken of as changed, tho it is not said what title had been announced. The first article is an account of the system of infant schools, with special reference to the work of Mr. Wilderspin.

The volume altogether makes 763 pages. Most of the articles are long, even the reviews reaching sometimes thru two or three numbers.

In the third volume is a quotation from the *Journal d'Education* of France, No. 5. I happen to own the first four volumes of this interesting periodical, which I suppose to be the earliest published among educational journals.

In place of the usual retrospect there is an advertisement dated December 22, 1828, in which Mr. William Russell for the first time writes over his own name, saying that the work will be continued and the range of subjects widened, especially by bringing in topics connected with practical science and useful information.

The fourth and fifth volumes are smaller, containing but 572 and 500 pages respectively, as against 768 pages of Vol. III; but the articles are by no means shorter or of more general interest. On p. 53 is a review of *Maternal Instruction in the Spirit of Pestalozzi's Method*, from the third London edition, Salem, 1825.

In the second number, p. 97, is the first of a series of articles on Pestalozzi's principles, compiled from *The Academician*. It is a curious fact that the editors of *The American Journal of Education* when they began the journal did not even know the *The Academician* had been published.

The fifth volume has neither table of contents nor title-page, and as my copy is in the original boards as issued by the publisher, I infer that none were printed; nor is there anything to indicate the closing; but it is double-paged from August to December, p. 325–500 being also marked 1–176, and this last part is commonly bound in with the first volume of *The American Annals of Education*, which begins properly with the year 1831. This Vol. V is marked "New Series No. 1." The title is now *The American Journal of*

Education and Monthly Lyceum. It is stated also that there will be a return to the monthly form. It had been for some time published bi-monthly.

With the August number the title becomes *American Journal and Annals of Education and Instruction,* "New Series, Vol. I, No. 6." The editor, William A. Woodbridge, gives a long address in which he says that *The Journal of Education* has, more than once, been on the point of dissolution for want of patronage, and that it now barely pays the expense of printing and circulation.

With 1830 ends *The American Journal of Education.* The title for January, 1831, is *The American Annals of Education and Journal of Literary Institutions,* Vol. I, Part 2, No. 1. In Vol. I there is mention of *The Quarterly Journal of Education,* London, beginning in January, 1831, which reached to ten volumes, being discontinued in 1835 for lack of support, as is here afterward lamented in Vol. VI. The first volume makes altogether 600 pages, in addition to the 176 from *The American Journal of Education.* It is much more readable than its predecessor. The articles are as a rule shorter, and much more practical; the descriptions are many and have permanent value as pictures of contemporary schools. It is to be noted that thus far while much space has been given to Fellenberg and to Jacotot, comparatively little is said of Pestalozzi.

On p. 36 of Vol. II it is said that the first proposal made to the public of the lyceum system was in the tenth number of *The American Journal of Education* in 1826. It had now become a national institution, with 1,000 town lyceums, 60 county lyceums, several state lyceums, and a general and national union of the whole.

On page 541 the editor addresses the friends of the *Annals.* He says that the journal is being published at a loss, but that he is willing to go on if the sets now on hand can be purchased, with a subscription of an equal number for the following year. The four volumes from 1831 to 1834 are offered at $12 a set.

At the beginning of Vol. V the editor treats of the prospects of the *Annals.* He says:

> After three years of unrewarded toil, and the expenditure of all his surplus means to sustain the only periodical on education in our great and growing country, the editor still found it involved, beyond his power to extricate it, without abandoning its future publication. The friends of the cause came forward; they urged him to state the case to the public, and they sustained his statement. The wealthy contributed liberally of their wealth; those who earned their bread by their labor, gave of their poverty; and those who could do neither, pleaded the cause with an energy, and efficiency, which were not less cheering to our labors, than useful to the cause. The result has been that in a year of uncommon pecuniary pressure, nearly two hundred sets of the *Annals* have been sold, to be distributed to private families, or placed in the libraries of our colleges, or state legislatures, or employed as a textbook in institutions where teachers are prepared for their important task.

The plan for sustaining *The Annals of Education* which had proved so

successful is published, with the signatures of such men as Daniel Webster, William E. Channing, John Quincy Adams, Josiah Quincy, Edward Everett, Moses Stewart, William B. Calhoun, and George Ticknor. At the end of every number is a piece of music by Lowell Mason, a feature that continues for some years. The type is larger and the magazine is in every way more attractive.

At the beginning of Vol. VI the editor says he looks with some degree of surprise at the five volumes which lie before him, and wonders the journal has not passed into the grave that has swallowed up every other journal of its character established in the country. He is happy to inform those interested that all the bound volumes are disposed of, and that by giving up the greater part of the property of the work, it is entirely freed from embarrassment. "The Confessions of a Schoolmaster," which begins on page 255 and is continued thru the volume, is manifestly by W. A. Alcott, and forms the substance of a work afterward published by him as a book.

At the beginning of Vol. VII it is stated that the editor's stay in Europe has been prolonged and that he has thought best to resign the immediate charge of the *Annals* to Mr. W. A. Alcott. The first article is on the Pestalozzian system of education, and occupies ten pages. At the close of the volume Mr. Woodbridge states that with the year 1837 his connection with the *Annals* must close entirely, and on the eighth volume Mr. Alcott's name appears alone as editor. On the title-page of Vol. VII, Mr. Woodbridge had been spoken of as a foreign editor. On p. 285 it is said that common-school papers are becoming quite numerous. Ohio has 3 and perhaps another, Illinois 1, Michigan 1, New York 1, and *The Common School Journal* is proposed in Massachusetts. On p. 527 more periodicals on education are mentioned, among them *The Education Reporter*, by Rev. Asa Rand of Boston; *The Inciter*, by a gentleman in Lancaster, Pa.; *The Monthly Journal of Education*, by E. Wines; and *The School Register*, in Boston, all discontinued. Among those recently established are *The Common School Assistant* of New York (P 826; J 21; Y 5); *The Common School Advocate* (P 828), of Cincinnati; *The Ohio Common School Director*, of Columbus; *The Pestalozzian* (P 828), of Akron, Ohio; *The Journal of Education* (P 831), Detroit, Mich.; *The Educator*, of Easton, Pa.; *The Common School Advocate* (P 833), of Jacksonville, Ill.; and *The Connecticut Common School Journal* (P 815).

On the title-page of Vol. IX appears "Edited by M. F. Hubbard," but there is no introduction to indicate why the change is made. The page is larger and the type smaller than in the last volume. At the bottom of the last page occurs this brief announcement:

Notice to our Subscribers.

With this Number the publication of the *Annals of Education* will cease.

Dr. Mowry says of Mr. Hubbard (P 812):

A fatal mistake was made by the new editor. He turned the magazine away from

its former broad design and made it the advocate of high schools, academies, and colleges. Horace Mann looked with regret upon the change in the magazine, and in November, 1838, issued the first number of *The Common School Journal.*

This was in its day a great power. It was the medium for the publication of Mr. Mann's reports, and was conducted as its title indicated especially for the teachers of country schools. Mr. Mann conducted the journal for ten years, and William B. Towle continued it four years longer, the last volume being for 1852.

Meantime a similar work had been carried on in New York. On March 25 *The District School Journal* (P 827; J 3–8; Y 11–15) appeared in Geneva, an eight-page quarto edited by Francis Dwight. The state superintendent selected it as his medium of communication with the district officers, and subscribed for 12,000 copies. Mr. Dwight died December 15, 1845, and Samuel S. Randall, who had been assistant, became editor. At the close of Vol. VII he retired, and Rev. Dr. Wm. Campbell succeeded him, who in March, 1848, gave place to Edward Cooper, who, thirty years before, had founded *The Teacher's Advocate* (J 8–10; Y 15–20). In April, 1849, Mr. Randall again became editor, but in 1852 the legislature refused to continue the appropriation, and the *Journal* ceased with the April number.

The time was ripe for a periodical on a broader basis than the official *Common School Journal* and *District School Journal* or than any of the various journals established by teachers in several states, and a great man came to the front to shoulder a responsibility too heavy for any one man's shoulders and for which he sacrificed position and fortune and peace of mind. Henry Barnard's name will go down to posterity among those of heroes who have risked everything for an idea, but who have accomplished their purpose.

Barnard's *American Journal of Education* (P 816, 7; 822–24; J 23–29) is a monument. Begun half a century ago, a large proportion of the most important pedagogical standards can still be found in English only in its pages. This generation will not see any other cyclopedia of education that can compare with it; indeed it is doubtful whether much of its translated material will ever appear in other form. Its 32 volumes, each of 800 to 1,000 closely printed pages, contain as much matter as 45,854 pages or 85 volumes of *The Educational Review*, so that no one is likely to do his work over again. But it is unnecessary. The result of Dr. Barnard's life work is permanent. The entire set of the *Journal* is in print, and any library may obtain it. No library that is without it has the fundamental basis of a pedagogical collection.

When in 1878 he wrote to Robert Herbert Quick that he was discouraged and thought of melting up his plates, Mr Quick replied (P 823), "I would as soon hear that there was talk of pulling down one of our cathedrals and selling the stones for building material." Oscar Browning calls it, "By far the most valuable work in our language on the history of education." President Gilman said in *The North American Review*, "It is the best and the only

general authority in respect to the progress of American education during the past century."

In Will S. Monroe's *The Educational Labors of Henry Barnard* (Syracuse, 1893), a preparatory study for a biography which it is expected he will publish later, a loving hand has recorded the life of Dr. Barnard, with his services as state superintendent of Connecticut and of Rhode Island, as college president, and as United States commissioner of education, all places of great usefulness that men have coveted, and that were worthily filled; but they seem insignificant beside this great work of editing the *Journal*.

He had already published *The Connecticut Common School Journal* (1838–42, 1850–54, P 815) and *The Journal of the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction* (1846–49, P 813). The first number of *The American Journal* appeared in August, 1855, and the first volume contained Bishop Huntington's "Unconscious Tuition," still regarded the best monograph upon the teacher's influence.

When he died he left material for volumes numbered as high as XXXVIII. It was thought best to gather all this into a single volume, Vol. XXXII, including his "History of Education in the United States." The thirty-two volumes therefore include not only all that he published but all that he had gathered.

In 1891 a corporation was formed with a capital of $25,000 known as "The Henry Barnard Publishing Company," of which Dr. Wm. T. Harris was president. Contract was made with C. W. Bardeen of Syracuse to take over the plates and resume the publication. But when it came actually to giving up the volumes that had cost him so much Dr. Barnard could not find it in his heart to relinquish them, and the contract was suspended till after his death, when the material, weighing 45 tons, was shipped to Syracuse, assorted, rearranged, the missing plates supplied, and the *Journal* once more put upon the market. References to the *Journal* are frequent in the *Proceedings* of this Association (*1890*, 51; *1891*:29, 42, 390; *1892*:564, etc.).

The only other educational journal that can be named with these is *The Educational Review* (Y 45). This was founded in 1890, and has been edited from the beginning by President Nicholas Murray Butler of Columbia University. Its purpose was high and has been consistently maintained; it is for this period a repository and record of the best thoughts of the best teachers of the country. It has paid promptly for every article published, and the articles have been worth paying for.

Education (P 820), founded in 1880, had a similar purpose but has been conducted on a much lower plane.

The School Review (Y 44) was started in January, 1893, by President Schurman of Cornell, but has for many years been one of the mediums of expression of the University of Chicago. It is the recognized and respected organ of the secondary teachers of the country, succeeding *The Academy* (1886–92, Y 44), which George A. Bacon had made their worthy exponent.

The Journal of Pedagogy (Y 39) is a quarterly, started at Athens, Ohio,

in 1887 by Dr. J. P. Gordy, but of recent years published in Syracuse by Dr. Albert Leonard. It has maintained a quiet dignity in appearance and in contents, and has a recognized standing.

The Pedagogical Seminary was begun by Dr. G. Stanley Hall in January, 1891, publishing three numbers a year. Its standard has been high, and it is a recognized authority, every number of permanent value, especially for records of original research, and for reviews of pedagogical books.

The New England Journal of Education (P 819) for a period dropped the *New England* from its title, but unwisely, for its especial field and point of view have been those of the New England states. It began January 2, 1875, in the union of the state journals of that section, and has been successfully owned and edited since 1886 by A. E. Winship. It has been the principal educational weekly journal of the country, and has large circulation and influence.

The New York School Journal (Y 33–35) began about the same time, and has been printed in its present form since 1891. It was conducted for thirty years by the Kelloggs, who in 1905 attempted to combine the paying educational journals of the country, but succeeded only in extinguishing *Intelligence.* In 1905 *The School Journal* passed into the hands of a well-known book-publishing house.

Of the state journals only a few can be named. Of the list published in 1881 (J 2) only six have survived the quarter-century. Of these the *Ohio Educational Monthly* (P 828) and the *Pennsylvania School Journal* each claim to be older than the other (see *School Bulletin*, Vol. XX, p. 14), and both may be considered as beginning in January, 1852. The *Indiana School Journal* began in 1856, and was in 1899 merged in *The Educator-Journal.* The *Wisconsin School Journal*, started in 1871, has represented the teachers of that state worthily. *The School Bulletin* (P 827), begun in 1874 and the next year absorbing *The New York State Educational Journal* (P 827; J 15; Y 30), is in its thirty-third year, unchanged in form, in editor, and in publisher. *The Michigan School Moderator* (P 832) has been sometimes a weekly and sometimes a bi-weekly, but has reflected in every column the genial personality of its editor, H. R. Pattengill. The Iowa journals (P 840) are now represented by *Midland Schools.*

Of journals that had disappeared before 1881, the educational historian will especially value the files of *The Massachusetts Teacher* (1848–74, P 813); *The Rhode Island Schoolmaster* (1845–74, P 813); *The New York Teacher* (1852–65, J 10–15; Y 20–26), nominally continued two or three years in *The American Educational Monthly* (1864–76, J 14; Y 26–30), in its later years known as *Schermerhorn's Monthly;* and *The National Teachers' Monthly* (1874–80, J 1; Y 35–37), after two years withdrawn from the brilliant but erratic Jeremiah Mahony (P 839), and named the last three years *Barnes' Teachers' Monthly.* Anticipating an early demise the later editor queries appealingly:

DO EDUCATIONAL JOURNALS PAY?

Theoretically always, practically seldom. Good journals pay a thousand fold, but not often cash dividends. Educational journals do pay. The *New York Bulletin* pays. The *Pennsylvania School Journal* pays. The *New England Journal of Education* pays. Could not Bicknell, Wickersham, and Bardeen, be appointed a joint committee, and a report be squeezed out of them in which they would tell—HOW? It would be hailed with joy by a hundred poor, struggling, philanthropic, self-sacrificing and non-sustaining journals, now living in vain expectation of striking a bonanza.

Of journals since started *The Western School Journal* (P 844) took that name in 1885, succeeding various Kansas journals of different names. In 1888 it was purchased by John Macdonald, and has since been a recognized influence. *The Western Teacher*, was begun in Milwaukee by Mr. S. Y. Gillan in 1892. He has also purchased Colonel Merwin's *American Journal of Education* (P 842) and published it as a special edition of the *Teacher. School and Home Education*, published in its earlier years as *The Public School Journal*, is a lineal descendant of *The Illinois Teacher* (1854–72, P 834) and *The Schoolmaster* (1868–76, P 835); and has been since 1886 in charge of George P. Brown. Its ability and influence have been marked. *The American School-board Journal* has made more school buildings and school men's faces familiar to the public than all the other journals together, and is a monthly edition of George William Bruce himself.

The Missouri School Journal (P 842), begun in 1883; *The School News*, appealing especially to the country-school teachers of Illinois; *School Education* of Minnesota, by succession calling its present volume the twenty-fifth; the *Nebraska Teacher* (1898); *The Progressive Teacher* of Tennessee (1894); *The Northwest Journal of Education* of Washington (1890); *The West Virginia School Journal; The Texas School Journal; The Louisiana School Review*—these and many others of more recent birth deserve mention if only space permitted. Nor does space permit reference to the special and method journals, like *The Elementary School Teacher* (1900), *The Kindergarten Magazine, The Kindergarten Review, The Kindergarten Magazine and Pedagogical Digest*, and scores of journals that are doing excellent work in particular fields.

In general it may be said that the half-century has placed educational journalism upon a sound financial basis. The sacrifices of William Russell and Henry Barnard are no longer necessary. There is a market for all that is worthy in pedagogical thought, and those who can furnish the help that is wanted by teachers may depend upon ample remuneration.

There have been and still are many other organizations with similar aims which have done important work for education. Those have been chosen for historical sketches in this volume which seem to have been most important in advancing common-school interests without reference to state or sectional limits. This series of sketches will be closed with a brief sketch of state

educational associations organized before 1857, most of which have continued uninterruptedly to the present time.

STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS ORGANIZED BEFORE 1857

WILL S. MONROE, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, WESTFIELD, MASS.

When the National Teachers' Association was organized fifty years ago fourteen state teachers' associations were already in existence. The Rhode Island Institute of Instruction is the oldest of the existing state associations. It held its first regular meeting at Providence on January 28, 1845, with John Kingsbury (1801–74) as president. Among the other educational leaders connected with the early history of the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction may be named Henry Barnard (1811–1900), the moving spirit in the organization of the association and state commissioner of education at the time; Nathan Bishop (1808–80), for many years superintendent of the schools of Providence; Samuel S. Greene (1810–83), Bishop's successor; President Frances Wayland (1796–1865), of Brown University and Principal Dana Pond Colburn (1823–59) of the Rhode Island Normal School.

The New York Teachers' Association was organized at Syracuse July 30, 1845, with Superintendent John W. Bulkley (1802–88) of Brooklyn as president. Among the early officers and speakers were David Perkins Page (1810–48), principal of the Albany Normal School; Samuel B. Woolworth (1800–80) of the same institution; Samuel S. Randall (1809–81), of the department of public instruction; and Mrs. Emma Willard (1787–1870) of the Troy Institute.

The Massachusetts Teachers' Association held its first annual session on November 25, 1845. Oliver Carlton, of Salem, presided at the first and the two following meetings. Among the early leaders may be named Emerson Davis (1798–1866) and William H. Wells (1812–85), of the Westfield Normal School; John D. Philbrick (1818–86), George B. Emerson (1797–1881), Gideon F. Thayer (1793–1863), and Thomas Sherwin (1799–1869) of Boston; and Ariel Parish, D. B. Hagar, Thomas Cushing, and George A. Walton.

The Ohio State Teacher's Association dates from December 31, 1847. Samuel Galloway (1811–72), John Hancock (1825–91), Joseph Ray (1807–57), Loren Andrews (1819–61), Andrew J. Rickoff (1824–99), and Emerson E. White (1829–1902) were among the early presidents.

The Connecticut State Teachers' Association held its first meeting April 15, 1848. Among its early leaders were Henry Barnard (1811–1900), David N. Camp (1820–) and William S. Baker (1814–76).

The Vermont State Teachers' Association held its first meeting at Montpelier October 16, 1850 with Hiram Orcutt (1815–99) as president. Samuel R. Hall (1795–1877), Calvin Pease (1813–63), and Selim H. Peabody (1829–1903) were among the early leaders.

The State Teachers' Association of Michigan was organized October 12,

1852, at Ypsilanti. Adonijah S. Welch (1821–89) presided at the first and second annual sessions. Ira Mayhew (1814–?) and John M. Gregory (1822–98) were early presidents.

Pennsylvania was the eighth state teachers' association to organize. Its preliminary meeting was held at Harrisburg December 28, 1852, and the first regular meeting of the association at Pittsburg August 5 to 8, 1853. John Howard Brown (1802–58) was the president of the first and second sessions. James Thompson (1814–?) was president of the third session and John F. Stoddart (1825–73) the president of the fourth meeting. Thomas H. Burrows (1805–71), for many years superintendent of public instruction, and James P. Wickersham (1825–92), the founder of the Millersville Normal School and afterwards superintendent of public instruction, were also active in the early history of the Pennsylvania association.

Wisconsin followed, July 12 to 14, 1853, at Madison. The first presidents were John G. McMynn (1824–1900), Josiah L. Pickard (1824, still living in California), and Ambrose C. Spicer (1820–?).

The Illinois State Teachers' Association was organized at Bloomington December 27, 1853. W. Goodfellow, W. H. Powell, Charles E. Hovey, William H. Wells, Newton Bateman, and Richard Edwards were early presidents.

The New Jersey State Teachers' Association organized a day later, December 28, 1853. Isaac Peckham, R. L. Cook, Nathan Hedges, W. F. Phelps, David Cole, and Herman Krüsi were among its earliest officers and speakers.

The Iowa State Teachers' Association was organized at Iowa City, May 10, 1854. David Franklin Wells was the first president. Jerome Allen, Oran Faville, H. K. Edison, and Moses K. Cross were active in the organization of the association.

The New Hampshire State Teachers' Association was organized in June and held its first regular session at Nashua November 27 and 28, 1854. Jonathan Tenney, John S. Woodman, Edwin D. Sanborn, David Crosby, Henry E. Sawyer, Cyrus S. Richards, Alpheus Crosby, and Benjamin Greenleaf were its earliest promoters.

The Indiana State Teachers' Association was organized December 25, 1854. Professor William M. Daily of the University of Indiana was president of the first and second annual sessions. A. R. Benton, George W. Hoss, Josiah Hurty, Caleb Mills, and W. D. Henkle were prominent in its early history.

The Missouri State Teachers' Association dates from 1856, when it was formally organized at St. Louis (May 22) with W. T. Luckey as president. Horace Mann was one of the speakers at the first meeting. William T. Harris, J. L. Tracy, J. G. Hoyt, and C. S. Pennell were prominent workers in its early history.

IV. THE NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION (1857–70)

The foregoing historical sketches furnish an introduction to the history of the larger movement for the promotion of common-school education which began with the organization of the National Teachers' Association at Philadelphia, Pa., August 26, 1857, and has, since 1870, continued under the name of the National Educational Association. The spirit of voluntary organization of teachers and citizens in behalf of educational progress is a distinguishing characteristic of the United States, and is indeed essential under a government which does not assume to direct educational effort but leaves this largely to the voluntary initiative of the states, smaller political divisions, or individual districts. Under such a system the need of conferences for discussion of educational problems and methods has led to a remarkable development of educational associations for this purpose.

While it may be true that the educational system of the United States has lacked something of the efficiency of administration and the completeness of organization of governmental systems of education—like Germany—there have been certain compensations in the education of the whole people in bearing the responsibility for their schools and in the abundant opportunities for the exercise of originality and initiative on the part of teachers and the individual school boards. The spirit of all educational associations in the United States is well expressed in the original call for a convention to organize the National Teachers' Association inviting to conference

> all practical teachers in the North, the South, the East, the West, who are willing to unite in a general effort to promote the educational welfare of our country by concentrating the wisdom and power of numerous minds and by distributing among all the accumulated experiences of all.

This same spirit is fully set forth in the opening and closing addresses of Horace Mann at the American Association for the Advancement of Education (pp. 467–71) of this volume, and is apparent thruout the various historical sketches of associations organized before the National Teachers' Association.

The "call" referred to above was first proposed by T. W. Valentine, then president of the New York State Teachers' Association, and was written at his suggestion by D. B. Hagar, president of the State Teachers' Association of Massachusetts. It was signed by the presidents of ten state teachers' associations, and was as follows:

> *To the Teachers of the United States:*
>
> The eminent success which has attended the establishment and operations of the several teachers' associations in the states of this country is the source of mutual congratulations among all friends of popular education. To the direct agency and the diffused influence of these associations, more, perhaps, than to any other cause, are due the manifest improvement of schools in all their relations, the rapid intellectual and social elevation of teachers as a class, and the vast development of public interest in all that concerns the education of the young.
>
> That the state associations have already accomplished great good, and that they are destined to exert a still broader and more beneficent influence, no wise observer will deny.

Believing that what has been accomplished for the states by state associations may be done for the whole country by a National Association, we, the undersigned, invite our fellow-teachers throughout the United States to assemble in Philadelphia on the 26th day of August next, for the purpose of organizing a National Teachers' Association.

We cordially extend this invitation to all practical teachers in the North, the South, the East, and the West, who are willing to unite in a general effort to promote the general welfare of our country by concentrating the wisdom and power of numerous minds, and by distributing among all the accumulated experiences of all; who are ready to devote their energies and their means to advance the dignity, respectability, and usefulness of their calling; and who, in fine, believe that the time has come when the teachers of the nation should gather into one great educational brotherhood.

As the permanent success of any association depends very much upon the auspices attending its establishment, and the character of the organic laws it adopts, it is hoped that all parts of the Union will be largely represented at the inauguration of the proposed enterprise. Signed by

T. W. VALENTINE, President of the New York Teachers' Association.
D. B. HAGAR President of the Massachusetts Teachers' Association.
W. T. LUCKEY, President of the Missouri Teachers' Association.
J. TENNY, President of the New Hampshire Teachers' Association.
J. G. MAY, President of the Indiana Teachers' Association.
W. ROBERTS, President of the Pennsylvania Teachers' Association.
C. PEASE, President of the Vermont Teachers' Association.
D. FRANKLIN WELLS, President of the Iowa Teachers' Association.
A. C. SPICER, President of the Wisconsin Teachers' Association.
S. WRIGHT, President of the Illinois Teachers' Association.

In accordance with the above call, many teachers of the United States assembled at the "Athenaeum Building," in Philadelphia, at ten o'clock A.M., August 26, 1857.

The meeting was called to order by T. W. Valentine, of New York, who read the call and made the following statement, in substance:

We assemble here today under circumstances of more than ordinary interest. It is true that our meeting is not large in numbers, as our coming together has not been publicly announced in flaming advertisements. We have not expected that the quiet gathering of a body of teachers in this great city would create such a sensation as a political or commercial convention, representing merely material interests, might do, yet in its results upon the great cause of education directly, and upon the well-being of the country ultimately, this meeting may prove as important as many of those of a more pretentious character.

. . . . . .

Twelve years ago, in the Empire State, the first state association of teachers in this country was formed. Some of us now here, who were instrumental in its formation, can well remember the fear and trembling with which that enterprise was commenced. Previous to this organization teachers everywhere were almost entirely unacquainted with each other. But what a mighty change a few years have wrought! Besides many minor organizations, there are now not less than twenty-three state teachers' associations, each doing good work in its own sphere of labor, and today I trust we shall proceed to raise the capstone which shall bind all together in one solid, substantial structure.

In our proposed organization we shall have no antagonisms with any of the state associations, for they have their peculiar local work, nor with the venerable "American Institute of Instruction," for its field has always been New England, nor with the "American Association for the Advancement of Education," which was not designed to be specifically an association of teachers.

What we want is an association that shall embrace all the teachers of our whole country, which shall hold its meetings at such central points as shall accommodate all sections and combine all interests. And we need this not merely to promote the interests

of our own profession, but to gather up and arrange the educational statistics of our country, so that the people may know what is really being done for public education, and what yet remains to be done. I trust the time will come when our government will have its educational department just as it now has one for agriculture, for the interior, for the navy, etc.

We need such an organization as shall bring the teachers of this country more together, and disseminate as well as collect educational intelligence.

Such an effort is imperatively demanded of us; and I trust we shall now go forward and devise measures to accomplish these great objects.

Following the statement of T. W. Valentine, James L. Enos of Iowa was elected chairman. After prayer by Rev. Dr. Challen, of Philadelphia, D. B. Hagar of Massachusetts offered the following resolution:

Resolved, That, in the opinion of the teachers now present as representatives of various parts of the United States, it is expedient to organize a "National Teachers' Association."

After a full and free discussion of the resolution it was adopted, and a committee was appointed to prepare and report a constitution. At the afternoon session of the same day a constitution was adopted. For the text of the constitution as adopted see chapter on The Constitution, pp. 534–35.

At the evening session Mr. T. W. Valentine was called upon to read a specially prepared address by Professor William Russell, of Massachussetts, who was prevented by illness from attending the meeting. This address set forth the importance of this convention to organize an association of professional teachers that should be national in character and should secure a wider and juster view of education and corresponding methods of instruction. The first half of this address is quoted from Barnard's *American Journal of Education*, Vol. IV, N. S. (1864), pp. 7–10.

I. NATIONAL ORGANIZATION OF TEACHERS

An address to the convention of teachers of the United States, held in Philadelphia, August 27, 1857, for the purpose of forming a national organization of their profession.

By William Russell

Editor of *American Journal of Education*, 1826–28

Fellow Teachers: We are met on a great occasion. For the first time in the history of our country, the teachers of youth have assembled as a distinct professional body, representing its peculiar relations to all parts of our great national Union of States. The event is a most auspicious one, as regards the intellectual and moral interests of the whole community of which, as citizens, we are members; and, to ourselves, professionally and individually, it opens a view of extended usefulness, in efficient action, such as never yet has been disclosed to us.

We meet not as merely a company of friends and well-wishers to education, one of the great common interests of humanity, in which we are happy to co-operate with philanthropic minds and hearts of every class and calling; but we have at length recognized our peculiar duty to come forward and take our own appropriate place as the immediate agents and appointed organs of whatever measures are best adapted to promote the highest interests of society, by the wider diffusion of whatever benefits are included in the whole range of human culture. In stepping forward to take the professional position now universally accorded to us, we do so in no exclusive or selfish spirit. We are, in fact, only

complying with the virtual invitation given us, by all who feel an interest in the advancement of education, to assume, in regular form, the acknowledged responsibilities of our office, as guardians of the mental welfare of the youth of our country, responsible to the whole community for the fidelity and efficiency with which we discharge our trust. The liberal measures recently adopted in so many of our states for the establishment of permanent systems of public education; the generous recognition, now so general, of the value of the teacher's office and his daily labors; the warm reception offered to every form of teachers' associations—from those which represent whole states down to the local gatherings in our towns and villages—all intimate the universal readiness of society to welcome the formation of a yet more extensive professional union of teachers—of one coextensive with our national interests and relations.

We meet the invitation, not as a mere professional recognition, entitling us to withdraw from the ground which we have hitherto occupied, in common with the friends of education, whether of the learned professions or of other occupations, in the promotion of its interests, and, by an exclusive organization, to cut ourselves off from all communication beyond the limited sphere of a close corporation. It is in no such spirit that we would act. But we do feel that there is a duty devolving on us, as teachers, which we desire to fullfil. We feel that, as a professional body, we are distinctly called on to form a national organization, that we may be the better enabled to meet the continually enlarging demands of our vocation for higher personal attainments in the individual, and for more ample qualifications adequately to fill the daily widening sphere of professional action.

We wish, as teachers, to reap whatever benefits our medical brethren derive from their national associations, in opportunities of communication for mutual aid and counsel. We desire to see annually a professional gathering, such as may fairly represent the instructors of every grade of schools and higher institutions, throughout the United States. We hope to see the numerous delegation, at such meetings, from every educating state in the Union, of the men who, in their respective state associations of teachers, are already responding to the manifest demand for distinct appropriate professional action, on the part of those on whom devolves the immediate practical business of instruction.

Teaching is, in our day, an occupation lacking neither honor nor emolument. Those who pursue this employment are in duty bound to recognize the position which is so liberally assigned them. The vocation is well entitled to all the aid and support which an acknowledged professional rank can confer upon it. The personal interest of every individual who pursues the calling, or who means to adopt it, is concerned in every measure which tends to elevate its character or extend its usefulness. Every teacher who respects himself, and whose heart is in his work, will respond, we think, with alacrity to the call which the establishment of such an association as we propose makes upon him for his best efforts in its aid.

From the formation of a National Association of Teachers, we expect great national benefits.

1. As regards wider and juster views of education, and corresponding methods of instruction—

In a progressive community like ours, amid the vast and rapid developments of science by which our times are characterized, and the universal craving for yet better modes of human culture, to imagine that we have already attained to perfection in our modes of education, would be absurd. The statistics of society proclaim the falsity of such an opinion. The daily records of our race tell too plainly the sad story of our deficiencies and our failures, in the prevalent feeble organizations of body, and the imperfect health, which we still owe to our culpable neglect of proper educational training, by which physical vigor and efficiency might be, in great measure, secured to every human being. The teacher, in our large cities, at least, daily finds himself compelled to limit his intellectual requirements to the condition of many minds incapable of sustaining lengthened or vigor-

ous application, or of retaining the rudimental germs which it is his desire to implant. Of our acknowledged defective moral education, it is unnecessary to speak. Throughout our country, the parent is appealing to the teacher, and the teacher to the parent, for efficient efforts which may bring about a better state of things. Who will venture, in such circumstances, the assertion that we are already perfect?

The whole ground of education needs a thorough survey and revision, with a view to much more extensive changes and reforms than have yet been attempted. The cry for more healthful, more invigorating, more inspiring, more effective modes of culture, comes up from all classes of society, on behalf of the young who are its treasured hope. A truer and deeper investigation is everywhere needed in regard to the constitution, the capabilities, and the wants of man, equally in his temporal and his eternal relations.

Adverting thus to the acknowledged need of a renovation in the form and character of education, we would not be understood as desiring the indiscriminate subversion of existing modes of culture, or of the institutions to which we have been so largely indebted for whatever degree of mental attainment has characterized the past or benefits the present. It belongs to others than teachers to propose those rash and headlong changes, unsanctioned by true philosophy or stable theory, which have demolished without reconstructing, and whose toppling fabrics have served the sole purpose of forming the sepulchral monuments of "zeal without knowledge."

No; one of the surest and best results of a great national association of teachers, will be the careful retention of all unquestionable good residuum gained by the sure filtration of experience; another will be the building-up, to yet nobler heights of beneficial influence, the high places of all true learning. Room can be made for the cultivation of all invigorating and purifying influences in human development, without the sacrifice of one valuable acquisition; or, rather, with the addition of many, which a more genial nurture will certainly introduce. But it is high time that the broad experience and observation of teachers, the tried servants of humanity, in all the relations of culture, should unite to claim a hearing on the great subject of their daily duties and endeavors; and that their voice should have its weight in the adoption of the successive steps which the ceaseless advances of knowledge will always require at the hands of education. A harmonious co-operation of educational skill with scientific progress and parental interests, may thus be fully secured for the enlargement and fertilizing of the whole field of mental and moral culture.

A professional association, founded on the broad basis which we now contemplate, will necessarily give unity and effect to communications expressing the views and bearing the sanction of such a body; and instructors throughout our country will thus have an opportunity of contributing more widely, and more effectively, to the furtherance of whatever good is embraced in the whole range of education, whether in its immediate or its remotest results.

. . . . . .

After the reading of Professor Russell's address, the following officers were elected:

President: Z. Richards, of Washington, D. C.

Vice-Presidents: T. W. Valentine, of New York; D. B. Hagar, of Massachusetts; Wm. Roberts, of Pennsylvania; J. F. Cann, of Georgia; J. L. Enos, of Iowa; T. C. Taylor, of Delaware; J. R. Challen, of Indiana; E. W. Whelan, of Missouri; P. F. Smith, of South Carolina; D. Wilkins, of Illinois; T. Granger, of Indiana; and L. Andrews, of Ohio.

Secretary: J. W. Bulkley, of New York.

Treasurer: T. M. Cann, of Delaware.

Counselors: Wm. E. Sheldon, of Massachusetts; James Cruikshank, of New York;

P. A. Cregar, of Pennsylvania; N. R. Lynch, of Delaware; Wm. Morrison, of Maryland; O. C. Wight, of District of Columbia; Wm. S. Bogart, of Georgia; Wm. T. Luckey, of Missouri; A. J. Stevens, of Iowa; Wm. H. Wills, of Illinois.

At the meeting of the Board of Counselors, it was decided to hold the first annual meeting of the National Teachers' Association at Cincinnati, Ohio, August 11–13, 1858. The following is a list of the original members who signed the Constitution at Philadelphia, August 26, 1857:

LIST OF MEMBERS

Original Members at Philadelphia, August 26, 1857

Name and Residence	Name and Residence
Z. Richards, Washington, D. C.	N. R. Lynch, Delaware
T. W. Valentine, Brooklyn, N. Y.	Thomas Granger, Maryland
J. W. Bulkley, Brooklyn, N. Y.	E. W. Whelan, Missouri
James Cruikshank, Albany, N. Y.	J. W. Barnett, Illinois
D. B. Hagar, Jamaica Plain, Mass.	Asa Jones, Pennsylvania
James L. Enos, Cedar Rapids, Iowa	Wm. H. Hunter, Pennsylvania
William E. Sheldon, West Newton, Mass.	James H. McBride, Pennsylvania
William Roberts, Philadelphia, Pa.	William Watson, Pennsylvania
James H. Sides, Philadelphia, Pa.	Gilbert Combs, Pennsylvania
James R. Challen, Indiana	H. D. Gregory, Pennsylvania
Thomas M. Cann, Delaware	T. Saunderson, Pennsylvania
T. Clarkson Taylor, Delaware	William Jones, Pennsylvania
J. F. Cann, Georgia	W. A. Field, Pennsylvania
S. J. Wetherbee, Delaware	J. D. Giddings, Charleston, S. C.
Paul Swift, Pennsylvania	Robert Campbell, Pennsylvania
William H. Batt, Pennsylvania	Aaron E. Hunter, Pennsylvania
William Vodges, Pennsylvania	Lewis Heyl, Columbus, Ohio
H. C. Hickok, Pennsylvania	V. L. Conrad, Dayton, Ohio
J. P. Wickersham, Millersville, Pa.	C. S. Pennell, St. Louis, Mo.
Edward Brooks, Millersville, Pa.	Mrs. H. D. Conrad, Dayton, Ohio
A. H. Laidlaw, Millersville, Pa.	Miss A. W. Beecher, Dayton, Ohio
P. A. Cregar, Millersville, Pa.	

The subsequent history of the Association, the names of those who were the leaders in this important movement, and the topics discussed at the annual conventions are best set forth in the record of officers, speakers, and the lists of topics which will appear on later pages.

On account of the disturbances of the Civil War no conventions were held in 1861 and 1862. For other reasons which do not clearly appear no convention was held in 1867.

V. THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

At the meeting in Cleveland, Ohio, August 15–19, 1870, D. B. Hagar, principal of the State Normal School at Salem, Mass, was the president of the Association. It will be remembered that Mr. Hagar drew up the call for the convention of teachers in Philadelphia in August, 1857, and was a leader in the action which resulted in the organization of the National Teachers' Association. In his opening address at Cleveland, President Hagar spoke as follows:

EXTRACTS FROM D. B. HAGAR'S PRESIDENTIAL ADDRESS

Cleveland, Ohio, August 15, 1870

It is now thirteen years since the National Teachers' Association was organized, its avowed object being "to elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching, and to promote the cause of popular education in the United States." It may not be out of place to allude briefly to the origin of the Association, and to the more important changes which its constitution has undergone, and to consider the advisability of making such other changes as may promise to enhance the usefulness of the organization.

The teachers who in August, 1857, assembled at Philadelphia, in response to the call which had been put forth by the presidents of the state associations, were few in number, and, with rare exceptions, not overflowing with faith in the proposed enterprise. Some men, of sanguine temperament, saw visions of a grand comprehensive association; some talked of "castles in Spain," and here and there was one who solemnized the occasion with his ominous silence, but who in after years was willing to assume the more cheerful part of an "original founder."

The deliberations of that small meeting in Philadelphia culminated in a resolve to establish an association comprehensive enough to include practical educators of every sort, and in the adoption of a constitution supposed to be adapted to the accomplishment of the important objects in view. The doubts which at the outset clouded the probable success of the new enterprise were dispelled by the grand results of its first anniversary meeting, held in Cincinnati in 1858. Regular meetings have subsequently been held at Washington, D. C., in 1859; at Buffalo, N. Y., in 1860; at Chicago, Ill., in 1863; at Harrisburg, Pa., in 1865; at Indianapolis, Ind., in 1866; at Nashville, Tenn., in 1868; and at Trenton, N. J., in 1869. On account of the condition of the country, no meetings were held in 1861 and 1862, and, on account of delay and difficulty in obtaining a suitable place for meeting, none was held in 1867.

The large number of educators who have from year to year come up to the conventions of this Association, representing nearly or quite every state in the Union, and including a large part of the most eminent teachers of our country, have given ample testimony in favor of the need and the usefulness of such an association as that to which it is our privilege to belong.

While the general scope of the constitution under which we act is the same now as it was at first, a few changes of importance have been made. It was originally provided that the regular meetings should be held biennially; but the enthusiasm which characterized the meeting at Cincinnati demanded a like good time as often as once a year; and hence the term "biennial" gave place to "annual." Six years later, at the meeting in Ogdensburg, an earnest effort was made to restore the word "biennial," but, owing to the zeal of the majority, the effort failed. Whether, in consequence of the increasing number of state educational meetings now held in midsummer, it shall not be found expedient to hold the national conventions less frequently than annually, future experience must determine.

. . . . . .

At the meeting held in Indianapolis, in 1866, an important change was made in our constitution by substituting, in the section which defines eligibility to membership, the word "person" for the word "gentleman." The result of this change was the admission of women to full membership on the same terms as granted to men; and a further result was the election, at Trenton, of two women to aid thirty-three men in the executive management of the National Teachers' Association. When we consider the facts that a vast majority of the teachers in our country are women; that several state and city normal schools, and many training-schools, high schools, and seminaries, are conducted by women; and that some of the ablest contributors to our educational literature are women we must all admit that the change to which I refer was eminently just and proper. In

the broad field of education there is work for both men and women. Let both do the best they can, and let both be paid and honored according to the quality and quantity of their work.

The only other change in our constitution is the omission of a provision that when a member abandons the business of education he shall cease to be a member of the association. As the article now stands, a person who has once become a member, may retain his membership, regardless of any change in his occupation. Whether this provision be conducive to the best interests of a body designed to be strictly professional, is worthy of consideration.

So much in regard to the past change. A few words now, suggestive of further changes in, or additions to, our constitution. Under its provisions membership is open to teachers of all kinds of schools, public and private, to school superintendents, and to editors of all educational journals. We have in our association members who are engaged in all the various departments of educational labor. Now while there are many subjects relating to the theory and practice of education, and the organization and management of schools, which are of common interest to all these members, it is unquestionably true that there are many other subjects which are of special interest to each class of educators. Thus the superintendents of schools have occasion to deal officially with numerous questions, which, although of great importance to them, are comparatively uninteresting to most teachers. Normal-school instructors have peculiar duties to perform, requiring special investigations which naturally attract their attention more than that of other classes of teachers. In like manner, high-school education, grammar-school education, and primary-school education, have severally their distinct wants and interests; and, very properly, those persons, whose efforts are devoted to one of these fields of labor, are more concerned with that than with any other.

Now in order to accomplish the greatest possible good, our Association ought to hold within its scope not only the wants of teachers in general, as far as practicable, but the peculiar wants of each class of teachers. How to realize a view so comprehensive is a question of serious importance. The needs of our own, and the experience of some other associations, give me confidence to recommend for your consideration the organization of this Association into sections or departments, each of which shall have a special charge of those subjects, which are its chief concern. The main features of the plan suggested are briefly these. At the meeting of the Association, let a part of each day be assigned to the consideration of general educational matters, in which all the members may participate; and during the remainder of the time let the members meet in their several sections for the discussion of matters appropriate thereto.

The general session will serve to combine the sympathies of all members in behalf of those things which present to them a common interest, and will give to all the encouraging assurance that whatever be their sphere of educational labor, they are not working alone, but are enjoying the good-will and co-operation of all classes of laborers, looking toward the same results. The sectional meetings will furnish just those things which the particular duties require. General principles of education ought, of course, to be comprehended by every educator; beyond these there are not a few practical matters connected with the administration of each of the various classes of schools that demand the most careful consideration. These matters, it is believed, can be discussed in sectional meetings more advantageously than in general convention.

Into how many and what sections it is best to organize the Association, if into any, I will not presume to speak positively. Such thought as I have been able to give to this point leads me to suggest four sections, relating respectively to the supervision of schools to normal schools, to higher instruction, and to primary instruction. Additional sections or subsections can be formed at any time, as circumstances shall require. The details of the plan I gladly leave to the wisdom of your excellent committee upon the revision of the constitution.

The plan of working by sections is not new. The American Scientific Association has always conducted its meetings upon the plan proposed, and to this is justly attributable much of its great success. Four years ago the State Teachers' Association of Massachusetts was organized into three sections—high school, grammar school, and primary school. Prior to that time the attendance at the annual meetings ranged from three hundred to about six hundred. Since then the number of teachers present has in no case been less than twenty-five hundred, and at one or two meetings it has gone as high as thirty-five hundred. These numbers are given advisedly, are below rather than above the truth, and they go to prove that the interest which teachers feel in an association depends largely upon the amount of thought and information which they expect to get therefrom, applicable to their individual wants.

To insure success in the proposed reorganization of the National Teachers' Association, it will, of course, be necessary to secure the co-operation of the National Superintendents' Association and the Normal School Association. Blending the three associations into one, we can preserve the advantages of each, and at the same time establish on a broad foundation an organization grand in its proportions, comprehensive in its objects, and powerful in its operations. With these observations, I commend the subject to your careful consideration.

And, now, fellow members, without stopping to discuss any of the great educational questions of the day, tempting as many of them are, I cordially invite you to the work and pleasures of this convention.

At the close of President Hagar's address, S. H. White, of Peoria, Ill., who, with J. P. Wickersham, of Pennsylvania, and James Cruikshank, of New York, had been appointed a committee at the annual meeting in 1869 on the revision of the constitution, reported a draft of a new constitution which was adopted with slight amendment. This constitution will be found in the chapter on The Constitution, pp. 536–41.

In accordance with the provisions of the new constitution, the following Departments were created:

NEW DEPARTMENTS

The American Normal School Association which was organized at Norwich, Conn., in August, 1858, and had met annually with the National Teachers' Association since 1866, became by reorganization THE DEPARTMENT OF NORMAL SCHOOLS with officers as follows:

President: S. H. White, Peoria, Ill.
Vice-President: C. C. Rounds, Farmington, Me.
Secretary: A. L. Barber, Washington, D. C.

The National Association of School Superintendents was organized during the session of the National Teachers' Association at Harrisburg, Pa., in August, 1865. The first regular meeting was held in Washington, D. C., February 6, 7, 8, 1866; and the next meeting was held in August, 1866, at Indianapolis, Ind., in connection with the National Teachers' Association. Subsequent meetings were held both in midwinter and in August of each year in connection with the annual convention of the National Teachers' Association. The National Association of School Superintendents by reorgan-

ization became THE DEPARTMENT OF SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENCE, with officers for the ensuing year as follows:

President: W. D. Henkle, Columbus, O.
Vice-President: W. M. Colby, Little Rock, Ark.
Secretary: Warren Johnson, Augusta, Me.

In accordance with the newly adopted constitution, the following new departments were created:

THE DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

President: E. A. Sheldon, Oswego, N. Y.
Vice-President: A. C. Shortridge, Indianapolis, Ind.
Secretary: W. E. Sheldon, Waltham, Mass.

THE DEPARTMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION

President: Charles W. Eliot, Cambridge, Mass.
Vice-President: N. A. Cobleigh, Delaware, Ohio.
Secretary: S. G. Williams, Cleveland, Ohio.

At the close of the convention, President Hagar, in his closing address, referred to the reorganization of the Association as follows:

In one respect our Association has taken a very important step. Heretofore, there have been three different national associations: The National Teachers' Association, the American Normal Association, and the National Superintendents' Association—three organizations working side by side, yet all independent. Now all are fused into one, and to these have been added a department relating to primary instruction, and one relating specially to higher education. When we meet again, it will be as those specially interested in primary education, in one department; in another, those specially interested in high-school and collegiate education; in another, those specially concerned in the modes of training people to become teachers, and in another, those whose business it is to supervise the work of education. We shall thus gather all classes of educators from the lowest to the highest, colaborers in one broad field, and that field our country. We shall have exercises that will concern all educators, from the college president to the primary-school teacher. I think the action that has been taken by our Association will rebound to the great good of the cause of education in this country. I think we can hardly, at this moment, appreciate the magnitude of the work we have accomplished. I rejoice that we have been able to do so much. I congratulate you on our bright prospects for the future. I am very sure that our gathering together at this time will add to the impetus that has already been given to the cause of education, and that what we have done here will not be for our own good only, but for all teachers of our country who will have occasion to rejoice because of our work.

Meetings of the National Educational Association have been held annually until 1907, with the exception of the years 1878, 1893, and 1906.

While the real history of the Association may be read in the topics discussed as shown in the lists which will appear later in the volume, it is deemed advisable to add certain reviews and forecasts of the work of the Association, as they were given from time to time. One of the most valuable of these forecasts was made by President John Hancock, in his presidential address at the convention of the Association held in Philadelphia, Pa., in 1879, twenty-two years after its organization in that city. The following extracts are taken

from that address which appears in full on pp. 8–17, volume of *Proceedings*, for 1879.

. . . . Having thus briefly glanced at the early history of the Association, and more briefly to the work in which it has borne a part, the question, which bears itself home upon us in this the completion of its twenty-first year, is: What enterprises shall it now set before itself for future accomplishment? Many of those who were active in its foundation have laid down their burden of labor to take it up no more forever; and those who remain of that early band have grown gray in service. We must then look to the younger members, with their vigor and higher courage, to push forward to greater achievements.

A few years ago the public mind was more nearly a unit on some questions of gravest import to our people than it seems to be now. One of these is the question whether the high school ought to constitute a part of a system of free schools. This department of the system has within a few years been violently assailed by an influential portion of the public press, by politicians who would fain bear the name of statesmen, and by others in high places; but as yet the people have not been among these assailants, and, if I mistake not both their intelligence and their temper, they never will be. Our national progress depends as much upon the diffusion of the higher learning as it does upon the universality of the elementary; and if this Association has but the courage of its convictions, it will oppose itself in the most aggressive way to every measure which shall tend to restrict this higher learning to a favored class. That democracy is a vain pretense which does not do what it lawfully may, and its means will allow, to give all its youth a fair start in life.

Another question which has lately assumed a prominent place in our discussions is destined, I am sure, to occupy a place still more prominent; and that is the question how, if at all, we are to unite in our public-school systems the training of brain and hand. Technical schools, whether to supplement the training of academic institutions, or whether as a substitute for it, have secured a fixed place in our schemes of public education. But this other question has a much wider sweep. Instead of reaching but a few, it proposes to extend whatever advantages may accrue from the training of the hand to the mass of youth in all schools above the most elementary. The theory of its advocates is that an entirely worthy education is one which teaches to do as well as to think. Say these advocates, "The scheme of manual training, aside from its practical value, will prove an important element in mental training, and those who take it will be possessed of as much mind-power at the end of their course as they would be if they gave their whole time to the usual course in book-learning." That the union of the two kinds of training is highly desirable is coming to be acknowledged with considerable unanimity; but there lie many difficulties in the practical realization of the scheme in our schools. To determine the limitations of the theory—for some of its advocates are already becoming extravagant in their claims—and to overcome the practical difficulties referred to, is another important work for the Association.

The emancipation of four million slaves, brought about by the late civil war, has imposed upon the nation and upon every educational organization a burden and responsibility not easily to be borne. Their education and that of the poor whites—who in this regard are often but little better off—involves in it the perpetuity of the government. In this vital matter this Association has been no idle looker-on. It has taken the ground that this is a national question, in which every section has an interest, and that the general government is morally bound, so far as the limitation of its powers will permit, to render aid. The Association has many times declared that the proceeds of the sales of public lands should be exclusively devoted to educational purposes. And as it has memorialized Congress to distribute such proceeds among the several states on the basis of illiteracy, with the intent that, as the South is poor and her needs great, she should, for many years to come, receive the greater amount of aid. And no objectionable partiality will be shown

in this course, for what strengthens her will strengthen all. I speak confidently when I state that the efforts of the Association in this direction have been gratefully appreciated by friends of the South; and I speak with confidence in assuring those friends that the Association will never relax its exertions until such a measure has become a law. Nor will the Association stop there. It will join heart and hand with the people of the South in support of any other practical measure for the establishing among them a great and strong free-school system. By such mutual co-operation, and through the kind feelings it will engender, we may expect to cement the different sections of our country into a union strong, harmonious, and enduring.

It was one of the original purposes of this Association, as is witnessed by the call for its creation, to elevate teaching into a noble profession. This cannot be done except by the aid of professional schools. We may therefore expect it will continue to be, as it has heretofore been, the bold and uncompromising defender of normal schools, and that it will persistently labor to increase their numbers, and to make them a greater educational force than they have ever been, by giving breadth and exaltation to their purposes.

It is a question worthy of serious consideration whether the Association should not devote more of its effort toward influencing legislation. Our discussions on practical themes too often come to nothing; because their conclusions are not embodied in laws, which often might be effected if united exertions were made to that end. With most legislative bodies the views of such an association as this on educational matters, if properly presented, would, in the very nature of things, have great weight.

My immediate predecessor in the office I am now called upon to fill, in his inaugural address, spoke with a charming eloquence of the value of books and the creation of a general taste for good reading. The establishment of free libraries is scarcely less important than the establishment of free schools. Few of our cities and towns are provided with these valuable adjuncts to a school education, but the mass of our population is in the country districts; and how to get into the hands of the children of these districts, aye, of the men and women, too, good books, books which shall refine and ennoble, is a question of the highest moment. To cultivate a taste for good reading is the most efficacious, possibly the only, way of uplifting the great people.

In this connection, and believing it to be one of the attributes of this Association, both in its organized and individual capacity, to encourage all worthy educational movements wherever they may arise, I take pleasure in referring to the scheme of Rev. J. H. Vincent, of the Chautauqua Reading and Scientific Circles, for carrying into homes in sequestered country places as well as into the homes of the city and town, the best kind of reading on the best topics. The scheme includes more than this. He sets the inmates of these homes—old and young—at work upon regular courses of study, bringing, in a sense, a university to every man's door. He does not claim that these courses can profitably be substituted for the more thorough and systematic ones of the schools; but I think he may justly claim that they will be of inestimable value to those whose school privileges have been few, and even to scholars who possess a desire to add to the store of their school learning. To many minds which would otherwise have groped in darkness they bring an enduring light. The whole country is now dotted with Dr. Vincent's reading and studying "circles," with a membership of nearly ten thousand, and the plan is capable of indefinite expansion. Thus, in accordance with an idea which seems almost an inspiration, goes on in uncounted homes the study of history, of general literature, of astronomy, of the science of every-day life, lifting the inmates of these homes out of their life of daily toil into a region of pure intellectual delights. No one can have observed in his own community the results of this scheme without feeling that the work is worthy the highest commendation.

The question as to whether kindergarten schools shall constitute an integral part of our common-school systems is one claiming more and more of the public thought. If such a measure should be adopted, it would exercise a most powerful influence on the

whole scheme of public instruction—an influence more powerful than has resulted from any educational measure adopted within the last half-century. Its results would be even more far-reaching, and, as I believe, more beneficial, than those wrought by the introduction of the natural methods of instruction, grand as they have been. The subject has already been discussed with some fulness in the Association, and has come before one of the departments at the present session. When it has been discussed in all its bearings, the conclusion reached by the Association should be expressed in that way that shall give it greatest weight.

In what I have said in the foregoing pages, I have attempted to give voice to what I conceived to be the general mind of the Association as to what its future work should be. I now beg to express, in a word, views entertained probably by only a minority of the Association, and certainly by only a minority of the people. Important as I deem the different lines of work I have pointed out, I do not think them grand enough to call out all the powers of the National Educational Association. I believe it ought to test its strength on measures greater than the greatest of these. One of these measures—the supreme one as I view it—is compulsory education. I weary of half-measures. If education is what we profess to believe it—the one earthly good to be chosen before all others—why should we hesitate to throw ourselves into the advocacy of a measure that will make it universal? To carry learning into all homes and to make it the possession of every creature, so that there shall no more be a neglected class in this country of ours—that, as it seems to me, is a work altogether worthy the full powers of this great organization.

The annual conventions of the Association for many years were not largely attended, the attendance never reaching as many as 400 members, and it was frequently impossible to print the papers and proceedings of these conventions without soliciting special contributions from the members. The first large meeting of the Association was held at Madison, Wis., in 1884. The president for that year, Hon. Thos W. Bicknell, who had already shown great ability as an organizer while president of the American Institute of Instruction a few years before, set to work to place the Association on a higher plain, by increasing its membership, and, correspondingly, its influence, and by making the annual convention a great popular rally of teachers and citizens interested in education. His success was phenomenal, and the year 1884 is usually referred to as the time of the revival of the National Educational Association and the justification of its right to assume the leadership of national educational interests.

The following resolution was passed unanimously by the convention in recognition of President Bicknell's great service to the Association:

Resolved, That the unparalleled success of this meeting is chiefly due to the energy, devotion, and organizing ability of Hon. T. W. Bicknell, the president of this Association, whose wise and comprehensive plans, enthusiastic and self-sacrificing efforts, and directing hand have inspired and guided the great undertaking from its inception to its present triumphant close, and no formal words can properly express our thankful appreciation.

The enrollment at Madison reached 2,729. With the revenue from the membership all debts of the Association were paid and a surplus was carried over to form the nucleus of the Permanent Fund of the Association which has grown to $155,000 in 1906, as shown elsewhere in the statistical table of that fund.

The following year the Association was incorporated for 20 years on the 24th day of February, 1886, at Washington, D. C., under the Revised Statutes of the District of Columbia. (See pp. 4–5 of this volume.)

The subsequent growth of the Association in numbers will appear in the statistical table of membership.

Hon. W. T. Harris, United States commissioner of education, who was president of the Association in 1875 and had been a prominent leader in its councils for nearly its entire existence, read before the meeting of the Department of Superintendence, in Philadelphia, Pa., in February, 1891, a paper on the organization and functions of the Association, which is reprinted here with slight omissions.

ORGANIZATION AND FUNCTIONS OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

W. T. HARRIS, UNITED STATES COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION, WASHINGTON, D. C.

Thirty-three years ago last August there met in the city of Philadelphia a handful of men to organize a National Teachers' Association. The movement started in New York and Massachusetts. A call had been issued and widely circulated the year before (1856), inviting "all practical teachers in the North, the South, the East, the West, who are willing"—these are its significant words—"who are willing to unite in a general effort to promote the general welfare of our country, by concentrating the wisdom and power of numerous minds and by distributing among all the accumulated experiences of all; who are ready to devote their energies and their means to advance the dignity, respectability, and usefulness of their calling." A constitution was drafted and adopted, and officers were elected for the following year. The directory of the newly formed association voted to meet in Cincinnati in August, 1858.

. . . . . .

We may here properly inquire what the legitimate results are for which we should look from this annual gathering of teachers from the length and breadth of the land. The main answer to this is provided for us in the words of the original call issued in 1856. In the language already quoted, the Association should "concentrate the wisdom and power of numerous minds, and distribute among all the experiences of all." This call was written by Dr. Daniel B. Hagar, then president of the Massachusetts Teachers' Association. It was stated at the Philadelphia meeting in 1857 that there were already in existence twenty-three state teachers' associations, besides larger and smaller associations not bounded by state lines—such, for example, as the American Institute of Instruction in New England, and the American Association for the Advancement of Education, which had been formed in Philadelphia. These associations had demonstrated the value of general conferences in which educational topics were discussed. The wisdom and power of many minds concentrated on the difficult problems of the profession brought light such as none had seen before. The accumulated experience of all was thus distributed to each. The individual teacher, in his uneven development, strong in some points, and weak in others, found complementary strength in the experience of his fellow-teachers, strong where he was weak, and perhaps weak where he was strong.

The divine principle of vicariousness that prevails in the spiritual world, rendering it possible for each man, woman, and child to participate profitably in the experience of another human being—so that the spectacle of a deed and its consequences renders it entirely unnecessary to perform the deed itself in order to get what of good comes from doing it as a life experience—this divine principle of vicariousness in the life of human souls at once explains for us the true function of teachers' associations, and also the func-

tion of education itself in its entirety. What, indeed, is all education except the re-enforcement of the individual by the experience of the family, the community, the nation, the race? Education is, therefore, properly defined as the elevation of the individual into participation in the life of the species.

While the brute inherits organically in his muscles and nerves and brain the experience of his progenitors in such a way that the life of his race appears as instinctive impulse, man, on the other hand, not only inherits the results of the life of his ancestry in the form of instincts and aspirations, but he can by language receive and communicate the outcome of his life direct. Hence his ability to collect within himself the results of others' lives is increased infinitely beyond that narrow line of hereditary descent; for he can, through language, avail himself of the sense-perception of others far removed in time and space, making himself thereby a sort of omnipresence in space and time. Then, too, he can avail himself in like manner of the thoughts and reflections of his fellow-men, especially the thoughts and reflections of those most gifted minds that have done most to solve the problems of life and explain the anomalies of experience. More than this, too, he learns not only through their perceiving and by their thinking on what they perceive, but he learns by seeing their doing, and by the story of their doing, what to do himself and what to refrain from doing. Thus, by language, the individual is enabled to live vicariously the life of the race, and to live his own life vicariously for others. Whatever one does, goes into the reservoir of human experience as something of value; if it is a negative deed, bringing with it its punishment, the knowledge of it renders unnecessary the repetition of its like by others. If it is a positive deed, securing for it the normal development of the soul, then it is a precious discovery, and it may be adopted by all men as a new ethical form of moral law.

Thus the very principle of all education—the principle that makes possible what we value as civilization in contrast to savage life—this principle is appealed to as explaining and justifying the existence of a national educational association. "Concentrate the wisdom and power of numerous minds; distribute to each the accumulated experience of all."

Who can say, looking back down the ladder of thirty-three years, that this beneficent process of giving and receiving has not characterized every stage of its assent? Spiritual giving, we are taught, is not a giving which diminishes the supply of the giver. In material giving, there is a transfer which makes him who gives poorer by the amount of his gift. But he who imparts his experience to others, possesses all the more firmly all the fruits of his own experience. Every teacher who has risen in this National Educational Association to expound his own observations or reflections, or to give the results of his experience, has, in the act of doing it, helped himself first of all to see more clearly than before the true lesson of his life. In spiritual participation, there is no division or loss. In material things—in food, clothing, and shelter—to share is to divide and diminish the part that goes to each.

. . . . . .

We have not mentioned the advantage of personal contact of mind with mind. In these gatherings the young teacher sees those who have grown old in the service and who have acquired reputation for their work. He meets his equals and measures their ideals by his own. He learns to see the details of his profession from many different points of view. The impression derived from the printed page differs from that derived from personal conversation. Each has its advantages. The personal impression is more stimulating and provocative of imitation. The cool study of the printed paper leads to deeper self-activity. Both are useful—nay, indispensable.

It is obvious that for this personal lesson upon the teacher our recent large associations are far more valuable than the small gatherings of the early date; where three hundred met then, now we have three thousand. The visitor to the Association now

sees ten times the number of eminent teachers, and rejoices in a tenfold opportunity for profit.

I do not think that I overestimate the value of this feature of the National Educational Association when I call it one-half. On this basis I shall call the direct aid received from the essays and papers read one-fourth; the direct aid from the debates and discussions, one-fourth; the direct aid from personal conversation with and observation of fellow-members of the convention, eminent persons, and otherwise, this—and the benefit of observation of that section of the country into which the Association takes the visitor—amounts to one-half the direct aid that he gets from the Association.

Since 1870 the Association has been in process of forming departments for the further specialization of work. It has done this partly by absorbing existing associations devoted to special work, and partly by forming new departments direct.

It absorbed the normal-school and superintendents' associations, and in after years successively the departments of (*a*) higher instruction, (*b*) elementary instruction, (*c*) industrial education, (*d*) the National Council of Education, (*e*) the kindergarten, (*f*) art education, (*g*) music instruction, and (*h*) secondary instruction; thus making ten departments in all.[1]

Since these departments provide for the much-needed specialization of work, and furnish a counterpoise to the mighty swing of the general meetings of the Association, their influence is salutary. There is no doubt that much more can be done in this direction. There should be a department that unites those interested in the study of child life; another that unites the specialists who are at work in the mastery of foreign systems of education, one for students of the Herbartian educational experiments—those that make so much of Robinson Crusoe as a center of school work, and whose great word is "apperception." Those who have read the educational essay that has made so much noise in England, and which bears the absurd title of "A Pot of Green Feathers," I need not say, are already interested in this question of apperception, as the very center of educational psychology. The doctrine of apperception, briefly stated, is this: We not only perceive or see objects, but we recognize or apperceive them. When we apperceive we relate what we see to what we already knew before—we sometimes call this inward digestion of what we see. Now education, it is evident enough, deals with this matter of recognizing or assimilating (apperceiving) the new material learned by relating it to what we knew before.

If a department of psychology were formed that held two meetings at each annual session, I doubt not that it would soon prepare some work which would gladly be given a place on the program of the General Association, and certainly before it secured a place on the general program it would get into the old departments of elementary instruction or normal instruction, or into the superintendents' section or some other.

I would lay emphasis on the specializing of work indefinitely. Apart from the National Association such specializing would have its danger; but in the Association it at once adds strength and gains strength. There could be a department of statistical study, wherein the few specialists who are interested in the science of statistics, in the new sense which is coming to be accentuated by sociologists, could confer together round a table. Round-table discussions over specialties is in my opinion what is needed to introduce a new fountain of vitality into the Association. Not that the Association is failing in vitality, for it never had so much at any former period as it has now. But this new element of specialization is a new element of vitality which may make the annual visit twice as valuable as it has been hitherto. I have mentioned by way of examples of these round-table departments—those that should study child life, foreign systems of education (say French, German, English, Chinese, etc.), or pedagogical movements like that of the Herbartians, or, again, educational psychology, or statistics. I would add other examples of specialization. Let the specialists in teaching English literature have a round

[1] This number has since been increased to nineteen.—EDITOR.

table; the specialists in teaching ancient history or modern history or the philosophy of history; the specialists in teaching French or any modern language; those specially interested in teaching fractions or any other part of arithmetic. These round-table discussions could be called for any year. They could not be expected to discuss the same subject for two consecutive years. Here is just the trouble with our present departments. They have worked over the material ready to hand, and have no new material in the process of making. The Council of Education has formed a list of committees on a variety of subjects and stereotyped it once for all. The members of those cast-iron committees find themselves appointed to report on some subject which has no new fresh interest for them, and they do not see how to begin fresh work. We do not want any more reports on such general topics as high schools, or private schools, or coeducation, or moral education, or educational psychology, but we do want specialized reports which focus the whole mind of the subcommittees on some special topic, within those more general topics such as (in the domain of moral education) the freedom of the will in the light of Ribot's work on *The Diseases of the Will*, or (in the domain of educational psychology) the effect of committing to memory by the so-called aids or arts of memory; or on the formation of logical habits of thinking; or the best method of cultivating a convenient memory for names; the true remedy for duplicate registration of pupils attending both winter and summer schools, a duplication which is common in most of the state school reports; on a legitimate mode of interesting the people in electing good members to the school board; on the proper manner of securing the interest of the public press in the good features of the public schools; on the effect of the private schools in raising or lowering the standard of respectability in the profession of teaching; on the best methods of securing literary and scientific culture in a corps of teachers. No one of these topics would do for a second report; no one of them would do for a first report made by members of the council not interested in it. The volunteer system is the only system for round-table work. It would be best generally to concentrate attention, and guide it by having a report made upon some particular book like Lange's work on *Apperception*, or Mrs. Jacobi's book on *Science and Language-Study*.

The general work of the Association, as a whole, should go on in deep ruts, but the special work of the departments should be specialized and always fresh and new. This will take care of itself if there be a sufficiency of these small groups encouraged. Perhaps there are only four persons in the entire nation interested in some special topic. The National Educational Association, with its facilities for cheap transportation and cheap board, furnishes the best opportunity each year for the meeting of these four persons, or any other similarly interested persons. Perhaps the attraction of the particular interest would not be sufficient to draw together the four specialists. But the National Educational Association adds a host of other attractions, and in the aggregate these are strong enough to prevail.

We wish to produce as many growing teachers as possible—as many as possible who each year have found fresh leads and have distanced their former selves.

It seems to me, therefore, quite doubtful whether the division of the National Educational Association into sectional associations, with which it alternates biennially, would not be rather a step backward. It would perhaps break the continuity which is essential as a kind of background on which the specialization which we have discussed can best take place. It will certainly make the familiar faces that meet us from year to year, coming from a great distance—as in the present meeting, from Colorado and Texas—it will make these faces less familiar to us, and different sections of the Union will be in less direct sympathy than formerly.

If I have studied aright this problem, it is not the general association that is in need of reform, but only the departments. These departments instead of breaking away from the type of the general association, as they should do, are imitating its organization when

they ought to devote themselves to developing and fostering voluntary subcommittees or round tables devoted to special work.

The general association, with its wide scope, its great masses, its distinguished personalities, its cheap fares, its entertaining tours, and its spectacle of great combination, and, lastly, with the great interest and substantial tributes of respect which it elicits from the business men of all parts of the country, and from the world in general outside the scholastic field—the general association, with these reasons for being, should continue as it is.

THE ORGANIZATION OF AN ACTIVE (PERMANENT) MEMBERSHIP

In 1895, at the Denver meeting, the constitution was amended to provide for the reorganization of the membership of the Association. The provision under which a Life Membership could be purchased by the payment of $20 at one time, and a Life Directorship by payment of $100, was abolished. Instead a permanent active membership class was created, providing that such membership should continue and annual dues should be paid whether the member attended the annual convention or not. It was provided that presidents of the Association should become life directors at the close of their respective terms of office. It was also provided that distinguished educators residing outside of the United States might be elected by the board of directors as corresponding members. The Active Membership list and the statistical tables of membership published in this volume will show the growth and present condition of the permanent supporting membership of the Association.

In 1898, at the Washington meeting, the constitution was amended so as to provide for the election of a permanent secretary who should receive a salary and should give his entire time to the service of the Association. The board of trustees were authorized to elect the permanent secretary and to fix his salary and his term of office for a period not to exceed four years for each term.

REINCORPORATION

At the annual convention held at St. Louis in 1904, action was taken to secure a reincorporation of the Association whose certificate of incorporation for twenty years from February 24, 1886, would expire February 24, 1906. The board of trustees were empowered by resolution of the active members passed at their annual meeting, June 30, 1904 (see p. 28, vol. of *Proceedings* for 1904) to take steps to continue the corporate existence, and to protect the interests, of the Association and to this end recommend such changes in the constitution as they might deem advisable.

At the meeting of active members held in Asbury Park, July 6, 1905, the board of trustees presented a report which had already been mailed to all active members on May 25, preceding. This report may be found in full with the discussion and the action on the same on pp. 25–40 of the volume of *Proceedings* for 1905.

In accordance with this action and the subsequent action of the board of directors on the same date (see p. 52, volume of *Proceedings* for 1905) the board of trustees secured the passage by the Senate and the House of Repre-

sentatives of an act of Congress incorporating the National Education Association, providing such act should be accepted by the active members of the next following annual meeting. This act was approved by the President of the United States on June 30, 1906. The full text of the act may be found on pp. 21–24 of this volume.

VI. THE CONSTITUTION

The following is the text of the Constitution, as adopted at the meeting for organization in Philadelphia, Pa., August 26, 1857:

THE NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION

Preamble

To elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching, and to promote the cause of popular education in the United States, we, whose names are subjoined, agree to adopt the following

Constitution

ARTICLE I.—NAME

This association shall be styled "The National Teachers' Association."

ART. II.—MEMBERS

Sec. 1. Any gentleman[1] who is regularly occupied in teaching in a public or private elementary school, college, or university, or who is regularly employed as a private tutor, as the editor of an educational journal, or as a superintendent of schools, shall be eligible to membership.

Sec. 2. Application for admission to membership shall be made or referred to the Board of Directors, or to such a committee of their number as they shall appoint; and all who may be recommended by them,[2] and accepted by a majority vote of the members present, shall be entitled to the privileges of the association upon paying two dollars and signing this constitution.

Sec. 3. Upon the recommendation of the Board of Directors, gentlemen may be elected honorary members by a two-thirds vote of the members present, and as such shall have all the rights of regular members, except those of voting and holding office.

Sec. 4. Ladies engaged in teaching may, on the recommendation of the Board of Directors, become honorary members, and shall thereby possess the right of presenting, in the form of written essays (to be read by the Secretary, or any other member whom they may select), their views upon the subject assigned for discussion.

Sec. 5.[3] Whenever a member of this Association shall abandon the profession of teaching, or the business of editing an educational journal, or of superintending schools, he shall cease to be a member.

Sec. 6. If one member shall be charged by another with immoral or dishonorable conduct, the charge shall be referred to the Board of Directors, or such committee as they shall appoint; and if the charge shall be sustained by them, and afterwards by a two-thirds vote of the members present, at a regular meeting of the Association, the member so charged shall forfeit his membership.

Sec. 7. There shall be an annual fee of one dollar. If any one shall omit paying his fee for four years his connection with the association shall cease.

[1] 1866: amended by striking out the word, "gentleman," and inserting the word, "person."

[2] 1866: amended by striking out the words, "and accepted by a majority vote of the members present."

[3] 1866: Art. II, Sec. 5, was stricken from the constitution.

SEC. 8. A person eligible to membership may become a life member by paying, at once, ten dollars.

ART. III.—OFFICERS

SEC. 1. The officers of this Association shall be a President, twelve Vice-Presidents, a Secretary, a Treasurer, and one Counselor for each state, district, or territory represented in the association. These officers, all of whom shall be elected by ballot, a majority of votes cast being necessary for a choice, shall constitute the Board of Directors, and shall have power to appoint committees from their own number such as they shall deem expedient.

SEC. 2. THE PRESIDENT shall preside at all meetings of the Association and of the Board of Directors, and shall perform such other duties, and enjoy such privileges, as by custom devolve upon and are enjoyed by a presiding officer.

In his absence the VICE-PRESIDENT, in order, who is present, shall preside; and in the absence of all the Vice-Presidents a *pro tempore* chairman shall be appointed on nomination—the Secretary putting the question.

SEC. 3. THE SECRETARY shall keep a full and just record of the proceedings of the Association and of the Board of Directors, shall notify each member of the Association, or Board, shall conduct such correspondence as the Directors may assign, and shall have his records present at all meetings of the Association and of the Board of Directors. In his absence, a Secretary *pro tem.* may be appointed.

SEC. 4. THE TREASURER shall receive and hold in safe-keeping all moneys paid to the Association; shall expend the same, in accordance with the vote of the Directors, or of the Association; and shall keep an exact account of his receipts and expenditures, with vouchers of the latter, which account he shall render to the Board of Directors prior to each regular meeting of the Association; he shall also present an abstract thereof to the Association. The Treasurer shall give such bonds for the faithful discharge of his duties, as may be required by the Board of Directors.

SEC. 5. THE COUNSELORS shall have equal powers with the other Directors in performing the duties belonging to the board. The Board of Directors shall have power to fill vacancies in their own body, shall have in charge the general interests of the Association, shall make all necessary arrangements for its meetings, and shall do all in their power to render it a useful and honorable institution.

ART. IV.—MEETINGS

A meeting shall be held in August, 1858, after which the meetings shall be held biennially. [Changed to annually at the meeting in 1858.]

The place and precise time of meeting shall be determined by the Board of Directors. The Board of Directors shall hold their regular meetings at the place and two hours before the time of the assembling of the Association, and immediately after the adjournment of the same. Special meetings may be held at such other times and places as the Board or the President may determine.

ART. V.—BY-LAWS

By-laws, not inconsistent with this constitution, may be adopted by a two-thirds vote of the Association.

ART. VI.—AMENDMENTS

This constitution may be altered or amended at a regular meeting by the unanimous vote of the members present; or by a two-thirds vote of the members present, provided the alteration or amendment has been presented, or substantially proposed, at a previous regular meeting.

The following Constitution was adopted at the time of the reorganization and change of name of the Association at the Cleveland meeting, August

15, 1870. The various amendments made from time to time follow their respective sections.

THE CONSTITUTION

OF THE

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

PREAMBLE

To elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching, and to promote the cause of popular education in the United States, we, whose names are subjoined, agree to adopt the following

CONSTITUTION

ARTICLE I.—NAME

This Association shall be styled "THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION."

ARTICLE II.—DEPARTMENTS

SECTION 1. It shall consist of four Departments: The first, of School Superintendence; the second, of Normal Schools; the third, of Elementary Schools; the fourth, of Higher Instruction.

[1875: Amended by adding, "the fifth, of Industrial Education."
1880: Amended by adding, "and a National Council of Education."
1883: Amended by adding, "the sixth, of Art Education."
1884: Amended by adding, "the seventh, of Kindergarten Instruction; the eighth, of Music Education."
1886: Amended by adding, "the ninth, of Secondary Education."
1892: Amended by adding, "the tenth, of Business Education."
1894: Amended by adding, "the eleventh, of Child-Study."
1895: Amended by adding, "the twelfth, of Physical Education; the thirteenth, of Natural Science Instruction; the fourteenth, of School Administration."
1896: Amended by adding: "the fifteenth, the Library Department."
1897: Amended by adding, "the sixteenth, for the Education of the Deaf, Blind, and Feeble-minded;" changed in 1902 to the "Department of Special Education."
1899: Amended by adding, "the seventeenth, of Indian Education."
1899: Amended by changing, "Industrial Education," to "Manual Training."
1905: Amended by adding, "the eighteenth, of Technical Education."]

SEC. 2. Other departments may be organized in the manner prescribed in this Constitution.

ARTICLE III.—MEMBERSHIP

SECTION 1. Any person in any way connected with the work of education shall be eligible to membership. Such person may become a member of this Association by paying two dollars and signing this Constitution; and he may continue a member by the payment of an annual fee of one dollar. On his neglect to pay such fee, his membership shall cease.

1875: Amended by changing "one dollar," to, "two dollars."
1885: Amended by inserting, after "education," "or any educational association."
1895: Amended by replacing Sec. 1 by the following:
"SECTION 1. There shall be three classes of members, namely, active, associate, and corresponding.
SEC. 2. Teachers and all who are actively associated with the management of educational institutions, including libraries and periodicals, may become active members. All others who pay an annual membership fee of two dollars may become associate members. Eminent educators not residing in America may be elected by

the Directory to be corresponding members. The number of corresponding members shall at no time exceed fifty.

SEC. 3. All persons who have been members of the Association for any two years previous to or including 1895 may be admitted to active membership without payment of the enrollment fee. Any person eligible may become an active member upon application endorsed by two active members and the payment of an enrollment fee of two dollars.

All active members must pay annual dues of two dollars, and will be entitled to the volume of *Proceedings* without 'coupon' or other conditions. If the annual dues are not paid within the fiscal year, membership will lapse, and may be restored only on payment of the enrollment fee of two dollars.

Associate members may receive the volume of *Proceedings* in accordance with the usual 'coupon' conditions, as printed on the membership certificate.

Corresponding members will be entitled to the volume of *Proceedings* without payment of fees, or other conditions.

SEC. 4. The names of active and corresponding members only will be printed in the volume of *Proceedings* with their respective educational titles, offices, and addresses, to be revised annually by the Secretary of the Association."

1896: Amended by adding to paragraph 2 of Section 3, "All life members and life directors shall be denominated active members, and shall enjoy all the powers and privileges of such members without the payment of annual dues."

1897: Amended by striking out the first sentence of Section 3 to and including the words, "enrollment fee," and by adding to the second sentence of Section 3, "and the annual dues for the current year."

1900: Amended by adding to the first paragraph of Section 3, "Active members only have the right to vote and to hold office in the general Association or in the several departments."

Amended, in second sentence of second paragraph of Section 3, to read, "The annual (active) membership fee shall be payable at the time of the annual convention or by remittance to the Secretary before September 1 of each year. Any active member may discontinue membership by giving written notice to the Secretary before September 1, and may restore the same only on the payment of the enrollment fee and the annual dues for the current year."

SEC. 2. Each department may prescribe its own conditions of membership, provided that no person be admitted to such membership who is not a member of the general Association.

1895: Amended by striking out entire section.

SEC. 3. Any person eligible to membership may become a life-member by paying at once ten dollars.

1876: Amended by changing, "ten," to, "twenty."

1895: Amended by striking out entire section.

ARTICLE IV.—OFFICERS

SECTION 1. The officers of this Association shall be a President, twelve Vice-Presidents, a Secretary, a Treasurer, one Counselor for each State, District, or Territory represented in the Association, and the officers charged with the administration of their respective Departments.

1876: Amended by adding, "Any friend of education may become a life-director by the donation of one hundred dollars to the Association at one time, either by himself or in his behalf."

1880: Amended by adding, "and any educational association may secure a perpetual directorship by a like donation of one hundred dollars, the director to be appointed annually or for life."

1885: Amended by adding, "Whenever a life-member desires to become a life-director, he shall be credited with the amount he has paid for life-membership."

1886: Amended by changing, "officers charged with the administration of their respective departments," to, "presiding officers of the several departments and a Board of Trustees to be constituted as hereinafter provided."
1887: Amended by changing, "Counselor" to "Director."
1895: Amended by substituting the following:
"SECTION 1. The officers of this Association shall consist of a President, twelve Vice-Presidents, a Secretary, a Treasurer, a Board of Directors, a Board of Trustees, and an Executive Committee, as hereinafter provided.
"SEC. 2. The President, Vice-Presidents, Secretary, Treasurer, Counselors, and presiding officers of their respective Departments shall constitute the Board of Directors, and, as such, shall have power to appoint such committees from their own number as they shall deem expedient."
1876: Amended by adding, after "Counselors," "Life-Directors."
1884: Amended by adding, after "Life-Directors," "President of the Council."
1887: Amended by changing "Counselors" to "Directors."
1895: Amended by substituting the following:
"SEC. 2. The Board of Directors shall consist of the President of the National Educational Association, First Vice-President, Secretary, Treasurer, chairman of the Board of Trustees, and one additional member from each state, territory, or district, to be elected by the Association for the term of one year, or until their successors are chosen, and of such life-directors as are now (July 10, 1895) in office.
"The President of the National Educational Association, First Vice-President, Secretary, Treasurer, and chairman of the Board of Trustees shall constitute the Executive Committee."
1896: Amended by inserting after line 5, "All past presidents of the Association now living, and all future presidents at the close of their respective terms of office, and the United States Commissioner of Education shall become life-directors of the Association."
1898: Amended in last paragraph to read:
"The President of the National Educational Association, First Vice-President, Treasurer, chairman of the Board of Trustees, and a member of the Association to be chosen annually by the Board of Directors, which member shall hold office for one year, shall constitute the Executive Committee.
"SEC. 3. The officers of the Association shall be chosen by ballot, unless otherwise ordered, on the second day of each annual session, a majority of the votes cast being necessary for a choice. They shall continue in office until the close of the annual session subsequent to their election, and until their successors are chosen."
1876: Amended by inserting, "elective," before "officers."
1886: Amended by adding, "except as hereinafter provided."
1895: Amended by changing, "second," to, "third."
1896: Amended by inserting, after "chosen," "by the active members of the Association."
1898: Amended by inserting, in line 1, after "Association," "with the exception of the Secretary."
Amended by changing, in second sentence, "They," to, "The officers so chosen."
"SEC. 4. Each department shall be administered by a President, Vice-President, Secretary, and such other officers as it shall deem necessary to conduct its affairs."
1886: Amended by adding, "but no person shall be elected to any office of any department, or of the Association, who is not, at the time of the election, a member of the Association."
1896: Amended by inserting, "active," before, "member."
"SEC. 5. The President shall preside at all meetings of the Association and of the Board of Directors, and shall perform the duties usually devolving upon a presiding officer. In his absence, the first Vice-President in order, who is present, shall preside; and in the absence of all Vice-Presidents, a *pro tempore* chairman shall be appointed on nomination, the Secretary putting the question."

"SEC. 6. The Secretary shall keep a full and accurate report of the proceedings of the general meetings of the Association and all meetings of the Board of Directors, and shall conduct such correspondence as the Directors may assign, and shall have his records present at all meetings of the Association and of the Board of Directors. The Secretary of each department shall, in addition to performing the duties usually pertaining to his office, keep a list of the members of his department."

"SEC. 7. The Treasurer shall receive and hold in safe-keeping all moneys paid to the Association, shall expend the same only upon the order of the Committee of Finance, shall keep an exact account of his receipts and expenditures, with vouchers for the latter, which accounts he shall render to the Board of Directors prior to each regular meeting of the Association, and shall also present an abstract thereof to the Association. He shall give bonds for the faithful discharge of his duties as may be required by the Board of Directors."

1884: Amended by adding, "The Treasurer's term of office shall continue till the settlement of the business of the session for which he is elected."

1886: Amended by substituting the following:

"SEC. 7. The Treasurer shall receive, and under the direction of the Board of Trustees hold in safe-keeping, all moneys paid to the Association; shall expend the same only upon the order of said board; shall keep an exact account of his receipts and expenditures, with vouchers for the latter, which accounts, ending the 1st day of July each year, he shall render to the Board of Trustees and, when approved by said board, he shall report the same to the Board of Directors. The Treasurer shall give such bond for the faithful discharge of his duties as may be required by the Board of Trustees; and he shall continue in office until the first meeting of the Board of Directors held prior to the annual meeting of the Association next succeeding that for which he is elected."

"SEC. 8. The Board of Directors shall have power to fill all vacancies in their own body; shall have in charge the general interests of the Association; shall make all necessary arrangements for its meetings; and shall do all in its power to make it a useful and honorable institution. Upon the written application of twenty members of the Association for permission to establish a new Department, they may grant such permission. Such new Department shall in all respects be entitled to the same rights and privileges as the others. The formation of such Department shall in effect be a sufficient amendment to this Constitution for the insertion of its name in Article II, and the Secretary shall make the necessary alterations."

1886: Amended by inserting, after "Association," in line 2, "excepting those herein entrusted to the Board of Trustees."

1896: Amended by inserting, "active," between, "twenty" and "members."

1876: Added:

"SEC. 9. The Board of Directors shall appoint three trustees into whose hands shall be placed for safe-keeping and investment all funds which the Association may receive from the creation of life-directorships or from donations, unless the donors shall specify other purposes for which they may be used. The income of such funds so invested shall be used exclusively in defraying the expense of publishing the annual volume of the Association unless the donors shall specify otherwise. The Board of Directors shall require such trustees to give to the Association their joint bond in a sum equal to twice the amount of such trust fund as may be in their hands."

1886: Amended by substituting the following:

"SEC. 9. The Board of Trustees shall consist of four members, elected by the Board of Directors for a term of four years, and the President of the Association, who shall be a member *ex officio* during his term of office. At the election of the Trustees in 1886, one Trustee shall be elected for one year, one for two years, one for three years, and one for four years, and annually thereafter, at the first meeting of the Board of Directors held prior to the annual meeting of the Association, one Trustee shall be elected for the term of four years. All vacancies occurring in said Board of Trustees, whether

by resignation or otherwise, shall be filled by the Board of Directors for the unexpired term; and the absence of a Trustee from two consecutive annual meetings of the Board shall forfeit his membership therein. The Board of Trustees thus elected and constituted shall be the executive financial officers of this Association, as a body corporate, as conferred by the certificate of incorporation under the provisions of the Act of General Incorporation, Class Third, of the Revised Statutes of the District of Columbia, dated the twenty-fourth day of February, 1886, at Washington, D. C., and recorded in Liber No. 4, 'Acts of Incorporation for the District of Columbia.'"

"SEC. 10. It shall be the duty of the Board of Trustees to provide for safe-keeping and investment of all funds which the Association may receive from life-directorships, or from donations; and the income of such invested funds shall be used exclusively in paying the cost of publishing the annual volume of *Proceedings* of the Association, excepting when donors shall specify otherwise. It shall also be the duty of the Board to issue orders on the Treasurer for the payment of all bills approved by the Board of Directors, or by the President and Secretary of the Association acting under the authority of the Board of Directors; and, when practicable, the Trustees shall invest all surplus funds exceeding one hundred dollars, that may remain in the hands of the Treasurer after paying the expenses of the Association for the previous year."

1896: Amended by changing the last sentence of Section 9 to read: "The Board of Trustees thus elected shall constitute the body corporate of the Association, as provided in the certificate of incorporation, etc."

1898: Added:

"SEC. 11. The Board of Trustees shall elect the Secretary of the Association, who shall also be secretary of the Executive Committee, and shall fix his compensation and his term of office for a period not to exceed four years."

ARTICLE V.—MEETINGS

SECTION 1. The Annual Meeting of the Association shall be held at such time and place as shall be determined by the Board of Directors.

SEC. 2. Special meetings may be called by the President at the request of five Directors.

SEC. 3. Any department of the Association may hold a special meeting at such time and place as by its own regulations it shall appoint.

SEC. 4. The Board of Directors shall hold their regular meetings at the place of, and not less than two hours before, the assembling of the Association.

SEC. 5. Special meetings may be held at such other times and places as the Board or the President shall determine.

SEC. 6. Each new Board shall organize on the day of its election. At its first meeting a Committee on Publication shall be appointed, which shall consist of the Secretary of the Association for the previous year, and one member from each department.

1884: Amended by changing, "on the day," to, "at the session."

1886: Amended by inserting, after "shall consist of," "the President and."

ARTICLE VI.—BY-LAWS

By-laws, not inconsistent with this Constitution, may be adopted by a two-thirds vote of the Association.

ARTICLE VII.—AMENDMENTS

This Constitution may be altered or amended at a regular meeting by the unanimous vote of the members present, or by a two-thirds vote of the members present, provided that the alteration or amendment has been substantially proposed in writing at a previous meeting.

BY-LAWS

1. At each regular meeting of the Association there shall be appointed a Committee on Nominations, one on Honorary Members, and one on Resolutions.

1897: Amended by substituting the following:
"1. At the first session of each annual meeting of the Association there shall be appointed by the President a committee on resolutions; and at the third session of such meeting there shall be appointed a committee on nominations, consisting of one member from each state represented, the same to be appointed by the President on the nomination of a majority of the active members in attendance from such state; provided, however, that such appointment shall be made by the President without such nomination when less than three active members from a state are in attendance, and also when a majority of the active members in attendance from any one state shall fail to make a nomination.
"The meetings of active members to nominate members of the nominating committee shall be held at 2 P. M. on the second day of the meeting, at such places as shall be announced in the general program."

1899: Amended by inserting, after "state," "and territory."
Amended by changing "2 P. M. on the second day" to "5:30 P. M. on the first day."

1903: Amended by changing, "in attendance from such state and territory," to, "from such state and territory present at the meeting called for the purpose of making such nomination."
Amended by striking out the words, "less than three active members from a state are in attendance, and also when a majority of."

2. The President, First Vice-President, and Secretary shall constitute a Committee on Finance.

1886: Amended by substituting the following:
"2. The President and Secretary shall certify to the Board of Trustees all bills approved by the Board of Directors."

3. Each paying member of the Association shall be entitled to a copy of its *Proceedings*.

1877: Added.
"4. No paper, lecture, or address shall be read before the Association or any of its departments in the absence of its author, nor shall any such paper, lecture, or address be published in the volume of *Proceedings* without the consent of the Association."

1885: Amended by adding, "upon approval of the Executive Committee."

1889: Added:
"5. It shall be the duty of the President, Secretary, and Treasurer of the Association, to appoint annually some competent person to examine the securities of the permanent fund held by the Board of Trustees, and his certificate showing the condition of the said fund shall be attached to the report of the Board of Trustees."

VII. LIST OF EXECUTIVE OFFICERS WITH CALENDAR OF MEETINGS

NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION

1857 PHILADELPHIA, PA., AUGUST 26 (ORGANIZATION)
Chairman, JAMES L. ENOS, Cedar Rapids, Iowa
Secretary, W. E. SHELDON, Boston, Mass.

1858 CINCINNATI, OHIO, AUGUST 11–13
Pres., Z. RICHARDS, Washington, D. C.
Sec., J. W. BULKLEY, Brooklyn, N. Y.
Treas., A. J. RICKOFF, Cincinnati, Ohio

1859 WASHINGTON, D. C., August 10–12
Pres., A. J. RICKOFF, Cincinnati, Ohio
Sec., J. W. BULKLEY, Brooklyn, N. Y.
Treas., C. S. PENNELL, St. Louis, Mo.

1860 BUFFALO, N. Y.. AUGUST 8–10
Pres., J. W. BULKLEY, Brooklyn, N. Y.
Sec., Z. RICHARDS, Washington, D. C.
Treas., O. C. WIGHT, Washington, D. C.

1861, 1862 No Meetings

1863 CHICAGO, ILL., August 5–7
Pres., John D. Philbrick, Boston, Mass.
Sec., James Cruikshank, Albany, N. Y.
Treas., O. C. Wight, Washington, D. C.

1864 OGDENSBURG, N. Y., August 10–12
Pres., W. H. Wells, Chicago, Ill.
Sec., David N. Camp, New Britain, Conn.
Treas., Z. Richards, Washington, D. C.

1865 HARRISBURG, PA., August 16–18
Pres., S. S. Greene, Providence, R. I.
Sec., W. E. Sheldon, Boston, Mass.
Treas., Z. Richards, Washington, D. C.

1866 INDIANAPOLIS, IND., August 15–17
Pres., J. P. Wickersham, Millersville, Pa.
Sec. S. H. White, Chicago, Ill.
Treas., S. P. Bates, Harrisburg, Pa.

1867 No Meeting

1868 NASHVILLE, TENN., August 19–21
Pres., J. M. Gregory, Kalamazoo, Mich.
Sec., L. Van Bokkelen, Baltimore, Md.
Treas., James Cruikshank, Brooklyn, N. Y.

1869 TRENTON, N. J., August 18–20
Pres., L. Van Bokkelen, Baltimore, Md.
Sec., W. F. Crosby, Cincinnati, Ohio
Treas., A. L. Barber, Washington, D. C.

1870 CLEVELAND, OHIO, August 15–19
Pres., Daniel B. Hagar, Salem, Mass.
Sec., A. P. Marble, Worcester, Mass.
Treas., W. E. Crosby, Davenport, Ia.

Name Changed to

THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

1871 ST. LOUIS, MO., August 22–24
Pres., J. L. Pickard, Chicago, Ill.
Sec., W. E. Crosby, Davenport, Ia.
Treas., John Hancock, Cincinnati, Ohio

1872 BOSTON, MASS., August 6–8
Pres., E. E. White, Columbus, Ohio
Sec., S. H. White, Peoria, Ill.
Treas., John Hancock, Cincinnati, Ohio

1873 ELMIRA, N. Y., August 5–7
Pres., B. G. Northrop, New Haven, Conn.
Sec., S. H. White, Peoria, Ill.
Treas., John Hancock, Cincinnati, Ohio

1874 DETROIT, MICH., August 4–6
Pres., S. H. White, Peoria, Ill.
Sec., A. P. Marble, Worcester, Mass.
Treas., John Hancock, Cincinnati, Ohio

1875 MINNEAPOLIS, MINN., August 3–5
Pres., W. T. Harris, St. Louis, Mo.
Sec., W. R. Abbott, Bellevue, Va.
Treas., A. P. Marble, Worcester, Mass.

1876 BALTIMORE, MD., July 10–12
Pres., W. F. Phelps, Winona, Minn.
Sec., W. D. Henkle, Salem, Ohio
Treas., A. P. Marble, Worcester, Mass.

1877 LOUISVILLE, KY., August 14–16
Pres., M. A. Newell, Baltimore, Md.
Sec., W. D. Henkle, Salem, Ohio
Treas., J. O. Wilson, Washington, D. C.

1878 No Meeting

1879 PHILADELPHIA, PA., July 29–31
Pres., John Hancock, Cincinnati, Ohio
Sec., W. D. Henkle, Salem, Ohio
Treas., J. O. Wilson, Washington, D. C.

1880 CHAUTAUQUA, N. Y., July 13–16
Pres., J. O. Wilson, Washington, D. C.
Sec., W. D. Henkle, Salem, Ohio
Treas., E. T. Tappan, Gambier, Ohio

1881 ATLANTA, GA., July 19–22
Pres., James H. Smart, Indianapolis, Ind.
Sec., W. D. Henkle, Salem, Ohio
Treas., E. T. Tappan, Gambier, Ohio

1882 SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y., July 12–14
Pres., G. J. Orr, Atlanta, Ga.
Sec., W. E. Sheldon, Boston, Mass.
Treas., H. S. Tarbell, Indianapolis, Ind.

1883 SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y., July 9–11
Pres., E. T. Tappan, Gambier, Ohio
Sec., W. E. Sheldon, Boston, Mass.
Treas., N. A. Calkins, New York, N. Y.

1884 MADISON, WIS., July 15–18
Pres., Thomas W. Bicknell, Boston, Mass.
Sec., H. S. Tarbell, Providence, R. I.
Treas., N. A. Calkins, New York, N. Y.

1885 SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y., July 14–17
Pres., F. Louis Soldan, St. Louis, Mo.
Sec., W. E. Sheldon, Boston, Mass.
Treas., N. A. Calkins, New York, N. Y.

1886 TOPEKA, KANS., July 13–16
Pres., N. A. Calkins, New York, N. Y.
Sec., W. E. Sheldon, Boston, Mass.
Treas., E. C. Hewett, Normal, Ill.

1887 CHICAGO, ILL., July 12–15
Pres., W. E. Sheldon, Boston, Mass.
Sec., J. H. Canfield, Lawrence, Kans.
Treas., E. C. Hewett, Normal, Ill.

1888 SAN FRANCISCO, CAL., July 17–20
Pres., Aaron Gove, Denver, Colo.
Sec., J. H. Canfield, Lawrence, Kans.
Treas., E. C. Hewett, Normal, Ill.

1889 NASHVILLE, TENN., July 16–19
Pres., A. P. Marble, Worcester, Mass.
Sec., J. H. Canfield, Lawrence, Kans.
Treas., E. C. Hewett Normal, Ill.

1890 ST. PAUL, MINN., July 8–11
Pres., J. H. Canfield, Lawrence, Kans.
Sec., W. R. Garrett, Nashville, Tenn.
Treas, E. C. Hewett, Normal, Ill.

1891 TORONTO, ONT., July 14–17
Pres., W. R. Garrett, Nashville, Tenn.
Sec., E. H. Cook, Flushing, N. Y.
Treas., J. M. Greenwood, Kansas City, Mo.

1892 SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y., July 12–15
Pres., E. H. Cook, Boulder, Colo.
Sec., R. W. Stevenson, Wichita, Kans.
Treas., J. M. Greenwood, Kansas City, Mo.

1893 CHICAGO, ILL. July 25–28
(International Congress of Education)
Pres., Albert G. Lane, Chicago, Ill.
Sec., Irwin Shepard, Winona, Minn.
Treas., J. M. Greenwood, Kansas City, Mo.

1894 ASBURY PARK, N. J., July 10–13
Pres., Albert G. Lane, Chicago, Ill.
Sec., Irwin Shepard, Winona, Minn.
Treas., J. M. Greenwood, Kansas City, Mo

1895 DENVER, COLO., July 9–12
Pres., Nicholas Murray Butler, New York
Sec., Irwin Shepard, Winona, Minn.
Treas., I. C. McNeill, Kansas City, Mo.

1896 BUFFALO, N. Y., July 7–10
Pres., N. C. Dougherty, Peoria, Ill.
Sec., Irwin Shepard, Winona, Minn.
Treas., I. C. McNeill, West Superior, Wis.

1897 MILWAUKEE, WIS., July 6–9
Pres., Charles R. Skinner, Albany, N. Y.
Sec., Irwin Shepard, Winona, Minn.
Treas., I. C. McNeill, West Superior, Wis.

1898 WASHINGTON, D. C., JULY 7–12
Pres., J. M. GREENWOOD, Kansas City, Mo.
Sec., IRWIN SHEPARD, Winona, Minn.
Treas., I. C. MCNEILL, West Superior, Wis.

1899 LOS ANGELES, CAL., JULY 11–14
Pres., E. ORAM LYTE, Millersville, Pa.
Sec., IRWIN SHEPARD, Winona, Minn.
Treas., I. C. MCNEILL, West Superior, Wis.

1900 CHARLESTON, S. C., JULY 7–13
Pres., OSCAR T. CORSON, Columbus, Ohio
Sec., IRWIN SHEPARD, Winona, Minn.
Treas., CARROLL G. PEARSE, Omaha, Neb.

1901 DETROIT, MICH., JULY 8–12
Pres., JAMES M. GREEN, Trenton, N. J.
Sec., IRWIN SHEPARD, Winona, Minn.
Treas., L. C. GREENLEE, Denver, Colo.

1902 MINNEAPOLIS, MINN., JULY 7–11
Pres., WM. M. BEARDSHEAR, Ames, Ia.
Sec., IRWIN SHEPARD, Winona, Minn.
Treas., CHARLES H. KEYES, Hartford, Conn.

1903 BOSTON, MASS., JULY 6–10
Pres., CHARLES W. ELIOT, Cambridge, Mass.
Sec., IRWIN SHEPARD, Winona, Minn.
Treas., W. M. DAVIDSON, Topeka, Kans.

1904 ST. LOUIS, MO., JUNE 27–JULY 1
Pres., JOHN W. COOK, DeKalb, Ill.
Sec., IRWIN SHEPARD, Winona, Minn.
Treas., MCHENRY RHOADS, Owensboro, Ky.

1905 ASBURY PARK AND OCEAN GROVE, N. J., JULY 3–7
Pres., WM. H. MAXWELL, New York, N. Y.
Sec., IRWIN SHEPARD, Winona, Minn.
Treas., JAMES W. CRABTREE, Peru, Neb.

1906 No Meeting

1907 LOS ANGELES, CAL., JULY 8–12
Pres., N. C. SCHAEFFER, Harrisburg, Pa.
Sec., IRWIN SHEPARD, Winona, Minn.
Treas., J. N. WILKINSON, Emporia, Kans.

VIII. BOARD OF TRUSTEES

NAMES OF MEMBERS BY ELECTION, WITH TERMS OF SERVICE OF EACH FROM 1886 (DATE OF ORGANIZATION) TO 1907

(*See Constitution, Art. IV, Sec. 9*)

Elections were for the term of four years unless otherwise specified

	TOTAL YEARS OF SERVICE
JOHN EATON, of District of Columbia; elected in 1886 for one year; re-elected in 1887; term expired in 1891	5
ZALMON RICHARDS, of District of Columbia; elected in 1886 for two years; re-elected in 1888; re-elected in 1892; term expired in 1896	10
HORACE S. TARBELL, of Rhode Island; elected in 1886 for three years; re-elected in 1889; re-elected in 1894; term expired in 1897	11
NORMAN A. CALKINS, of New York; elected in 1886 for four years; re-elected in 1890; re-elected in 1894; died in December, 1895	9½
EDWIN C. HEWETT, of Illinois; elected in 1891; term expired in 1895	4
ALBERT G. LANE, of Illinois; ex-officio member for 1892–93, and 1893–94; elected in 1895; re-elected in 1899; re-elected in 1903; died in August, 1906	13
J. ORMOND WILSON, of District of Columbia; elected in 1896; term expired in 1900	4
NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER, of New York; ex-officio member for 1894–95; elected in 1896 for two years to fill unexpired term of N. A. Calkins deceased; re-elected in 1898; re-elected in 1902	..
F. LOUIS SOLDAN, of Missouri; elected in 1897; re-elected in 1901; term expired in 1905	8
NEWTON C. DOUGHERTY, of Illinois; ex-officio member for 1895–96; elected in 1900; re-elected in 1904; resigned in 1905	6
JAMES M. GREENWOOD, of Missouri; ex-officio member for 1897–98; elected in 1905	

OFFICERS

The officers of the Board of Trustees have been as follows:

Chairman—	NORMAN A. CALKINS, from 1886 to 1895	9½
	HORACE S. TARBELL, from December 22, 1895, to July 1, 1896	6 mos.
	ALBERT G. LANE, from 1895 to 1906	11
	NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER, from 1906	..
Secretary—	ZALMON RICHARDS, from 1886 to 1896	10
	NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER, from 1896 to 1906	10
	JAMES M. GREENWOOD, from 1906	..

EX-OFFICIO MEMBERS OF BOARD OF TRUSTEES

(See *Constitution, Art. IV, Sec. 9*)

Ex-officio service was for one year unless otherwise specified

1886–87	WM. E. SHELDON, of Massachusetts
1887–88	AARON GOVE, of Colorado
1888–89	ALBERT P. MARBLE, of Massachusetts
1889–90	JAMES H. CANFIELD, of Kansas
1890–91	W. R. GARRETT, of Tennessee
1891–92	E. H. COOK, of New York
1892–93	ALBERT G. LANE, of Illinois
1893–94	ALBERT G. LANE, of Illinois
1894–95	NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER, of New York
1895–96	NEWTON C. DOUGHERTY, of Illinois
1896–97	CHARLES R. SKINNER, of New York
1897–98	JAMES M. GREENWOOD, of Missouri
1898–99	E. ORAM LYTE, of Pennsylvania
1899–1900	OSCAR T. CORSON, of Ohio
1900–1	JAMES M. GREEN, of New Jersey
1901–2	WM. M. BEARDSHEAR, of Iowa
1902–3	CHARLES W. ELIOT, of Massachusetts
1903–4	JOHN W. COOK, of Illinois
1904–5	WM. H. MAXWELL, of New York
1905–6	NATHAN C. SCHAEFFER, of Pennsylvania
1906–7	NATHAN C. SCHAEFFER, of Pennsylvania.

IX. LIST OF VICE-PRESIDENTS WITH TERMS OF SERVICE FROM 1857 TO 1907

1857-58
T. W. Valentine, New York
D. B. Hagar, Massachusetts
William Roberts, Pennsylvania
J. F. Cann, Georgia
James L. Enos, Iowa
T. C. Taylor, Delaware
J. R. Chullen, Indiana
E. W. Whelan, Missouri
P. F. Smith, South Carolina
D. Wilkins, Illinois
T. Granger, Indiana
L. Andrews, Ohio

1858-59
T. W. Valentine, New York
D. B. Hagar, Massachusetts
B. M. Kerr, Pennsylvania
J. F. Cann, Georgia
J. S. Adams, Vermont
B. T. Hoyt, Iowa
C. E. Hovey, Illinois
I. W. Andrews, Ohio
A. Drury, Kentucky
Daniel Read, Wisconsin
J. N. McJilton, Maryland
Thomas C. Bragg, Alabama

1859-60
T. W. Valentine, New York
William Roberts, Pennsylvania
Elbridge Smith, Connecticut
Isaac Stone, Illinois
C. S. Pennell, Missouri
Sylvester Scott, Virginia
D. B. Hagar, Massachusetts
T. C. Taylor, Delaware
Daniel Read, Wisconsin
A. J. Rickoff, Ohio
J. N. McJilton, Maryland
C. C. Nestlerode Iowa

1860-63[1]
William Roberts, Pennsylvania
G. F. Phelps, Connecticut
Isaac Stone, Illinois
C. S. Pennell, Missouri
C. H. Allen, Wisconsin
J. N. McJilton, Maryland
Wm. F. Phelps, New Jersey
C. C. Nestlerode, Iowa
Reuben McMillan, Ohio
Jas. G. Eliot, North Carolina
Z. Richards, District of Columbia
Chas. Ansorge, Massachusetts

1863-64
Richard Edwards, Illinois
William Roberts, Pennsylvania
G. F. Phelps, Connecticut
J. L. Pickard, Wisconsin
D. Franklin Wells, Iowa
A. J. Rickoff, Ohio
James G. Eliot, North Carolina
O. C. Wright, Dist. of Columbia
C. S. Pennell, Missouri
G. W. Hoss, Indiana
J. W. Bulkley, New York
J. D. Philbrick, Massachusetts

1864-65
Richard Edwards, Illinois
S. P. Bates, Pennsylvania
G. F. Phelps, Connecticut
E. P. Williams, Wisconsin
D. Franklin Wells, Iowa
A. J. Rickoff, Ohio
C. S. Pennell, Missouri
G. W. Hoss, Indiana
J. W. Bulkley, New York
D. B. Hagar, Massachusetts
J. M. Gregory, Michigan
E. P. Weston, Maine

1865-66
Richard Edwards, Illinois
T. W. Valentine, New York
W. F. Phelps, Minnesota
John S. Hart, New Jersey
D. Franklin Wells, Iowa
A. J. Rickoff, Ohio
C. S. Pennell, Missouri
G. W. Hoss, Indiana
J. W. Bulkley, New York
D. B. Hagar, Massachusetts
J. M. Gregory, Michigan
S. S. Greene, Rhode Island

1866-68[1]
Daniel Stevenson, Kentucky
B. G. Northrop, Massachusetts
G. W. Hoss, Indiana
M. A. Newell, Maryland
Isaac T. Goodnow, Kansas
J. P. Wickersham, Pennsylvania
W. F. Phelps, Minnesota
I. W. Andrews, Ohio
W. R. White, West Virginia
J. W. Bulkley, New York
C. D. Lawrence, Tennessee
Richard Edwards, Illinois

1868-69
J. W. Bulkley, New York
D. B. Hagar, Massachusetts
I. W. Andrews, Ohio
J. M. Gregory, Illinois
John Eaton, Tennessee
B. Mallon, Georgia
W. M. Colby, Arkansas
J. M. Olcott, Indiana
D. Franklin Wells, Iowa
J. W. Doud, Kentucky
C. W. Clark, Mississippi

1869-70
Emily A. Rice, Massachusetts
J. W. Bulkley, New York
M. H. Wygant, Arkansas
S. S. Greene, Rhode Island
W. Johnson, Maine
Geo. B. Sears, New Jersey
J. P. Wickersham, Pennsylvania
W. R. Creery, Maryland
W. R. White, West Virginia
S. S. Ashley, North Carolina
M. Seaman, Louisiana
W. D. Henkle, Ohio

1870-71
E. E. White, Ohio
W. F. Phelps, Minnesota
Delia A. Lathrop, Ohio
A. D. Williams, West Virginia
N. E. Cobleigh, Tennessee
J. H. Hoose, New York
Mrs. M. A. Stone, Connecticut
E. A. Hubbard, Massachusetts
Daniel Read, Missouri
B. C. Hobbs, Indiana
M. A. Newell, Maryland
Kate S. French, New Jersey

1871-72
W. F. Phelps, Minnesota
W. T. Harris, Missouri
J. H. Jurey, Mississippi
J. M. McKenzie, Nebraska
H. C. Harden, Massachusetts
J. W. Bulkley, New York
Newton Bateman, Illinois
W. D. Williams, Georgia
W. H. McGuffey, Virginia
Otis Patten, Arkansas
William Swinton, California
Alex. Martin, West Virginia

1872-73
Newton Bateman, Illinois
George P. Beard, Missouri
Abner J. Phipps, Massachusetts
Edward Brooks, Pennsylvania
James H. Binford, Virginia
John Swett, California
N. T. Lupton, Alabama
A. P. Stone, Maine
N. A. Calkins, New York
Miss D. A. Lathrop, Ohio
W. N. Hailmann, Kentucky
N. P. Gates, Arkansas

1873-74
James McCosh, New Jersey
Geo. P. Hays, Pennsylvania
J. W. Dickinson, Massachusetts
J. H. Binford, Virginia
Miss D. A. Lathrop, Ohio
Mrs. M. A. Stone, Connecticut
W. F. Phelps, Minnesota
Daniel Read, Missouri
E. H. Fairchild, Kentucky
W. R. Creery, Maryland
John Swett, California
N. A. Calkins, New York

1874-75
C. S. Venable, Virginia
J. M. Fleming, Tennessee
George Thatcher, Iowa
Miss H. A. Keeler, Ohio
James Cruikshank, New York
A. C. Shortridge, Indiana
Mrs. A. R. Diehl, Pennsylvania
Mrs. M. A. Perkins, Michigan
Mrs. M. A. Stone, Connecticut
J. K. Jillson, South Carolina
T. W. Cordozo, Mississippi
Alex. Hogg, Alabama

[1] No meetings were held in 1861, 1862, 1868; all officers holding over as per constitutional provision.

IX. LIST OF VICE-PRESIDENTS WITH TERMS OF SERVICE FROM 1857 TO 1907—*Continued*

1875–76

D. B. Hagar, Massachusetts
James Cruikshank, New York
J. P. Wickersham, Pennsylvania
J. H. Binford, Virginia
E. T. Tappan, Ohio
J. H. Smart, Indiana
M. A. Newell, Maryland
J. B. Merwin, Missouri
S. D. Beals, Nebraska
H. S. Tarbell, Michigan
Alonzo Abernethy, Iowa
J. W. Hoyt, Wisconsin

1876–77

John Hancock, Ohio
C. C. Rounds, Maine
Edwards Brooks, Pennsylvania
E. S. Joynes, Tennessee
N. A. Calkins, New York
J. W. Dickinson, Massachusetts
W. H. Ruffner, Virginia
W. T. Luckey, California
J. H. Smart, Indiana
W. E. Crosby, Iowa
J. S. Rollins, Missouri
J. S. McGhee, Mississippi

1877–79[1]

H. A. M. Henderson, Kentucky
E. S. Joynes, Tennessee
Alex. Hogg, Texas
I. W. Andrews, Ohio
Edward Brooks, Pennsylvania
G. A. Chase, Kentucky
R. D. Shannon, Mo.
J. W. Hoyt, Wisconsin
S. S. Greene, Rhode Island
J. H. Smart, Indiana
James Cruikshank, New York
J. C. Corbin, Arkansas

1879–80

J. H. Smart, Indiana
D. N. Camp, Connecticut
N. A. Calkins, New York
E. C. Hewett, Illinois
G. W. Fetter, Pennsylvania
Grace C. Bibb, Missouri
H. F. Harrington, Massachusetts
J. M. Garnett, Maryland
W. Colegrove, West Virginia
J. C. Gilchrist, Iowa

1880–81

Gustavus J. Orr, Georgia
J. W. Dickinson, Massachusetts
James Johonnot, New York
J. D. Pickett, Kentucky
W. T. Harris, Missouri
J. C. Gilchrist, Iowa
E. O. Vaile, Illinois
H. S. Jones, Pennsylvania
I. W. Andrews, Ohio
J. R. Malone, Texas
T. M. Marshall, West Virginia
Mrs. Louise Pollock, D. C.

1881–82

W. T. Harris, Missouri
T. C. H. Vance, Kentucky
E. K. Foster, Florida
W. O. Rogers, Louisiana
M. A. Newell, Maryland
J. M. Fish, Arkansas
H. S. Jones, Pennsylvania
H. S. Thompson, South Carolina
J. L. Pickard, Iowa
J. B. Peaslee, Ohio
J. W. Dickinson, Massachusetts
Jerome Allen, New York

1882–83

J. W. Dickinson, Massachusetts
Samuel Barnett, Georgia
John Hancock, Ohio
W. W. Folwell, Minnesota
M. A. Newell, Indiana
J. H. Carlisle, South Carolina
Julia S. Tutweiler, Alabama
H. J. Pierce, New Jersey
J. H. Vincent, New York
A. P. Stone, Massachusetts
E. E. White, Indiana
F. Louis Soldan, Missouri

1883–84

D. F. DeWolf, Ohio
J. Baldwin, Texas
B. F. Wright, Minnesota
B. L. Butcher, West Virginia
B. G. Northrop, Connecticut
H. E. Spear, Kansas
Miss H. M. Morris, New York
J. W. Dickinson, Massachusetts
E. H. Long, Missouri
John Swett, California
G. P. Beard, Pennsylvania
Miss M. S. Cooper, New York

1884–85

T. W. Bicknell, Massachusetts
B. L. Butcher, West Virginia
A. J. Russell, Florida
T. H. Payne, Tennessee
Ed. Willetts, Michigan
J. W. Holcombe, Indiana
J. H. Canfield, Kansas
Thomas Hunter, New York
W. H. Chandler, Wisconsin
E. E. Higbee, Pennsylvania
C. L. Sampson, Arkansas
J. A. Smith, Mississippi

1885–86

F. Louis Soldan, Missouri
S. T. Dutton, Connecticut
James MacAlister, Pennsylvania
LeRoy D. Brown, Ohio
J. D. Dreher, Virginia
S. M. Finger, North Carolina
E. E. Sheib, Louisiana
J. Baldwin, Texas
J. W. Stearns, Wisconsin
J. L. Pickard, Iowa
Ella C. Sabin, Oregon
Z. Richards, District of Columbia

1886–87

Mrs. Delia L. Williams, Ohio
Henry Sabin, Iowa
A. G. Boyden, Massachusetts
Miss F. E. Holbrook, Illinois
Aaron Gove, Colorado
Hattie O. Thoms, Wisconsin
Warren Easton, Louisiana
W. R. Garrett, Tennessee
J. D. Dreher, Virginia
Mrs. M. A. Stone, Connecticut
Miss Ella Calkins, New York

1887–88

W. E. Sheldon, Massachusetts
J. W. Holcombe, Dist. of Columbia
Warren Easton, Louisiana
Solomon Palmer, Alabama
T. J. Morgan, Rhode Island
Rose C. Swartz, Wisconsin
W. R. Garrett, Tennessee
T. A. Futrall, Arkansas
F. M. Campbell, California
Irwin Shepard, Minnesota
J. T. Buchanan, Missouri
A. R. Sabin, Illinois

1888–89

Aaron Gove, Colorado
John W. Cook, Illinois
C. J. Prescott, New Jersey
Alex. Hogg, Texas
Ira G. Hoitt, California
W. E. Sheldon, Massachusetts
W. B. Garrett, Tennessee
Henry A. Wise, Maryland
E. E. Higbee, Pennsylvania
C. E. Hodgin, New Mexico
Irwin Shepard, Minnesota
T. J. Morgan, Rhode Island

1889–90

A. P. Marble, Massachusetts
T. A. Futrall, Arkansas
W. F. Slaton, Georgia
W. S. Jones, Tennessee
E. H. Cook, New Jersey
D. B. Johnson, South Carolina
E. A Steere, Montana
Alex. Hogg, Texas
Alonzo Hill, Alabama
C. A. Schaeffer, Iowa
C. C. Davidson, Ohio
E. B. McElroy, Oregon

1890–91

J. H. Canfield, Kansas
W. H. H. Beadle, South Dakota
Delia L. Williams, Ohio
J. H. Baker, Colorado
T. A. Futrall, Arkansas
J. T. Buchanan, Missouri
H. S. Jones, Pennsylvania
Mary E. Nicholson, Indiana
J. R. Preston, Mississippi
E. B. McElroy, Oregon
M. C. Fernald, Maine
Solomon Palmer, Alabama

[1] No meetings in 1878. All officers held over as per constitutional provision.

IX. LIST OF VICE-PRESIDENTS WITH TERMS OF SERVICE FROM 1857 TO 1907—*Continued*

1891–92
W. R. Garrett, Tennessee
C. H. Clemmer, North Dakota
T. A. Futrall, Arkansas
E. O. Lyte, Pennsylvania
G. L. Osborne, Missouri
J. R. Preston, Mississippi
E. B. McElroy, Oregon
E. H. Bartholomew, Kentucky
Miss N. Cropsey, Indiana
W. M. Beardshear, Iowa
Irwin Shepard, Minnesota
A. P. Marble, Massachusetts

1892–94[1]
E. H. Cook, New York
W. H. Bartholomew, Kentucky
L. E. Wolfe, Missouri
M. C. Fernald, Maine
G. J. Ramsey, Louisiana
E. E. White, Ohio
J. W. Dickinson, Massachusetts
T. A. Futrall, Arkansas
F. A. Fitzpatrick, Nebraska
Edward Searing, Minnesota
C. P. Rogers, Iowa
N. C. Schaeffer, Pennsylvania

1894–95
A. G. Lane, Illinois
G. M. Philips, Pennsylvania
L. E. Wolfe, Missouri
W. H. Bartholomew, Kentucky
W. F. Slaton, Georgia
D. B. Johnson, South Carolina
H. A. Wise, Maryland
W. E. Sheldon, Massachusetts
S. S. Packard, New York
W. R. Malone, Utah
D. L. Kiehle, Minnesota
F. A. Fitzpatrick, Nebraska

1895–96
N. M. Butler, New York
Mrs. A. J. Peavey, Colorado
W. H. Bartholomew, Kentucky
N. C. Schaeffer, Pennsylvania
W. N. Sheats, Florida
Henry Sabin, Iowa
E. B. McElroy, Oregon
C. G. Pearse, Nebraska
H. R. Pattengill, Michigan
R. H. Halsey, Wisconsin
T. B. Lewis, Utah
Estelle Reel, Wyoming

1896–97
N. C. Dougherty, Illinois
W. H. Bartholomew, Kentucky
J. N. Wilkinson, Kansas
T. A. Futrall, Arkansas
W. W. Stetson, Maine
Oscar H. Cooper, Texas
Emma F. Bates, North Dakota
James K. Powers, Alabama
C. G. Pearse, Nebraska
J. H. Collins, Illinois
T. B. Stockwell, Rhode Island
J. T. Merrill, Iowa

1897–98
C. R. Skinner, New York
G. J. Ramsey, Louisiana
J. L. Holloway, Arkansas
E. O. Lyte, Pennsylvania
J. M. Ralston, New Jersey
Miss M. W. Sutherland, Ohio
L. D. Harvey, Wisconsin
W. W. Stetson, Maine
Hiram Hadley, New Mexico
W. H. H. Beadle, South Dakota
J. H. McCahan, Maryland
S. T. Black, California

1898–99
J. M. Greenwood, Missouri
W. W. Stetson, Maine
E. B. Prettyman, Maryland
H. C. White, Georgia
Joseph Swain, Indiana
J. R. Rightsell, Arkansas
R. S. Bingham, Washington
Frank P. Smith, Kansas
E. B. McElroy, Oregon
McHenry Rhoads, Kentucky
J. Y. Joyner, North Carolina
S. N. Hopkins, Oklahoma

1899–1900
E. O. Lyte, Pennsylvania
J. A. Foshay, California
H. M. Slauson, Michigan
E. B. McElroy, Oregon
J. P. Hendricks, Montana
J. M. Green, New Jersey
W. H. Bartholomew, Kentucky
W. A. Bell, Ohio
W. F. Slaton, Georgia
L. W. Buchholz, Florida
Mrs. Gaston Boyd, Kansas
George H. Conley, Massacuhsetts

1900–01
Oscar T. Corson, Ohio
J. A. Foshay, California
H. P. Archer, South Carolina
H. B. Brown, Indiana
Francis W. Parker, Illinois
L. W. Buchholz, Florida
W. H. Bartholomew, Kentucky
O. H. Cooper, Texas
W. M. Davidson, Kansas
R. B. Fulton, Mississippi
Gertrude Edmund, Massachusetts
H. E. Kratz, Iowa

1901–02
J. M. Green, New Jersey
W. C. Martindale, Michigan
R. S. Bingham, Washington
W. W. Chalmers, Ohio
A. W. Norton, South Dakota
J. L. Holloway, Arkansas
McHenry Rhoads, Kentucky
Edmund Stanley, Kansas
H. S. Tarbell, Rhode Island
S. D. Largent, Montana
W. M. Slaton, Georgia
C. M. Woodward, Missouri

1902–03
W. M. Beardshear, Iowa
Orville T. Bright, Illinois
Chas. F. Reeves, Washington
Joseph Kennedy, North Dakota
Chas. F. Thwing, Ohio
W. N. Sheats, Florida
Miss Marion Brown, Louisiana
J. B. Pearcy, Indiana
Mrs. H. L. Grenfell, Colorado
Henry R. Sanford, New York
J. H. Francis, California
Wallace G. Nye, Minnesota

1903–04
Chas. W. Eliot, Massachusetts
E. A. Alderman, Louisiana
J. W. Searson, Nebraska
Wm. L. Prather, Texas
Geo. B. Cook, Arkansas
Henry R. Sanford, New York
Geo. M. Smith, South Dakota
H. Brewster Willis, New Jersey
J. A. Foshay, California
Frank B. Dyer, Ohio
Delos Fall, Michigan
Miss E. E. Carlisle, Massachusetts

1904–05
John W. Cook, Illinois
C. P. Cary, Wisconsin
Geo. B. Cook, Arkansas
J. N. Study, Indiana
J. M. H. Frederick, Ohio
Alice M. Robertson, Indian Ter.
E. H. Mark, Kentucky
Henry H. Swain, Montana
A. J. Matthews, Arizona
B. C. Caldwell, Louisiana
A. B. Poland, New Jersey
Chas. D. McIver, North Carolina

1905–07[1]
Wm. H. Maxwell, New York
Miss N. Cropsey, Indiana
J. H. Hinemon, Arkansas
Ed. S. Vaught, Oklahoma
John F. Riggs, Iowa
Joseph O'Connor, California
D. B. Johnson, South Carolina
J. A. Shawan, Ohio
H. O. Wheeler, Vermont
J. Y. Joyner, North Carolina
John W. Spindler, Kansas
J. Stanley Brown, Illinois

[1] No meetings were held in 1893 and 1906. All officers held over as per constitutional provision.

X. LIST OF STATE DIRECTORS BY ELECTION

	1857–58	1858–59	1859–60	1860–63*
Alabama	.....	S. J. C. Sweezey	S. J. C. Sweezey	.....
Arizona	.....	.....	.....	.....
Arkansas	.....	.....	.....	.....
California	.....	.....	.....	J. C. Pelton
Colorado	.....	.....	.....	.....
Connecticut	.....	.....	J. W. Allen	David N. Camp
Delaware	N. R. Lynch	.....	.....	T. C. Taylor
Dist. of Col.	O. C. Wright	O. C. Wright	Wm. McCathran	.....
Florida	.....	.....	D. McNeil Turner	D. McNeil Turner
Georgia	Wm. S. Bogart	.....	.....	.....
Idaho	.....	.....	.....	.....
Illinois	Wm. H. Wells	Isaac Stone	Ashael Elmer	Wm. H. Wells
Indiana	J. Hurley	E. P. Cole	W. B. Smith	.....
Indian Ter.	.....	.....	.....	.....
Iowa	A. J. Stevens	C. C. Nestlerode	.....	D. F. Wells
Kansas	.....	.....	.....	.....
Kentucky	.....	J. B. Dodd	A. Drury	.....
Louisiana	.....	.....	.....	.....
Maine	.....	.....	.....	E. P. Weston
Maryland	Wm. Morrison	J. L. Yeates	J. L. Yeates	J. Basil, Jr.
Mass.	Wm. E. Sheldon	Wm. E. Sheldon	Wm. E. Sheldon	Wm. E. Sheldon
Michigan	.....	.....	.....	E. Danforth
Minnesota	.....	.....	.....	.....
Mississippi	.....	.....	.....	.....
Missouri	Wm. T. Luckey.	N. D. Terrell	Wm. B. Starke	Richard Edwards
Montana	.....	.....	.....	.....
Nebraska	.....	.....	.....	.....
Nevada	.....	.....	.....	.....
N. Hampshire	.....	.....	.....	.....
New Jersey	.....	S. R. Gummere	.....	.....
New Mexico	.....	.....	.....	.....
New York	J. W. Bulkley	James Cruikshank	James Cruikshank	C. H. Gildersleeve
No. Carolina	.....	.....	John G. Eliot	S. H. Wiley
No. Dakota	.....	.....	.....	.....
Ohio	.....	R. McMillan	R. McMillan	W. D. Henkle
Oklahoma	.....	.....	.....	.....
Oregon	.....	.....	.....	.....
Pennsylvania	P. A. Cregar	H. C. Hickok	H. C. Hickok	E. J. Brodie
Rhode Island	.....	.....	.....	.....
So. Carolina	.....	.....	S. E. Wright	F. A. Sawyer
So. Dakota	.....	.....	.....	.....
Tennessee	.....	.....	.....	.....
Texas	.....	.....	.....	.....
Utah	.....	.....	.....	.....
Vermont	.....	C. Pease	.....	.....
Virginia	.....	.....	F. M. Edwards	S. Scott
Washington	.....	.....	.....	.....
W. Virginia	.....	.....	.....	.....
Wisconsin	.....	L. C. Draper	L. C. Draper	.....
Wyoming	.....	.....	.....	.....

* No meetings in 1861 and 186.

X. LIST OF STATE DIRECTORS BY ELECTION—*Continued*

	1863–64	1864–65	1865–66	1866–68*
Alabama	.....	.....	.....	.....
Arizona	.....	.....	.....	.....
Arkansas	.....	.....	.....	W. M. Colby
California	.....	Joseph Holden	.....	.....
Colorado	.....	.....	.....	.....
Connecticut	E. F. Strong	David N. Camp	David N. Camp	.....
Delaware	.....	.....	L. Coleman	.....
Dist. of Col.	.....	.....	Zalmon Richards	.....
Florida	.....	.....	.....	.....
Georgia	.....	.....	.....	.....
Idaho	.....	.....	.....	.....
Illinois	S. H. White	S. H. White	J. L. Pickard	J. L. Pickard
Indiana	W. B. Smith	A. C. Shortridge	A. C. Shortridge	A. C. Shortridge
Indian Ter.	.....	.....	.....	.....
Iowa	A. S. Kissell	Wm. Brush	T. S. Parvin	O. Faville
Kansas	J. T. Goodnow	J. T. Goodnow	.....	H. D. McCarthy
Kentucky	E. A. Grant	E. A. Grant	W. N. Hailmann	W. N. Hailmann
Louisiana	.....	B. L. Brown	.....	.....
Maine	E. P. Weston	.....	.....	.....
Maryland	J. N. McJilton	J. N. McJilton	L. Van Bokkelen	R. G. Chaney
Mass.	Abner J. Phipps	Abner J. Phipps	T. D. Adams	D. B. Hagar
Michigan	J. M. Gregory	.....	S. J. Flower	O. Hosford
Minnesota	J. D. Ford	T. F. Thickstun	T. F. Thickstun	H. C. Rogers
Mississippi	.....	.....	.....	.....
Missouri	C. F. Childs	C. F. Childs	C. F. Childs	A. E. Holcomb
Montana	.....	.....	.....	.....
Nebraska	.....	.....	.....	.....
Nevada	.....	.....	.....	.....
N. Hampshire	A. J. Burbank	C. P. Otis	.....	.....
New Jersey	....	.....	C. M. Harrison	H. B. Pierce
New Mexico	.....	.....	.....	.....
New York	James Cruikshank	James Cruikshank	James Cruikshank	T. W. Valentine
No. Carolina	.....	.....	.....	.....
No. Dakota	.....	.....	.....	.....
Ohio	W. D. Henkle	E. E. White	E. E. White	W. D. Henkle
Oklahoma	.....	.....	.....	.....
Oregon	.....	.....	Henry Cummins	.....
Pennsylvania	.....	R. Cruikshank	F. A. Allen	Wm. H. Parker
Rhode Island	S. S. Greene	Merrick Lyon	Merrick Lyon	.....
So. Carolina	.....	.....	.....	.....
So. Dakota	.....	.....	.....	.....
Tennessee	.....	.....	.....	J. K. Paine
Texas	.....	.....	George Everett	.....
Utah	.....	.....	.....	.....
Vermont	J. S. Adams	J. S. Adams	.....	.....
Virginia	.....	.....	.....	.....
Washington	.....	.....	.....	.....
W. Virginia	.....	.....	.....	.....
Wisconsin	Isaac Stone, Jr.	J. G. McMynn	J. G. McMynn	C. H. Allen
Wyoming	.....	.....	.....	.....

No meeting in 1867.

X. LIST OF STATE DIRECTORS BY ELECTION—*Continued*

	1868–69	1869–70	1870–71	1871–72
Alabama	.....	.....	Amelia A. Rockfellow	.....
Arizona	.....	.....	.....	.....
Arkansas	Thomas Smith	Thomas Smith	E. T. Dale	E. E. Henderson
California	.....	.....	.....	W. T. Luckey
Colorado	.....	.....	.....	Mrs. J. M. Tousley
Connecticut	B. G. Northrop	David N. Camp	B. G. Northrop	Mrs. M. A. Stone
Delaware	.....	.....	.....	.....
Dist. of Col.	Zalmon Richards	Zalmon Richards	Zalmon Richards	James H. Holmes
Florida	.....	.....	.....	.....
Georgia	H. H. Tucker	.....	.....	B. Mallon
Idaho	E. L. Wells	.....	.....	.....
Illinois	.....	S. H. White	J. E. Dow	Richard Edwards
Indiana	W. A. Bell	B. C. Hobbs	A. C. Shortridge	Miss N. Cropsey
Indian Ter.	.....	.....	.....	.....
Iowa	.....	.....	A. Armstrong	A. S. Kissell
Kansas	.....	.....	E. T. Heisler	J. Denison
Kentucky	S. Prettyman	.....	Mrs. M. Whittington	Mrs. N. S. Roberts
Louisiana	.....	M. Rogers	.....	.....
Maine	A. P. Stone	.....	J. H. Hanson	.....
Maryland	W. R. Creery	Thos. D. Baird	W. R. Creery	J. T. McGlosie
Mass.	J. D. Philbrick	H. F. Harrington	Wm. E. Sheldon	Wm. E. Sheldon
Michigan	.....	.....	J. W. Ewing	Duane Doty
Minnesota	.....	G. M. Gage	.....	W. O. Hiskey
Mississippi	H. R. Pease	.....	.....	J. W. Bishop
Missouri	.....	D. Ried	J. Baldwin	Lucy J. Maltby
Montana	.....	.....	.....	.....
Nebraska	.....	.....	.....	Miss H. E. Cummings
Nevada	.....	.....	.....	.....
N. Hampshire	.....	J. S. Woodman	W. E. C. Rich	.....
New Jersey	.....	John S. Hart	John S. Hart	John S. Hart
New Mexico	.....	.....	.....	.....
New York	Edward North	W. T. Valentine	S. A. Ellis	N. A. Calkins
No. Carolina	.....	.....	.....	.....
No. Dakota	.....	.....	.....	.....
Ohio	E. E. White	E. E. White	W. D. Henkle	H. H. Raschig
Oklahoma	.....	.....	.....	.....
Oregon	.....	.....	.....	.....
Pennsylvania	J. P. Wickersham	Edward Brooks	George Luckey	.....
Rhode Island	.....	.....	T. W. Bicknell	.....
So. Carolina	.....	.....	.....	.....
So. Dakota	.....	.....	.....	.....
Tennessee	John Ogden	John Ogden	M. C. Wilcox	.....
Texas	.....	.....	.....	A. L. Hay
Utah	.....	.....	.....	.....
Vermont	.....	.....	Judah Dana	E. Conant
Virginia	W. H. McGuffey	.....	R. M. Manley	.....
Washington	.....	.....	.....	.....
W. Virginia	.....	.....	S. R. Thompson	A. D Williams
Wisconsin	C. H. Allen	J. W. Hoyt	O. Arey	J. W. Hoyt
Wyoming	.....	.....	.....	.....

X. LIST OF STATE DIRECTORS BY ELECTION—*Continued*

	1872–73	1873–74	1874–75	1875–76
Alabama	Joseph Hodgson	.....	.....	.....
Arizona	.....	.....	.....	.....
Arkansas	.....	T. J. Mulvany	Miss M. R. Gorton	Mrs. Helen M. Nash
California	.....	.....	.....	.....
Colorado	.....	.....	.....	H. M. Hale
Connecticut	Mrs. M. A. Stone	H. E. Sawyer	B. G. Northrop	Mrs. M. A. Stone
Delaware	.....	.....	.....	.....
Dist. of. Col.	J. O. Wilson	J. O. Wilson	J. O. Wilson	.....
Florida	.....	J. C. Gibbs	.....	.....
Georgia	W. H. Baker	G. W. Walker	.....	.....
Idaho	.....	.....	.....	.....
Illinois	George Howland	E. C. Hewett	J. L. Pickard	J. L. Pickard
Indiana	J. Newby	A. C. Shortridge	W. A. Bell	W. A. Bell
Indian Ter.	.....	.....	.....	.....
Iowa	Mrs. A. S. Kissell	A. Armstong	A. Armstrong	W. E. Crosby
Kansas	Miss E. D. Copley	P. G. Williams	H. D. McCarty	.....
Kentucky	.....	—— Shackelford	J. H. Patterson	J. R. Buchanan
Louisiana	.....	W. G. Brown	.....	.....
Maine	Warren Johnson	C. C. Rounds	R. Woodbury	Warren Johnson
Maryland	M. A. Newell	M. A. Newell	Wm. R. Creery	H. E. Shepherd
Mass	E. A. Hubbard	Joseph White	A. P. Stone	H. F. Harrington
Michigan	E. Olney	Rectina Woodford	D. Putnam	D. Putnam
Minnesota	H. B. Wilson	.....	H. B. Wilson	O. V. Tousley
Mississippi	.....	Isabel Babcock	.....	.....
Missouri	W. T. Harris	O. Root, Jr.	James Johonnot	Miss Grace C. Bibb
Montana	.....	.....	.....	.....
Nebraska	.....	A. P. Benton	S. R. Thompson	S. R. Thompson
Nevada	.....	.....	.....	.....
N. Hampshire	D. Crosby	Allen A. Bennett	.....	.....
New Jersey	Adolph Douai	H. B. Pierce	Marcius Willson	.....
New Mexico	.....	.....	.....	.....
New York	J. H. Hoose	G. L. Farnham	J. W. Armstrong	J. W. Bulkley
No. Carolina	Henry B. Blake	Alex. McIver	O. Hunter	.....
No. Dakota	.....	.....	.....	.....
Ohio	E. R. Stuntz	W. D. Henkle	John Hancock	John Hancock
Oklahoma	.....	.....	.....	.....
Oregon	.....	.....	.....	.....
Pennsylvania	Charles H. Verrill	G. P. Beard	Henry S. Jones	.....
Rhode Island	J. C. Greenough	J. C. Greenough	J. C. Greenough	.....
So. Carolina	.....	J. K. Jillson	R. T. Greene	J. K. Jillson
So. Dakota	.....	.....	.....	.....
Tennessee	Miss H. E. Hasslock	.....	A. Pickett	Leon Trousdale
Texas	.....	.....	.....	.....
Utah	.....	.....	O. H. Riggs	.....
Vermont	Judah Dana	J. H. French	.....	J. H. French
Virginia	N. B. Webster	E. S. Joynes	J. H. Binford.	.....
Washington	.....	.....	.....	.....
W. Virginia	A. E. Dolbear	.....	.....	Z. G. Bundy
Wisconsin	J. W. Hoyt	E. A. Charlton	Edward Searing	O. R. Smith
Wyoming	.....	.....	.....	.....

X. LIST OF STATE DIRECTORS BY ELECTION—*Continued*

	1876–77	1877–78	1879–80*	1880–81
Alabama	.....	.....	.....	Eugene R. Rivers
Arizona	M. H. Shannon	.....	.....	.....
Arkansas	G. W. Hill	G. W. Hill	.....	.....
California	Mrs. E. S. Carr	.....	.....	.....
Colorado	J. C. Dennett	.....	.....	.....
Connecticut	Mrs. M. A. Stone	Mrs. M. A. Stone	Mrs. M. A. Stone	David N. Camp
Delaware	.....	.....	D. W. Harlan	.....
Dist. of Col.	.....	Zalmon Richards	Zalmon Richards	Zalmon Richards
Florida	.....	.....	W. P. Haisley	.....
Georgia	E. M. Pendleton	.....	Gustavus J. Orr	Charles E. Lambdin
Idaho	.....	.....	.....	.....
Illinois	S. H. White	J. L. Pickard	S. H. White	John M. Gregory
Indiana	W. A. Bell	Lemuel Moss	E. E. White	John S. Irwin
Indian Ter.	.....	J. M. Harley	.....	.....
Iowa	A. Abernethy	A. Armstrong	J. L. Pickard	J. L. Pickard
Kansas	.....	.....	.....	Allen B. Lemmon
Kentucky	H. A. M. Henderson	W. H. Bartholomew	W. H. Bartholomew	T. C. H. Vance
Louisiana	.....	.....	.....	.....
Maine	Warren Johnson	C. C. Rounds	.....	M. C. Fernald
Maryland	J. M. Garnett	C. K. Nelson	Henry E. Shepherd	M. A. Newell
Mass.	A. P. Marble	D. B. Hagar	John D. Philbrick	Thos. W. Bicknell
Michigan	Edward Olney	.....	Lewis McLouth	William H. Payne
Minnesota	C. Y. Lacy	C. Y. Lacy	W. F. Phelps	William W. Folwell
Mississippi	James G. Clark	J. A. Rainwater	.....	.....
Missouri	J. Baldwin	S. S. Laws	W. T. Harris	F. Louis Soldan
Montana	.....	.....	.....	.....
Nebraska	S. R. Thompson	S. R. Thompson	.....	S. R. Thompson
Nevada	.....	.....	.....	Charles S. Young
N. Hampshire	.....	.....	.....	.....
New Jersey	Randal Spalding	Miss G. Van Akin	W. N. Barringer	James McCosh
New Mexico	.....	.....	.....	.....
New York	James H. Hoose	Mrs. E. W. Crain	Edward Danforth	Norman A. Calkins
No. Carolina	J. R. Blake	John R. Samson	.....	Amy M. Bradley
No. Dakota	.....	.....	.....	.....
Ohio	E. T. Tappan	E. H. Cook	Mrs. R. D. Rickoff	John B. Peaslee
Oklahoma	.....	.....	.....	.....
Oregon	.....	.....	.....	.....
Pennsylvania	J. P. Wickersham	W. H. G. Adney	J. P. Wickersham	J. P. Wickersham
Rhode Island	.....	.....	A. M. Gammell	.....
So. Carolina	.....	.....	.....	.....
So. Dakota	.....	.....	.....	.....
Tennessee	.....	Wm. R. Garrett	Helen Hoadley	Will A. Cate
Texas	James R. Malone	Rufus C. Burleson	Alex. Hogg	Alex. Hogg
Utah	O. H. Riggs	.....	.....	.....
Vermont	.....	.....	A. B. Corliss	.....
Virginia	F. P. Dunnington	Thos. R. Price	J. H. Peay	.....
Washington	.....	.....	.....	.....
W. Virginia	T. M. Marshall	W. K. Pendleton	T. M. Marshall	T. M. Marshall
Wisconsin	W. C. Sawyer	.....	John P. Bird	.....
Wyoming	.....	.....	.....	.....

* No meeting in 1878

X. LIST OF STATE DIRECTORS BY ELECTION—*Continued*

	1881–82	1882–83	1883–84	1884–85
Alabama	H. C. Armstrong	Miss N. C. Gibbs	Julia S. Tutweiler	B. T. Washington
Arizona	.....	.....	.....	G. C. Hall
Arkansas	O. F. Russell	.....	.....	O. V. Hayes
California	.....	.....	J. B. Casterlin	H. B. Norton
Colorado	.....	.....	Aaron Gove	J. C. Shattuck
Connecticut	.....	David N. Camp	Mrs. M. A. Stone	S. T. Dutton
Delaware	.....	.....	.....	.....
Dist. of Col.	J. O. Wilson	Zalmon Richards	Zalmon Richards	Zalmon Richards
Florida	Albert J. Russell	.....	.....	J. S. Cowdon
Georgia	Sterling G. Brinkley	J. W. Glenn	Mrs. F. C. Mallon	G. J. Orr
Idaho	.....	.....	.....	A. H. Seerley
Illinois	James P. Slade	Edwin C. Hewett	Henry Raab	Henry Raab
Indiana	E. E. White	Geo. P. Brown	L. S. Thompson	W. D. Hill
Indian Ter.	.....	.....	.....	J. H. Covel
Iowa	J. C. Gilchrist	J. L. Pickard	Henry Sabin	H. H. Seerley
Kansas	H. C. Speer	H. C. Speer	A. R. Taylor	G. T. Fairchild
Kentucky	J. D. Pickett	J. D. Pickett	.....	R. D. Allen
Louisiana	Edwin H. Fay	.....	.....	Wm. P. Johnson
Maine	C. C. Rounds	C. C. Rounds	.....	W. J. Corthell
Maryland	Sarah E. Richmond	.....	.....	M. A. Newell
Mass.	Thomas W. Bicknell	E. P. Seaver	A. G. Boyden	D. B. Hagar
Michigan	William H. Payne	.....	C. W. Heywood	W. S. Perry
Minnesota	C. W. Smith	.....	Irwin Shepard	D. H. Kiehle
Mississippi	J. M. Barrow	.....	Miss Ella Peques	Walter Hillmann
Missouri	Grace C. Bibb	J. Fairbanks	C. M. Woodward	J. M. Greenwood
Montana	.....	.....	.....	A. S. Nichols
Nebraska	W. W. W. Jones	.....	W. W. W. Jones	G. S. Farnham
Nevada	.....	.....	.....	W. C. Young
N. Hampshire	Miss J. E. Hodgdon	J. W. Patterson	C. C. Rounds	C. C. Rounds
New Jersey	.....	W. N. Barringer	W. N. Barringer	W. N. Barringer
New Mexico	.....	.....	.....	.....
New York	Norman A. Calkins	Thos. J. Morgan	Mrs. R. D. Rickoff	S. A. Ellis
No. Carolina	.....	.....	R. Bingham	R. Bingham
No. Dakota	.....	.....	.....	.....
Ohio	John W. Dowd	R. W. Stevenson	R. W. Stevenson	John B. Peaslee
Oklahoma	.....	.....	.....	.....
Oregon	.....	.....	.....	F. H. Crawford
Pennsylvania	J. P. Wickersham	E. T. Jeffers	E. A. Singer	H. S. Jones
Rhode Island	W. A. Mowry	S. S. Greene	Merrick Lyon	T. B. Stockwell
So. Carolina	W. M. Grier	W. M. Grier	V. C. Dibble	V. C. Dibble
So. Dakota	.....	.....	.....	W. H. Beadle
Tennessee	H. D. Wyatt	H. D. Wyatt	Miss Clara Conway	W. C. Karnes
Texas	.....	.....	Alex. Hogg	J. Baldwin
Utah	.....	.....	.....	J. M. Coyner
Vermont	.....	.....	J. W. Phelps	J. M. Hitt
Virginia	William H. Ruffner	J. L. M. Curry	.....	S. C. Armstrong
Washington	.....	.....	.....	.....
W. Virginia	.....	.....	John M. Birch	F. A. Crago
Wisconsin	W. C. Whitford	Jas. MacAllister	.....	W. D. Parker
Wyoming	.....	.....	.....	.....

X. LIST OF STATE DIRECTORS BY ELECTION—*Continued*

	1885–86	1886–87	1887–88	1888–89
ALABAMA	Julia Tutwiler	W. H. Council	T. J. Mitchell	J. A. B. Lovett
ARIZONA	G. C. Hall	.....	Chas. H. Strauss	C. M. Strauss
ARKANSAS	O. V. Hayes	G. D. Purinton	Josiah H. Shinn	Miss M. L. Foster
CALIFORNIA	John Swett	J. O'Connor	Ira G. Hoitt	J. W. Anderson
COLORADO	Aaron Gove	L. S. Cornell	James H. Baker	J. S. Shattuck
CONNECTICUT	Charles D. Hine	S. T. Dutton	David N. Camp	George B. Hurd
DELAWARE	.....	Isaac T. Johnson	.....	.....
DIST. OF COL.	John Hitt	Zalmon Richards	Zalmon Richards	Zalmon Richards
FLORIDA	J. S. Cowdon	.....	.....	.....
GEORGIA	J. M. F. Irving	Gustavus J. Orr	W. R. Thigpen	W. R. Thigpen
IDAHO	.....	.....	.....	.....
ILLINOIS	O. S. Westcott	N. C. Dougherty	A. G. Lane	H. H. Belfield
INDIANA	S. S. Parr	W. A. Bell	W. A. Bell	Cyrus W. Hodgin
INDIAN TER.	J. H. Covel	.....	.....	.....
IOWA	Henry Sabin	T. H. McBride	R. G. Saunderson	J. L. Pickard
KANSAS	H. C. Speer	D. C. Tillotson	J. N. Wilkinson	Duncan Brown
KENTUCKY	R. D. Allen	W. H. Bartholomew	W. H. Bartholomew	W. H. Bartholomew
LOUISIANA	E. Nicholson	E. E. Sheib	Henry Chambers	J. M. Ordway
MAINE	W. J. Corthell	L. H. Marvel	J. H. Hanson	M. C. Fernald
MARYLAND	G. Stanley Hall	Henry A. Wise	Henry A. Wise	J. E. McCahan
MASS	Larkin Dunton	Larkin Dunton	W. A. Mowry	Alonzo Meserve
MICHIGAN	W. H. Payne	D. S. Howell	J. M. B. Sill	I. M. Wellington
MINNESOTA	Irwin Shepard	D. L. Kiehle	S. S. Taylor	C. B. Gilbert
MISSISSIPPI	J. R. Preston	J. R. Preston	M. A. Montgomery	J. W. Johnson
MISSOURI	E. H. Long	S. S. Laws	S. S. Laws	C. H. Dutcher
MONTANA	A. S. Nichols	.....	Chas. L. Howard	E. A. Carleton
NEBRASKA	W. W. W. Jones	Henry M. James	George M. Farnham	Henry M. James
NEVADA	Charles S. Young	Charles S. Young	T. B. McDonald	W. C. Dovey
N. HAMPSHIRE	C. C. Rounds	C. C. Rounds	C. C. Rounds	C. C. Rounds
NEW JERSEY	W. N. Barringer	Joseph Clark	Joseph Clark	Joseph Clark
NEW MEXICO	.....	.....	.....	Hugh A. Owen
NEW YORK	C. D. McLean	George A. Bacon	Jerome Allen	Jerome Allen
NO. CAROLINA	Charles E. Taylor	.....	Robert Bingham	S. M. Finger
NO. DAKOTA	.....	J. E. Monox	G. A. McFarland	G. B. McFarland
OHIO	R. W. Stevenson	Leroy D. Brown	C. C. Davidson	R. W. Stevenson
OKLAHOMA	.....	.....	.....	.....
OREGON	F. H. Crawford	T. O. Hutchinson	.....	E. B. McElroy
PENNSYLVANIA	H. S. Jones	H. S. Jones	E. O. Lyte	George Luckey
RHODE ISLAND	Sarah E. Doyle	G. A. Littlefield	H. S. Tarbell	W. N. Ackley
SO. CAROLINA	V. C. Dibble	J. H. Carlisle	M. Ford	Henry P. Archer
SO. DAKOTA	W. H. Beadle	.....	.....	.....
TENNESSEE	Clara Conway	T. C. Karns	Wharton S. Jones	Wharton S. Jones
TEXAS	J. M. Fendley	Alex. Hogg	P. B. Pennybaker	A. Clark
UTAH	J. M. Coyner	E. H. Anderson	W. M. Stewart	J. F. Millspaugh
VERMONT	Justus Dart	A. L. Hardy	.....	A. H. Campbell
VIRGINIA	S. C. Armstrong	J. L. Buchanan	J. L. Buchanan	Lyman B. Tefft
WASHINGTON	J. S. Ingraham	.....	.....	F. B. Gault
W. VIRGINIA	S. B. Brown	S. B. Brown	S. B. Brown	W. R. White
WISCONSIN	W. D. Parker	W. D. Parker	T. C. Chamberlain	J. B. Thayer
WYOMING	.....	.....	J. O. Churchill	J. O. Churchill

X. LIST OF STATE DIRECTORS BY ELECTION—*Continued*

	1889–90	1890–91	1891–92	1892–93*
Alabama	J. K. Powers	J. H. Phillips	J. K. Powers	Solomon Palmer
Arizona	.....	.....	.....	.....
Arkansas	J. C. Davidson	Wood E. Thompson	J. H. Shinn	Junius Jordan
California	Nora A. Smith	Ira G. Hoitt	Nora A. Smith	Earl Barnes
Colorado	J. C. Shattuck	Fred Dick	W. E. Knapp	R. H. Beggs
Connecticut	S. T. Dutton	George B. Hurd	Virgil C. Curtis	David N. Camp
Delaware	.....	.....	.....	A. N. Raub
Dist. of Col.	Zalmon Richards	Zalmon Richards	Zalmon Richards	Wm. T. Harris
Florida	F. L. Kern	F. L. Kern	F. L. Kern	Frederic Pasco
Georgia	W. R. Thigpen	E. B. Smith	E. B. Smith	E. B. Smith
Idaho	.....	.....	.....	.....
Illinois	A. G. Lane	W. H. Hatch	P. R. Walker	W. L. Steele
Indiana	W. A. Bell	W. A. Bell	Mary E. Nicholson	Jesse H. Brown
Indian Ter.	J. T. Parks	.....	.....	.....
Iowa	W. M. Beardshear	W. M. Beardshear	C. P. Rogers	O. J. Laylander
Kansas	J. M. Bloss	H. G. Larimer	J. M. Bloss	J. N. Wilkinson
Kentucky	W. H. Bartholomew	A. C. Goodwin	W. O. Cross	McHenry Rhoades
Louisiana	G. J. Ramsey	G. J. Ramsey	G. J. Ramsey	A. A. Trenby
Maine	.....	A. M. Thomas	M. C. Fernald	W. J. Corthell
Maryland	Henry A. Wise	M. A. Newell	Sarah E. Richmond	John E. McCahan
Mass.	Wm. E. Sheldon	Wm. E. Sheldon	J. T. Prince	W. E. Sheldon
Michigan	I. M. Wellington	C. N. Kendall	J. M. B. Sill	E. A. Strong
Minnesota	T. J. Gray	S. S. Parr	John E. Bradley	Irwin Shepard
Mississippi	J. W. Johnson	T. J. Woofter	T. J. Woofter	Dabney Lipscomb
Missouri	R. C. Norton	L. E. Wolfe	R. C. Norton	J. T. Buchanan
Montana	J. R. Russell	J. R. Russell	Thos. B. Miller	R. G. Young
Nebraska	H. M. James	J. A. Hornberger	H. S. Jones	C. P. Carey
Nevada	LeRoy D. Brown	.....	.....	.....
N. Hampshire	C. C. Rounds	C. C. Rounds	C. C. Rounds	C. C. Rounds
New Jersey	C. J. Prescott	A. S. Downing	N. M. Butler	N. M. Butler
New Mexico	R. W. Coltman	Allen Allensworth	Hiram Hadley	T. M. Marshall
New York	J. H. Hoose	J. W. Chandler	C. W. Bardeen	C. W. Bardeen
No. Carolina	P. P. Claxton	LeRoy D. Brown	Robert Bingham	Robert Bingham
No. Dakota	.....	C. H. Clemmer	John Ogden	James McNaughton
Ohio	C. W. Super	E. B. Cox	E. B. Cox	J. A. Shawan
Oklahoma	.....	.....	.....	D. R. Boyd
Oregon	D. W. Jarvis	Frank Rigler	Mary E. McFadden	E. B. McElroy
Pennsylvania	E. O. Lyte	N. C. Schaeffer	N. C. Schaeffer	D. J. Waller, Jr.
Rhode Island	H. S. Tarbell	W. E. Wilson	T. B. Stockwell	T. B. Stockwell
So. Carolina	E. S. Joynes	.....	W. R. Atkinson	W. B. Lanier
So. Dakota	.....	H. E. Kratz	Louis McLouth	J. D. Stay
Tennessee	Frank Goodman	Frank Goodman	Frank Goodman	Frank Goodman
Texas	Joseph Baldwin	W. S. Sutton	T. G. Harris	H. C. Pritchett
Utah	.....	.....	.....	J. F. Millspaugh
Vermont	.....	A. H. Campbell	.....	G. P. Beard
Virginia	W. F. Fox	.....	James M. Garnett	.....
Washington	F. B. Gault	F. B. Gault	F. B. Gault	F. J. Barnard
W. Virginia	.....	W. H. Anderson	W. H. Anderson	W. H. Anderson
Wisconsin	A. Salisbury	George S. Albee	S. Y. Gillan	Albert Hardy
Wyoming	J. O. Churchill	.....	J. O. Churchill	Wm. Marquardt

* No regular meeting in 1893.

X. LIST OF STATE DIRECTORS BY ELECTION—*Continued*

	1894–95	1895–96	1896–07	1897–98
Alabama	J. H. Phillips	F. M. Roof	F. M. Roof	John T. Gregory
Arizona	F. J. Netherton.	T. B. Comstock	T. B. Comstock	Miss Lydia L. Hunt
Arkansas	Junius Jordan	Junius Jordan	J. H. Hinemon	George B. Cook
California	Earl Barnes	Earl Barnes	Earl Barnes	Chas. H. Keyes
Colorado	Warren E. Knapp	J. H. Van Sickle	J. H. Van Sickle	L. C. Greenlee
Connecticut	Virgil G. Curtis	George B. Hurd	George B. Hurd	F. E. Howard
Delaware	A. N. Raub	A. N. Raub	A. H. Berlin	A. H. Berlin
Dist. of Col.	Wm. T. Harris	Zalmon Richards	John Eaton	W. B. Powell
Florida	W. N. Sheats	Oscar Clute	W. N. Sheats	Oscar Clute
Georgia	Otis Ashmore	Otis Ashmore	E. B. Smith	W. M. Slaton
Idaho	F. B. Gault	F. B. Gault	F. B. Gault	J. C. Black
Illinois	Orville T. Bright	John W. Cook	F. D. Thompson	J. H. Collins
Indiana	Jesse H. Brown	D. K. Goss	Mary E. Nicholson	Edward Ayres
Indian Ter.	.....	.....	.....	.....
Iowa	J. T. Merrill	F. B. Cooper	F. B. Cooper	W. M. Beardshear
Kansas	John MacDonald	John MacDonald	John MacDonald	John MacDonald
Kentucky	C. H. Dietrick	James McGinniss	McHenry Rhoads	E. W. Weaver
Louisiana	G. J. Ramsey	Warren Easton	Warren Easton	Warren Easton
Maine	W. J. Corthell	F. C. Fernald	John S. Locke	John S. Locke
Maryland	John E. McCahan	E. B. Prettyman	Henry A. Wise	Henry A. Wise
Mass	R. G. Huling	R. G. Huling	Chas. F. Carroll	A. G. Boyden
Michigan	E. A. Strong	S. E. Whitney	S. E. Whitney	H. R. Pattengill
Minnesota	C. B. Gilbert	C. B. Gilbert	C. B. Gilbert	C. M. Jordan
Mississippi	Dabney Lipscomb	R. B. Fulton	A. A. Kincannon	E. E. Bass
Missouri	J. T. Buchanan	John R. Kirk	John R. Kirk	John R. Kirk
Montana	R. G. Young	J. M. Hamilton	J. M. Hamilton	J. E. Klock
Nebraska	J. H. Canfield	W. H. Skinner	F. A. Barton	C. G. Pearse
Nevada	Orvis Ring	J. E. Stubbs	J. E. Stubbs	J. E. Stubbs
N. Hampshire	C. C. Rounds	C. C. Rounds	C. C. Rounds	J. A. Russell
New Jersey	A. B. Poland	J. M. Ralston	J. M. Ralston	J. M. Green
New Mexico	Hiram Hadley	C. E. Hodgin	Hiram Hadley	C. M. Light
New York	C. W. Bardeen	Chas. R. Skinner	A. B. Blodgett	A. S. Downing
No. Carolina	C. B. Denson	B. Smedes	C. D. McIver	C. D. McIver
No. Dakota	Lewis B. Avery	Emma F. Bates	Emma F. Bates	W. L. Stockwell
Ohio	J. A. Shawan	W. J. White	J. J. Burns	F. B. Dyer
Oklahoma	D. R. Boyd	D. R. Boyd	D. R. Boyd	D. R. Boyd
Oregon	E. B. McElroy	J. H. Ackerman	M. G. Royal	E. B. McElroy
Pennsylvania	E. O. Lyte	Chas. DeGarmo	N. C. Schaeffer	S. T. Skidmore
Rhode Island	T. B. Stockwell	H. S. Tarbell	G. C. Fisher	G. C. Fisher
So. Carolina	P. T. Brodie	D. B. Johnson	W. H. Hand	W. H. Hand
So. Dakota	Mrs. E. P. Farr	George M. Smith	George M. Smith	A. H. Avery
Tennessee	Frank Goodman	Frank Goodman	Wharton S. Jones	Wharton S. Jones
Texas	H. C. Pritchett	H. C. Pritchett	H. C. Pritchett	Geo. T. Winston
Utah	Ella M. Dukes	W. R. Malone	W. R. Malone	J. M. Tanner
Vermont	G. P. Beard	Alfred Turner	Mason S. Stone	Mason S. Stone
Virginia	John E. Massey	E. C. Glass	E. C. Glass	E. C. Glass
Washington	F. J. Barnard	F. J. Barnard	M. W. Harrington	R. S. Bingham
W. Virginia	W. H. Anderson	R. A. Armstrong	J. L. Goodknight	W. H. Anderson
Wisconsin	S. A. Hooper	D. D. Mayne	L. D. Harvey	Mae E. Schreiber
Wyoming	Wm. Marquardt	A. L. Putnam	A. L. Putnam	Estelle Reel

X. LIST OF STATE DIRECTORS BY ELECTION—*Continued*

	1898–99	1899–1900	1900–01	1901–02
Alabama	John T. Gregory	J. H. Phillips	J. W. Abercrombie	J. W. Abercrombie
Arizona	F. S. Hafford	F. A. Cooley	M. J. Needham	F. Yale Adams
Arkansas	J. L. Holloway	J. R. Rightsell	J. R. Rightsell	George B. Cook
California	Elmer E. Brown	John Swett	Thos. J. Kirk	James A. Foshay
Colorado	L. C. Greenlee	L. C. Greenlee	H. S. Phillips	H. S. Philips
Connecticut	F. E. Howard	C. N. Kendall	Chas. H. Keyes	Wilbur F. Gordy
Delaware	A. H. Berlin	A. H. Berlin	A. H. Berlin	G. W. Twitmyer
Dist. of Col.	W. B. Powell	W. B. Powell	W. B. Powell	H. M. Johnson
Florida	L. W. Buchholz	W. N. Sheats	Miss Clem Hampton	W. N. Sheats
Georgia	W. F. Slaton	W. M. Slaton	D. Q. Abbott	M. L. Brittain
Idaho	J. C. Black	J. W. Daniels	J. C. Black	Permeal French
Illinois	E. A. Gastman	J. H. Collins	J. H. Collins	Alfred Bayliss
Indiana	David K. Goss	J. W. Carr	T. A. Mott	T. A. Mott
Indian Ter.	W. A. Caldwell	W. A. Caldwell	.....	.....
Iowa	W. M. Beardshear	W. M. Beardshear	W. M. Beardshear	H. E. Kratz
Kansas	Frank R. Dyer	Frank R. Dyer	Frank R. Dyer	Frank R. Dyer
Kentucky	W. H. Bartholomew	McHenry Rhoads	McHenry Rhoads	W. H. Bartholomew
Louisiana	Warren Easton	Warren Easton	Warren Easton	Warren Easton
Maine	John S. Locke	John S. Locke	John S. Locke	John S. Locke
Maryland	J. D. Worthington	E. B. Prettyman	M. Bates Stephens	M. Bates Stephens
Mass.	Will S. Monroe	Will S. Monroe	F. A. Fitzpatrick	F. A. Fitzpatrick
Michigan	Henry R. Pattengill	D. W. Springer	D. W. Springer	D. W. Springer
Minnesota	George B. Aiton	F. V. Hubbard	C. M. Jordan	C. M. Jordan
Mississippi	E. E. Bass	R. B. Fulton	H. L. Whitfield	J. R. Preston
Missouri	John R. Kirk	W. T. Carrington	W. T. Carrington	W. T. Carrington
Montana	J. P. Hendricks	S. D. Largent	E. A. Carleton	W. W. Welch
Nebraska	C. G. Pearse	J. H. Miller	C. G. Pearse	C. G. Pearse
Nevada	J. E. Stubbs	J. E. Stubbs	J. E. Stubbs	J. E. Stubbs
N. Hampshire	Channing Folsom	Channing Folsom	James E. Klock	James E. Klock
New Jersey	J. M. Green	H. B. Willis	H. B. Willis	H. B. Willis
New Mexico	Mrs. E. R. Jackson	Mrs. E. R. Jackson	Mrs. E. R. Jackson	Hiram Hadley
New York	A. S. Downing	A. S. Downing	A. S. Downing	A. S. Downing
No. Carolina	G. A. Grimsley	E. A. Alderman	W. T. Whitsett	Chas. D. McIver
No. Dakota	W. L. Stockwell	W. E. Hoover	W. E. Hoover	W. E. Hoover
Ohio	C. W. Bennett	J. A. Shawan	N. H. Chaney	J. M. H. Frederick
Oklahoma	David R. Boyd	David R. Boyd	David R. Boyd	David R. Boyd
Oregon	J. H. Ackerman	E. D. Ressler	E. B. McElroy	E. D. Ressler
Pennsylvania	George Howell	H. W. Fisher	H. W. Fisher	Watson Cornell
Rhode Island	H. S. Tarbell	George E. Church	George E. Church	W. B. Jacobs
So. Carolina	Frank Crane	F. C. Woodward	W. K. Tate	D. B. Johnson
So. Dakota	J. Frank Fooshe	Frank Crane	E. E. Collins	E. E. Collins
Tennessee	W. R. Payne	H. C. Weber	M. M. Ross	M. M. Ross
Texas	O. H. Cooper	Alex. Hogg	J. M. Fendley	J. M. Fendley
Utah	J. M. Tanner	F. B. Cooper	F. B. Cooper	W. J. Kerr
Vermont	Mason S. Stone	Mason S. Stone	John L. Alger	John L. Alger
Virginia	William F. Fox	E. C. Glass	G. J. Ramsey	G. J. Ramsey
Washington	O. C. Whitney	O. C. Whitney	O. C. Whitney	Chas. M. Sherman
W. Virginia	J. N. Deahl	J. N. Deahl	J. Walter Barnes	W. H. Anderson
Wisconsin	L. D. Harvey	L. D. Harvey	L. D. Harvey	L. D. Harvey
Wyoming	Estelle Reel	Estelle Reel	Estelle Reel	Estelle Reel

X. LIST OF STATE DIRECTORS BY ELECTION—*Continued*

	1902–03	1903–04	1904–05	1905–07*
Alabama	J. W. Abercrombie	J. W. Abercrombie	Isaac W. Hill	Isaac W. Hill
Arizona	F. Yale Adams	A. J. Matthews	A. J. Matthews	A. J. Matthews
Arkansas	George B. Cook	J. H. Hinemon	J. H. Hinemon	George B. Cook
California	James A. Foshay	Thos. J. Kirk	A. H. Chamberlain	A. H. Chamberlain
Colorado	H. S. Philips	L. C. Greenlee	Jno. F. Keating	L. C. Greenlee
Connecticut	Chas. H. Keyes	Chas. H. Keyes	Chas. H. Keyes	Chas. H. Keyes
Delaware	G. W. Twitmyer	G. W. Twitmyer	G. W. Twitmyer	G. W. Twitmyer
Dist. of Col.	A. T. Stuart	A. T. Stuart	A. T. Stuart	A. T. Stuart
Florida	W. N. Sheats	B. C. Graham	Miss Clem Hampton	Miss Clem Hampton
Georgia	W. F. Slaton	W. F. Slaton	W. F. Slaton	W. M. Slaton
Idaho	Walter R. Siders	Mary L. Scott	Mary L. Scott	A. G. Sears
Illinois	Catharine Goggin	Catharine Goggin	J. A. Mercer	J. A. Mercer
Indiana	T. A. Mott	T. A. Mott	T. A. Mott	T. A. Mott
Indian Ter.	John D. Benedict	.....	John D. Benedict	John D. Benedict
Iowa	A. V. Storm	A. V. Storm	A. V. Storm	A. V. Storm
Kansas	J. W. Spindler	J. W. Spindler	J. W. Spindler	C. D. Whittemore
Kentucky	S. L. Frogge	S. L. Frogge	S. L. Frogge	W. H. Bartholomew
Louisiana	Warren Easton	Warren Easton	Warren Easton	Warren Easton
Maine	John S. Locke	John S. Locke	John S. Locke	John S. Locke
Maryland	M. Bates Stephens	M. Bates Stephens	M. Bates Stephens	M. Bates Stephens
Mass	George H. Martin	Louis P. Nash	Will S. Monroe	Henry T. Bailey
Michigan	D. W. Springer	D. W. Springer	Wm. H. Elson	Wm. H. Elson
Minnesota	C. M. Jordan	W. F. Kunze	W. F. Kunze	J. A. Cranston
Mississippi	E. E. Bass	E. E. Bass	Robert B. Fulton	Robert B. Fulton
Missouri	W. T. Carrington	Ben Blewett	Ben Blewett	W. J. Hawkins
Montana	J. M. Lewis	Oscar J. Craig	Robert G. Young	Oscar J. Craig
Nebraska	Edwin J. Bodwell	Edwin J. Bodwell	Geo. L. Towne	Geo. L. Towne
Nevada	J. E. Stubbs	J. E. Stubbs	J. E. Stubbs	J. E. Stubbs
N. Hampshire	Henry C. Morrison	Channing Folsom	James E. Klock	James E. Klock
New Jersey	H. B. Willis	John Enright	John Enright	John Enright
New Mexico	Edgar L. Hewett	Hiram Hadley	Hugh A. Owen	C. M. Light
New York	A. S. Downing	A S. Downing	A. S. Downing	James C. Byrnes
No. Carolina	G. C. Crowell	Miss L. A. Yates	Miss L. A. Yates	J. I. Foust
No. Dakota	W. E. Hoover	W. E. Hoover	W. E. Hoover	P. G. Knowlton
Ohio	J. K. Baxter	W. H. Kirk	Edmund D. Lyon	Wells L. Griswold
Oklahoma	David R. Boyd	Andrew R. Hickam	Andrew R. Hickam	Andrew R. Hickam
Oregon	E. D. Ressler	E. D. Ressler	E. D. Ressler	E. D. Ressler
Pennsylvania	J. W. Lansinger	J. W. Lansinger	J. W. Lansinger	J. W. Lansinger
Rhode Island	H. S. Tarbell	W. B. Jacobs	W. B. Jacobs	W. B. Jacobs
So. Carolina	J. J. McMahan	W. K. Tate	W. K. Tate	Robert P. Pell
So. Dakota	C. M. Young	C. M. Young	Geo. W. Nash	M. A. Lange
Tennessee	J. L. Wright	D. J. Johns, Jr.	D. J. Johns, Jr.	Eugene F. Turner
Texas	Alex. Hogg	A. Caswell Ellis	Alex. Hogg	L. E. Wolfe
Utah	W. J. Kerr	W. J. Kerr	A. C. Nelson	D. H. Christenson
Vermont	Walter E. Ranger	Walter E. Ranger	Walter E. Ranger	Isaac Thomas
Virginia	H. B. Frissell	J. L. Jarman	J. L. Jarman	J. L. Jarman
Washington	F. B. Cooper	F. B. Cooper	F. B. Cooper	Edward T. Mathes
W. Virginia	M. M. Ross	Lucy Robinson	Lucy Robinson	Lucy Robinson
Wisconsin	L. D. Harvey	L. D. Harvey	L. D. Harvey	L. D. Harvey
Wyoming	Estelle Reel	Estelle Reel	Estelle Reel	T. T. Tynan

* No meeting in 1906

XI. LIST OF PERPETUAL DIRECTORS, LIFE DIRECTORS, AND LIFE MEMBERS[1]

PERPETUAL DIRECTORS

(See Art. IV, Sec. 1, of the Constitution previous to 1895.)

1879 Philadelphia Teachers' Institute.
1889 Board of Education of Nashville, Tennessee.
1890 Illinois State Teachers' Association.

PERPETUAL MEMBERS

WISCONSIN

1884 Alumni Association, State Normal School at Milwaukee.
Athenaeum Society of State Normal School at Platteville.
Beloit City School Board.
Board of Education of the City of Janesville.
Board of Education. La Crosse.
Board of Education. Oshkosh.
Board of Regents, State Normal Schools.
Board of School Directors, Milwaukee.
884 City Superintendents' and Supervising Principals' Association of Wisconsin.
County Teachers' Association, Milwaukee County.
Milwaukee Principals' Association.
Philadelphian Society of State Normal School at Platteville.
Public School Teachers of Janesville.
State Historical Society of Wisconsin.
State Normal School at Platteville.
Teachers' Association of Wisconsin.

KANSAS

1886 Board of Education, Abilene.
Board of Education, Dodge City.
Board of Education, City of Ottawa.
1886 Board of Education, Sedgwick.
Riley County Educational Association.
Teachers' Association of Cowley County.

MINNESOTA.

1890 Board of Education, Independent School District No. 3, Northfield.

LIFE DIRECTORS

(See Art. IV, Sec. 1, of the Constitution as printed in any volume between the years 1870 and 1894.)

1888 *Brown, LeRoy D., Ohio.
1888 *Day, L. W., Ohio.
1887 †Dougherty, N. C., Illinois.
1886 *Fairchild, Geo. T., Kansas.
1883 Gove, Aaron, Colorado.
1895 Graham, H. A., Michigan.
1886 Greenwood, J. M., Missouri.
1885 *Hall, Caleb G., New York.
1887 *Hunt, Mary H., Massachusetts.
1886 Jewett, A. V., Kansas.
1881 Marshall, T. Marcellus, West Virginia.
1887 Parker, Chas. I., Illinois.
1891 Pike, Joshua, Illinois.
1881 *Rickoff, Andrew J., Ohio.
1888 *Stanford, Leland, California.
1888 Stratton, Charles Carroll, California.
1886 Taylor, A. R., Kansas.
1870 *White, E. E., Ohio.
1895 White, Charles G., Michigan.

LIFE DIRECTORS *EX OFFICIO*

(See Art. IV, Sec. 2, of the Constitution as revised in 1895.)

1902 *Beardshear, William M., Iowa.
1884 Bicknell, Thomas W., Massachusetts.
1895 Butler, Nicholas Murray, New York.
1886 *Calkins, N. A., New York.
1890 Canfield, James H., Kansas.
1892 Cook, Ezekiel Hanson, New York.
1904 Cook, John Williston, Illinois.
1900 Corson, Oscar T., Ohio.
1896 †Dougherty, Newton C., Illinois.
1903 Eliot, Charles W., Massachusetts.
1891 *Garrett, W. R., Tennessee.
1888 Gove, Aaron, Colorado.
1901 Green, James M., New Jersey.
1898 Greenwood, James M., Missouri.
1875 Harris, William T., District of Columbia.
1893 *Lane, Albert G., Illinois.
1899 Lyte, Eliphalet Oram, Pennsylvania.
1889 *Marble, Albert P., Massachusetts.
1905 Maxwell, William H., New York.
1873 *Northrop, Birdsey G., Connecticut.
1876 Phelps, William F., Wisconsin.
1871 Pickard, J. L., California.
1858 *Richards, Zalmon, District of Columbia.
1887 *Sheldon, W. E., Massachusetts.
1897 Skinner, Charles R., New York.
1885 Soldan, F. Louis, Missouri.
1872 *White, E. E., Ohio.
1880 Wilson, J. Ormond, District of Columbia.

[1] The marginal years indicate year of enrollment in this class. Some were previously enrolled in another class. The name of the state indicates residence at time of enrollment. The present address of those who are living may be found in the Active Membership List for the current year.

*Deceased. †Resigned.

LIFE MEMBERS

(See Art. III, Sec. 3 of the Constitution previous to 1895.)

1884 *Albee, Geo. S., Wisconsin.
1870 Allen, Ira Wilder, Illinois.
1884 *Allyn, Robert, Illinois.
1871 *Anderson, John J., New York.
1870 Arey, Oliver Cromwell, Ohio.
1876 *Armstrong, Allen, Iowa.
1879 Avery, Mrs. Rachel Foster, Pennsylvania.
1884 Aylward, John Arthur, Wisconsin.
1890 *Baker, W. H., Georgia.
1864 *Barnard, Henry, Connecticut.
1877 Bartholomew, William Henry, Kentucky.
1884 Bascom, John, Wisconsin.
1876 *Beals, S. D., Nebraska.
1884 Beck, George, Wisconsin.
1884 Bell, Alex. Graham, District of Columbia.
1876 *Bell, William Allen, Indiana.
1884 Bennett, C. W., Ohio.
1880 *Bennett, Hampton, Ohio.
1882 Bicknell, Thos. W., Massachusetts.
1881 Bingham, Robert, North Carolina.
1864 †Bradley, P., New York.
1876 Brooks, Edward, Pennsylvania.
1886 †Brown, Mrs. A. J. C., Kansas.
1880 Brown, Geo. P., Indiana.
1880 *Brown, LeRoy D., Ohio.
1877 †Burleson, R. C., Texas.
1880 Burns, James J., Ohio.
1879 *Calkins, N. A., New York.
1886 Campbell, A. G., Kansas.
1884 Carpenter, James H., Wisconsin.
1884 *Chandler, W. H., Wisconsin.
1884 *Charlton, E. A., Wisconsin.
1884 *Cheney, Augustus J., Illinois.
1886 Clark, Frank Howard, Kansas.
1884 Clark, Lewis Herbert, Wisconsin.
1889 Classen, Mrs. Augusta Hobe, California.
1880 Coe, Emily M., New York.
1870 Cole, William H., Ohio.
1887 *Conway, Clara, Tennessee.
1886 Coover, Nathaniel, Kansas.
1883 †Corey, Lucien B., New York.
1883 Coy, Eliab W., Ohio.
1870 Crosby, W. E., Iowa.
1864 Cruikshank, James, New York.
1866 Curran, Ulysses T., Ohio.
1884 *Curry, Robert, Nebraska.
1864 *Danforth, Edward, New York.
1880 Davidson, Charles C., Ohio.
1883 †Day, Mrs. Albert, New York.
1881 *DeWolf, Daniel F., Ohio.
1876 †Dorna G. Videlia, New York.
1880 Dutton, Bettie A., Ohio.
1864 Eberhardt, J. F., Illinois.
1884 Eden, Philip, Wisconsin.
1884 Emery, J. Q., Wisconsin.
1889 English, Rebecca F., California.
1886 Evans, Chas, H., Missouri.
1886 *Fairchild, Edward T., Kansas.
1884 *Flavin, J. T., Wisconsin.
1877 †Fish, J. M., Arkansas.
1876 Forbes, Alex., Illinois.
1877 *Franklin, M. B., Texas.
1880 *Gilchrist, J. C., Iowa.
1883 Gove, Aaron, Colorado.
1884 *Graham, Robert, Wisconsin.
1879 Gratz, Simon, Pennsylvania.
1685 *Greene, S. S., Rhode Island.
1864 *Hagar, Daniel B., Massachusetts.
1873 *Haines, Miss H. B., New York.
1876 *Hancock, John, Ohio.
1877 †Harley, J. M., Indian Territory.
1876 Harris, Wm. T., Massachusetts.
1865 *Hartshorn, O. N., Ohio.
1886 Harvey, G. I., Indian Territory.
1884 Harvey, Lorenzo Dow, Wisconsin.
1883 *Harvey, Thomas W., Ohio.
1884 Hayward, Emily A., Illinois.
1876 *Henkle, W. D., Ohio.
1884 *Hewett, Edwin C., Illinois.
1870 †Heywood, C. W., Michigan.
1880 Hitz, John, District of Columbia.
1870 *Hobbs, B. C., Indiana.
1882 Hodgdon, Josephine E., New Hampshire.
1870 Holden, L. E., Ohio.
1879 Hoose, James H., New York.
1884 *Howland, H. C., Wisconsin.
1870 Hoyt, John Wesley, Wisconsin.
1891 Hull, John, Wisconsin.
1885 Hunter, Thomas, New York.
1887 Hutton, A. J., Wisconsin.
1865 *Ingram, S. D., Pennsylvania.
1880 *Irwin, J. S., Indiana.
1884 *James, Henry M., Nebraska.
1886 *Jay, Walter M., Kansas.
1870 *Jones, D. W., Massachusetts.
1889 Keane, John J., District of Columbia.
1886 Klock, James E., Kansas.
1879 *Kraus, John, New York.
1886 Larimer, Henry G., Kansas.
1876 Laws, S. S., Missouri.
1886 Limerick, A. N., Kansas.
1886 MacDonald, John, Kansas.
1881 *Mallon, Mrs. Frances C., Georgia.
1876 †Malone, J. R., Texas.
1870 *Manley, R. M., Virginia.
1880 *Marble, Albert Prescott, Massachusetts.
1876 Marshall, T. Marcellus, West Virginia.
1886 *Mayhew, Ira, Michigan.
1870 *McGuffey, W. H., Virginia.
1879 *McMillan, Reuben, Ohio.
1880 McMillan, Mrs. Reuben, Ohio.
1866 *McRae, H. S., Indiana.
1886 *McVicar, Peter, Kansas.
1886 Meade, Richard C., Kansas.
1871 Merwin, James B., Connecticut.
1886 Miller, J. H., Kansas.
1880 *Miller, Lewis, Ohio.
1879 *Mills, Caleb, Indiana.
1877 *Monsarrat, Mrs. L. L., Kentucky.
1882 Morris, Harriet N., New York.
1886 Mowry, William A., Massachusetts.
1876 †Nelson, C. K., Maryland.

* Deceased.
† Residence unknown, if living.

1876 *Newell, M. A., Maryland.
1880 *Norris, J. A., Ohio.
1884 *Northrop, Birdsey G., Connecticut.
1884 Nye, Charles H., Wisconsin.
1888 O'Connor, Joseph, California.
1884 Parker, Warren D., Wisconsin.
1884 Parkinson, John B., Wisconsin.
1880 Patridge, Lelia E., Pennsylvania.
1879 †Paxon, Joseph A., Pennsylvania.
1880 Peaslee, John Bradley, Ohio.
1864 *Pennell, C. S., Missouri.
1870 Phelps, Wm. F., Minnesota.
1886 Pickard, J. L., Iowa.
1884 *Raab, Henry, Illinois.
1870 *Read, Daniel, Missouri.
1864 *Richards, Zalmon, District of Columbia.
1876 Richmond, Sarah E., Maryland.
1870 *Rickoff, Andrew J., New York.
1880 *Rickoff, Mrs. R. D., New York.
1886 Roach, T. W., Kansas.
1882 Robert, James A., Ohio.
1876 *Rollins, James S., Missouri.
1886 Roop, C. Y., Kansas.
1886 Rose, George E., Kansas.
1876 *Rounds, C. C., New Hampshire.
1884 *Rusk, J. M., Wisconsin.
1886 Sawhill, Thos. A., Kansas.
1876 †Schmitz, J. Adolph, Illinois.
1886 Schuyler, Aaron, Kansas.
1891 Schofield, Miss Martha, South Carolina.
1880 *Setzefaud, A., Georgia.
1884 Shaw, Samuel, Wisconsin.
1894 Shawan, Jacob A., Ohio.
1865 *Sheldon, Wm. E., Massachusetts.
1879 *Shippen, Edward, Pennsylvania.
1880 Singer Edgar A., Pennsylvania.
1877 *Smart, James H., Indiana.
1877 Soldan, F. Louis, Missouri.
1884 Spencer, Robert Closson, Wisconsin.
1877 Spero, Anna Kalfus, Kentucky.
1880 *Spring, E. A., New Jersey.
1886 Stanley, Edmund, Kansas.
1884 Stark, Joshua, Wisconsin.
1884 Stearns, J. W., Wisconsin.
1883 *Steele, J. Dorman, New York.
1882 Stern, Menco, New York.
1876 Stevens, Moses Cobb, Indiana.
1880 *Stevenson, R. W., Ohio.
1884 Stewart, Isaac Newton, Wisconsin.
1884 Stewart, Sarah A., Wisconsin.
1872 *Stone, E. M., Rhode Island.
1870 *Stone, Mrs. M. A., Connecticut.
1880 Sudborough, Mrs. Grace Bibb, Missouri.
1882 *Tappan, Eli T., Ohio.
1883 Taylor, A. R., Kansas.
1884 †Taylor, Henry J., Iowa.
1884 †Thayer, J. B., Wisconsin.
1876 Thompson, Langdon Shook, Indiana.
1886 *Thompson, S. R., Nebraska.
1886 Tillotson, D. C., Kansas.
1870 *Tourgée, Eben, Massachusetts.
1884 Twining, N. C., Wisconsin.
1886 †Vail, Thomas H., Kansas.
1884 Van Aken, Mrs. G., New York.
1884 Viebahn, Charles Frederick, Wisconsin.
1864 *Wells, D. F., Iowa.
1870 *White, Emerson E., Ohio.
1864 *White, S. H., Illinois.
1884 †Whitford, Wm. C., Wisconsin.
1865 *Wickersham, James P., Pennsylvania.
1880 Widner, Esther A., Ohio.
1870 †Wilcox, M. C., Massachusetts.
1870 Williams, Mrs Delia A. (Lathrop), Ohio.
1886 Williams, Philo Jesse, Kansas.
1884 Willis, William A., Iowa.
1880 Wilson, J. Ormond, District of Columbia.
1881 †Woodward, G. A., Alabama.
1889 Wright, Edmund W., Mississippi.
1891 Wylie, Mary J. B., Canada.
1887 Young, Chas. S., Nevada.

* Deceased.
† Residence unknown, if living.

TITLES OF PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS FROM 1857 TO 1906 ARRANGED BY YEARS AND DEPARTMENTS.

GENERAL SESSIONS

TOPICS

THE NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION

1857 Organization, in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
The Objects and Demands of a National Teachers' Association.—Wm. Russell, Massachusetts.

1858 President's Address—Mission of the Association.—Zalmon Richards, District of Columbia.
The Educational Tendencies and Progress for the Past Thirty Years.—Daniel Read, Wisconsin.
The Laws of Nature.—John Young, Indiana.
Moral Education.—J. D. Philbrick, Massachusetts.
The Teacher's Motives.—Horace Mann, Massachusetts.
Parochial Schools.—Discussion.

1859 President's Inaugural Address.—Andrew J. Rickoff, Ohio.
The Importance of Civil Polity as a Branch of Popular Education.—Daniel Read, Wisconsin.
The Place Christianity Should Occupy in American Education.—Elbridge Smith, Connecticut.
Errors in the Agencies in the Pursuit of Knowledge.—Rev. J. N. McJilton, Maryland.
Suggestions on Popular Education.—H. L. Stuart, New York.
Condition of Education in Mexico.—J. Escobar, Mexico.
The President's Inaugural Address—Objects and Mission of the National Teachers' Association.—J. W. Bulkley, New York.
The Scholarship of Shakespeare.—Edward North, Hamilton Col., New York.
Our Professional Ancestry.—Richard Edwards, Missouri.
The Philosophy of Education.—W. H. Wells, Illinois.
The Study of Matter and the Progress of Man.—Edward L. Youmans, New York.
The Teacher and Her Work.—John Kneeland, Massachusetts.
The Special Educational Wants of Our Country.—J. W. Hoyt, Wisconsin.
The National Importance of the Teacher's Profession.—Rev. J. N. McJilton, Baltimore, Maryland.
The Gods. A Poem.—Anson G. Chester, New York.
Report of Committee—School Statistics.—C. S. Pennell, Maryland.
Report of Committee on a Phonetic Alphabet.—Z. Richards, District of Columbia.

1861 and 1862.—No meetings.

1863 President's Address—The Nature and Objects of this Association.—J. D. Philbrick.
The Bearings of Popular Education on Civilization.—T. D. Adams, Massachusetts.
The Causes of Failure and Success in the Office of Teacher.—E. A. Grant, Kentucky.
Philosophy and Methods in Education.—J. M. Gregory, Michigan.
School Gymnastics.—S. W. Mason, Massachusetts.
The Teacher as an Artist.—Z. Richards, District of Columbia.

3 The Powers to be Educated.—THOMAS HILL, Massachusetts.
Object-Teaching.—E. A. SHELDON, New York.
The Organization of Primary Schools.—WM. E. CROSBY, Ohio.
Competitive Examination for Admission to West Point.—HENRY BARNARD, Connecticut.
The Union of Labor and Thought.—J. L. PICKARD, Wisconsin.

1864 President's Address—Educational Advancement.—WM. H. WELLS.
Should a Professor of Didactics Be Employed in Every Principal College?—THOMAS HILL, Massachusetts.
Object-Teaching.—H. B. WILBUR, New York.
Teachers' Associations.—J. W. BULKLEY, New York.
Liberal Education.—S. P. BATES, Pennsylvania.
National Bureau of Education.—S. H. WHITE, Illinois.
Competitive Examination for Public Service.—H. BARNARD, Connecticut.

1865 President's Address—The Educational Duties of the Hour: A National System of Education.—S. S. GREENE, Rhode Island.
On the Power of the Teacher.—W. N. BARRINGER, New Jersey.
Normal Schools of the United States.—RICHARD EDWARDS, Illinois.
The Best Method of Teaching the Classics.—ALBERT HARKNESS, Rhode Island.
Commonplace Books.—JAMES D. BUTLER, Wisconsin.
Object-Teaching. Report of a Committee.—S. S. GREENE, Rhode Island.
A National Bureau of Education.—A. J. RICKOFF, Ohio.
Education as an Element in the Reconstruction of the Union.—J. P. WICKERSHAM, Pennsylvania.

1866 President's Address—American Education for the American People.—JAMES P. WICKERSHAM, Pennsylvania.
The Educational Needs of the Border States.—W. R. WHITE, West Virginia.
The Relation of the National Government to Education.—O. HOSFORD, Michigan.
The Place of Classical Studies in an American System of Education.—W. P. ATKINSON, Massachusetts.
The Condition of the South as Respects Education.—WM. WINES, Tennessee.
A resolution was adopted to appoint a committee of five, to co-operate with the Committee of the National Superintendents, in urging upon the Senate of the United States the passage of the bill of the House of Representatives, to establish the Department of Education. The committee appointed consisted of Messrs. Z. Richards, Jas. Cruikshank, A. C. Shortridge, J. S Hart, and R. Coburn.
The Psychology of St. Paul, or a New Interpretation of the "Flesh and the Spirit."—Rev. J. H. JONES, New York.
Is There Too Much Time Spent in the Study of the Classics at Our Colleges?—W. P. ATKINSON, and many others.

1868 President's Address—Industrial Education.—J. M. GREGORY, Michigan.
Classical Studies in American Education.—I. W. ANDREWS, Ohio.
The True Idea of a College.—P. A. CHADBURNE, Wisconsin.
Industrial Education.—J. M. GREGORY, Michigan.
Education among the Freedman.—O. O. HOWARD, District of Columbia.
Normal Instruction in Colleges.—EDWARD NORTH, New York.
The United States Department of Education.—Z. RICHARDS, District of Columbia.

1869 President's Address.—L. VANBOKKELEN, Maryland.
Elementary Schools: Radical Faults and Radical Remedies.—Z. RICHARDS, District of Columbia.
Obligations of Christianity to Learning.—R. S. FIELD, New Jersey.
The State in Its Relation to Higher Education.—J. P. WICKERSHAM, Pennsylvania.
Natural Reading.—Mrs RANDALL, New York.
The School and the Workshop.—J. D. PHILBRICK, Massachusetts.
Physiology.—JAS. MCCLINTOCK, Pennsylvania.
Drawing as a Branch of Elementary Education.—J. S. WOODMAN, New Hampshire.
The Criterion of School Education.—E. E. WHITE, Ohio.
Popular Science.—MRS. LINCOLN PHELPS, Maryland.
The Work of Education in the South.—O. O. HOWARD, District of Columbia; FRANCIS T. KING, Maryland; S. S. ASHLEY, North Carolina; M. H. WYGANT, Arkansas.
Christianity in the Public Schools.—JOSEPH WHITE, Massachusetts.
Progress of University Education.—J. W. HOYT, Wisconsin.

THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

1870 President's Address—Importance of Co-operation with the Normal and Superintendents' Association.—D. B. HAGAR, Massachusetts.
Preliminary Report on a National University.—J. W. HOYT, Wisconsin.
What Is the Proper Work of a Primary School?—E. A. SHELDON, New York.
The Relation of the National Government to Public Education.—JOHN EATON, District of Columbia.
A Plea for Vocal Music in Public Schools.—EBEN TOURJÉE, Massachusetts.
Motives and Means to Be Used Prominently in School Discipline.—Discussion opened by J. L. PICKARD, Illinois.
The Prussian School System.—J. W. DICKINSON, Massachusetts.
Claims of English Grammar in Common Schools.—J. H. BLODGETT, Illinois.
Theory of American Education.—W. T. HARRIS, Missouri.
What Free Common Schools Can Do for the State.—F. A. SAWYER, South Carolina.

1871 President's Address.—J. L. PICKARD, Illinois.
The Value of Education.—Gov. BROWN, Missouri.
A National System of Compulsory Education.—J. P. WICKERSHAM, Pennsylvania.
Education of Children at Public Cost.—NEWTON BATEMAN, Illinois; W. T. HARRIS, Missouri.
An American University.—J. W. HOYT, Wisconsin.
National Aid for Education in the South.—JOHN EATON, District of Columbia.
Pedagogical Bibliography.—THOS. DAVIDSON, Missouri.
Moral Uses a Recitation May Be Made to Subserve.—ALFRED KIRK, Illinois.
Place and Use of Textbooks.—S. G. WILLIAMS, Ohio.

1872 President's Address.—E. E. WHITE, Ohio.
Methods of Instruction in Common Schools.—A. D. MAYO, Massachusetts.
System of Normal Training-Schools Best Adapted to the Wants of Our People—WM. F. PHELPS, Minnesota.
Educational Lessons of Statistics.—JOHN EATON, District of Columbia.
Compulsory Education.—NEWTON BATEMAN, Illinois.
Examination of Teachers.—JOHN SWETT, California.
Drawing in Graded Public Schools.—WALTER SMITH, Massachusetts.
Educational Movement in Japan.—ARINORI MORI, Japan.

1873 President's Address.—B. G. NORTHROP, Connecticut.
Release of the Japanese Indemnity by the U. S.—EDWARD SHIPPEN, Pennsylvania.
Address in Memory of W. H. McGUFFEY, LL.D.—DANIEL READ, Missouri.
Upper Schools.—Rev. JAMES MCCOSH, New Jersey.
How Much Culture Shall Be Imparted in Our Free Schools?—RICHARD EDWARDS, Illinois.
The Relation of the General Government to Education.—G. W. ATHERTON, New Jersey.
Education in the Southern States.—J. C. GIBBS, Florida.

1874 President's Address.—S. H. WHITE, Illinois.
Intermediate, or Upper Schools.—GEO. P. HAYS, Pennsylvania.
The Profession of the Teacher.—WM. R. ABBOTT, Virginia.
Preparatory Schools for College and University Life.—NOAH PORTER, Connecticut.
A National University.—ANDREW D. WHITE, New York; W. T. HARRIS, Missouri.
System of Public Instruction in Ontario.—J. GEO. HODGINS, Ontario.
The Building of a Brain.—EDWARD H. CLARKE, Massachusetts.
Four Years in Vassar College.—JAMES ORTON, New York.
Coeducation of the Sexes in Universities.—J. K. HOSMER, Missouri.

1875 President's Address—Subjects Proper for the Consideration of the Association.—W. T. HARRIS, Missouri.
The Country-School Problem.—W. F. PHELPS, Minnesota.
Families, Past and Present.—LEWIS FELMERI, University of Hungary.
Caste in Education.—A. P. MARBLE, Massachusetts.
The Relation of Art to Education.—Miss GRACE C. BIBB, Missouri.
Full-Orbed Education.—J. R. BUCHANAN, Kentucky.
Public Instruction in Minnesota.—W. W. FOLWELL, Minnesota.
Educational Necessities of the South.—LEON TREUSDALE, Tennessee.

1876 President's Address—The Distinctive Features of Our Educational System.—WM. F. PHELPS, Minnesota.

1876 The Demands of the Coming Century on the American Common School.—A.D. Mayo, Massachusetts.
The Country-School Problem.—Edward Olney, Michigan.
The Moral Element in Primary Education.—W. H. Ruffner, Virginia.
Education in Brazil.—Philippe da Motta, Brazil.
Education in Sweden.—Dr. Mejerberg, Sweden.
The Normal Schools of the U. S.: Their Past, Present, and Future.—Richard Edwards, Illinois.
Report on the Course of Study from Primary School to University.—W. T. Harris, Missouri.
Education in Japan.—David Murray, District of Columbia.

1877 President's Address—Universal Suffrage Must Be Accompanied by Universal Intelligence.—M. A. Newell, Maryland.
Silent Forces in Education.—J. F. Blackinton, Massachusetts.
The Study of English as Introductory to the Study of Latin and Greek.—Thos. R. Price, Virginia.
The Relation of the Preparatory, or Grammar School, to College and University.—W. R. Webb, Tennessee.
The Place of English in the Higher Education.—A. B. Stark, Kentucky.
The Study of Economy (Social) in Public Schools.—Maurice Kirby, Kentucky.
The Limits of Education.—W. R. Garrett, Tennessee.
Why Drawing Should Be Taught in Public Schools.—L. S. Thompson, Ohio.
Report of a Committee on the Bureau of Education.—Wm. F. Phelps, Wisconsin.
Report on the National Museum.—Wm. F. Phelps, Wisconsin.
Educational Interests of Texas.—R. C. Burleson, Texas.
Educated Mind: Its Mission and Responsibility.—Geo. W. Hill, Arkansas.

1878 No meeting.

1879 President's Address—Review of Educational Associations.—John Hancock, Ohio.
The High-School Question.—J. W. Dickinson, Massachusetts.
The Neighborhood as a Starting-Point in Education.—Robt. E. Thompson.
A Readjustment of Common-School Studies Necessary.—Andrew J. Rickoff, Ohio.
Education, at Home and Abroad.—J. D. Philbrick, Massachusetts.
The New Teacher in New America.—Rev. A. D. Mayo, Massachusetts.
Industrial Education; or the Equal Cultivation of the Head, the Heart, and the Hand.—Alexander Hogg, Texas.
The Historical Method in Teaching English.—Jas. M. Garnett, Maryland.

1880 Object-Lessons in Moral Instruction in the Common School.—Rev. A. D. Mayo, Massachusetts.
Normal Training for Girls' Industrial Schools in Switzerland.—John Hitz, District of Columbia.
The Unattainable in Public School Education.—A. P. Marble, Massachusetts.
The Domain of Nature and Art in the Process of Instruction.—W. H. Payne, Michigan.
Normal Departments in State Universities.—Miss Grace C. Bibb, Missouri.
The Development of the Superintendency.—Chas F. Adams, Massachusetts.
The Education of the Negro: Its Rise, Progress, and Present Status.—Gustavus J. Orr, Georgia.

1881 President's Address—The Purpose of the Public School.—James H. Smart, Indiana.
Lines of Advance.—C. C. Rounds, Maine.
The Common-School Studies.—A. J. Rickoff, Ohio.
Education and the Building of the State.—John Eaton, District of Columbia.
Education and Crime.—J. P. Wickersham, Pennsylvania.
Some Essentials in the Development of a School System.—D. F. De Wolf, Ohio.
The Teacher's Work in the Development of Mental and Moral Power.—N. A. Calkins, New York.
Revision of the Common-School Curriculum.—M. A. Newell, Maryland.
The Necessity for Spelling Reform.—T. R. Vickroy, Missouri.
The Leading Characteristics of American Systems of Public Education.—James P. Wickersham, Pennsylvania.
Moral and Literary Training in Public Schools.—J. B. Peasley, Ohio.
The Effect of Student Life on the Eye-Sight.—A. W. Calhoun, Georgia.

The Kindergarten.—Mrs. Louise Pollock, District of Columbia.
An Evening in Wonder-Land (Yellow Stone Park).—Wm. L. Marshall, Massachusetts.
The Century and the School.—F. L. Soldan, Missouri.
The Lessons of the International Educational Congress at Brussels.—W. T. Harris, Missouri.

1882 President's Address.—Gustavus J. Orr, Georgia.
The University: Its Place and Work in the American System of Education.—E. T. Tappan, Ohio.
Self-Consciousness in Education.—Rev. E. T. Jeffers, Pennsylvania.
Country Schools.—Jas. P. Slade, Illinois.
The Foundation Principles of Education by the State.—Samuel Barnett, Georgia.
Secularization of Education.—W. W. Folwell, Minnesota.
Is the Prize System, on the Whole the Best for Colleges?—J. H. Carlisle, South Carolina.
The Delsarte Philosophy of Expression.—Moses True Brown, Massachusetts.
A Memorial Paper on the Death of Professor W. D. Henkle.—W. H. Venable, Ohio.
Oral Instruction.—Larkin Dunton, Massachusetts.
Report on a National Council of Education.—Thos. W. Bicknell, Massachusetts.

1883 President's Address—Examination of Teachers.—E. T. Tappan, Ohio.
What Has Been Done for Education by the Government of the United States?—John Eaton, District of Columbia.
City Systems of Management of Public Schools.—J. L. Pickard, Iowa.
Intellectual Growth and Its Relation to Methods of Instruction.—G. Stanley Hall, Maryland.

1884 President's Address—Review of Educational Progress.—Thos. W. Bicknell, Massachusetts.
Citizenship and Education.—J. L. M. Curry, Virginia.
Education in the Northwest.—Wm. F. Vilas, Wisconsin.
Education at the South.—Robert Bingham, North Carolina; Albert Salisbury, Georgia; Wm. H. Crogman, Georgia; Rev. A. D. Mayo, Massachusetts; Booker T. Washington, Alabama.
Needs in American Education.—Miss Eva D. Kellogg, Massachusetts.
The Constant in Education.—B. A. Hinsdale, Ohio.
Woman's Work in Education.—Mrs. May Wright Sewall, Indiana.; Miss Louisa Hopkins, Massachusetts; Miss Frances Willard, Illinois; Miss Clara Conway, Tennessee.
Education of the Indian.—S. C. Armstrong, Virginia; John Eaton, District of Columbia.
Method in Teaching.—J. W. Dickinson, Massachusetts.
Relation of the Art to the Science of Education.—W. T. Harris, Massachusetts.
What Children Know.—J. M. Greenwood, Missouri.

1885 President's Address—Changes in Education.—F. Louis Soldan, Missouri.
The Ideal School-Master.—Thomas J. Morgan, Rhode Island.
The Public Schools and Morality.—J. W. Stearns, Wisconsin.
Psychological Inquiry.—W. T. Harris, Massachusetts.
How to Learn.—Rev. A. D. Mayo, Massachusetts.
The Child's Environment.—Miss Clara Conway, Tennessee.
Physics in Common Schools.—Charles K. Wead, Michigan.
Civil Service Reform and the Public Schools.—H. Randall Waite, Massachusetts.
Teaching as a Business for Men.—C. M. Bardeen, New York.
The Apprenticeship System and the Public Schools.—Thos. Hampson, District of Columbia.
Report on the Higher Education of Women.—Mrs. May Wright Sewall; W. T. Harris; W. E. Sheldon.

1886 President's Address—Our Educational Needs for the Future.—N. A. Calkins, New York.
Scientific Temperance Instruction in the Public Schools.—Mrs. J. E. Foster, Iowa.
The Effects of Alcohol on the Human System.—A. G. Boyden, Massachusetts.
The Educational Cure of Mormonism.—A. E. Winship, Massachusetts.
Moral Training in the Public Schools.—E. E. White, Ohio.
Some Serious Errors in Teaching.—L. R. Klemm, Ohio.

Other Errors in Teaching.—J. M. GREENWOOD, Missouri.
Education in Louisiana.—WM. PRESTON JOHNSTON, Louisiana.
The Result of Education in the Indian Territory.—ROBT. L. OWEN, Indian Territory.
The Education of the Chinese.—Rev. S. L. Baldwin, late missionary in China.
Education of the Mexican.—W. H. ASHLEY, New Mexico.
Education among the Colored People.—W. H. BARTHOLOMEW, Kentucky.

1887 The Problem of the Day.—RICHARD EDWARDS, Illinois.
The Psychological and Pedagogical Value of the Modern Methods of Elementary Culture—
The Socratic Element.—J. W. STEARNS, Wisconsin.
The Objective Element.—J. W. DICKINSON, Massachusetts.
The Scientific Element.—F. L. SOLDAN, Missouri.
The Natural or Developing Element.—W. N. HAILMANN, Indiana.
The Art and Method of Questioning Adapted to Ordinary School Work.—J. M. GREENWOOD, Missouri.
Examinations as Tests for Promotion in Public Schools.—H. S. Tarbell, Rhode Island.
Methods of Conducting Examinations in Ordinary School Work.—AARON GOVE, Colorado.
Educational Influence and Results of the Ordinance of 1787.—WM. E. SHELDON, Massachusetts.
Historical Bearings of the Ordinance of 1787 upon the Problems of Social and Political Life in the United States.—I. W. ANDREWS, Ohio.
Lessons of the Ordinance of 1787 as to the Future Educational Policy of Our Government.—J. L. PICKARD, Iowa.
General Influence and Results of Opening the Northwest Territory.—B. A. HINSDALE, Ohio; THOS. A. BANNING, Illinois.
Relation of the University to Public Education.—Rev. JAS. B. ANGELL, Michigan.
Relation of the Christian College.—J. W. STRONG, Minnesota.
Relation of Technological Schools to Public Education.—I. I. HOPKINS, Georgia.
Relation of University, College, and Higher Schools to Public Education.—T. H. MCBRIDE, Iowa.
The Means and Ends of Culture to Be Provided for the American People beyond the Ordinary School Period.—J. H. VINCENT, New York.
Evening Schools.—A. P. Marble, Massachusetts.
The School and the Library.—T. J. MORGAN, Rhode Island.
Manual Education in Urban Communities.—FRANCIS A. WALKER, Massachusetts.
Kinds of Schools for Manual Training.—Miss L. A. FAY, Massachusetts.
The Function of the Public School.—C. M. WOODWARD, Missouri.
How to Spread True Information concerning School Education.—HENRY SABIN, Iowa.
How to Teach Parents to Discriminate between Good and Bad Teaching.—Mrs. ELLA F. YOUNG, Illinois.
How to Awaken an Interest for Good Teachers.—W. W. PARSONS, Indiana.

1888 Literature in the Reading Courses of the Public Schools.—
(1) The Place for Such Reading.—HORACE E. SCUDDER, Massachusetts.
(2) Practical Methods of Using Literature.—LEROY HALSEY, Michigan.
(3) Value of a Taste for Good Literature.—Miss MARY L. BEECHER, Tennessee.
Ought Young Girls to Read the Daily Newspapers?—W. T. HARRIS, Massachusetts.
How Can Our Schools Best Prepare Law-abiding and Law-respecting Citizens?
(1) The Most Valuable Discipline to This End.—DUNCAN BROWN, Kansas.
(2) The Most Valuable Culture.—JOSEPH BALDWIN, Texas; GEO. H. ATKINSON, Oregon, and B. F. TWEED, Massachusetts.
The Schools Fail to Teach Morality or to Cultivate the Religious Sentiment.—JOHN W. COOK, Illinois,
The Schools Fail to Give a Reasonable Mastery of Subjects Studied.—Miss LILLIE J. MARTIN, Indiana.
The Schools Fail to Give a Proper Preparation for Active Life.—JOHN O. IRISH, California; W. E. SHELDON, Massachusetts.
The Psychological View of Practical Education.—JAMES H. BAKER, Colorado.
The Popular View: Education as a Preparation to Earn a Living.—R. K. BUEHRLE, Pennsylvania.
Where Should General Education End, and Where Should Special Education Begin?—J. M. GREENWOOD, Missouri.

1888 The General Function of the State, in Relation to School Books and Appliances.—John Swett, California.
If There Should Be an Uniformity of Textbooks, Should It Be (*a*) by State Contract, (*b*) State Publication, (*c*) or by State Decree?—A. P. Marble, Massachusetts.
Should the State Furnish Books and Appliances Free?—R. W. Stevenson, Ohio.
Free Textbooks for Free Schools.—Thos. Tash, Maine.
State Uniformity of Textbooks.—L. S. Cornell, Colorado; Homer B. Sprague, Dakota.
The True American Idea of Labor.—W. N. Ackley, Rhode Island.
What the Public School Should Teach the American Laborer.—Geo. H. Howison, California.
Special Addresses, during the Meetings—
New Plan for Educating Hindoo Women.—The Pundita Ramabai, India.
Aims of the Del Sartean Disciples.—Edna Snell Paulson, California.
The Working of a Teachers' Aid Society.—Miss Nellie E. Owens, California.
The First Free School in California.—J. D. Stevenson, California.

1889 Reports on Educational Exhibits, San Francisco.—W. T. Harris and others.
General Subject—Manual Training.
(1) The Results of the St. Louis Manual-Training School.—C. M. Woodward, Missouri.
(2) The Intellectual Value of Tool Work.—W. T. Harris, Massachusetts.
(3) The Value of Tool Instruction, as Related to the Active Pursuits in Which Pupils May Subsequently Engage.—S. H. Peabody, Illinois.
(4) Manual Training in the Primary and Grammar Schools.—H. A. Wise, Maryland.
Should Americans Educate Their Children in Denominational Schools?—
(1) Cardinal Gibbons, Maryland.
(2) Bishop John J. Keane, District of Columbia.
(3) Has the Parochial School a Proper Place in America?—Edwin D. Mead, Massachusetts.
(4) Response to Mr. Mead, by Bishop John J. Keane, District of Columbia.
(5) Public and Parochial Schools.—John Jay, New York.
(6) The Legal Status of the Public Schools.—A. S. Draper, New York.
A National University.—Wm. A. Mowry, Massachusetts.
Educational Progress of the Colored People in the South.—John H. Burrus, Mississippi.
The Culture Value of the History of Education.—B. A. Hinsdale, Michigan.
The Practical Value of the History of Education.—W. H. Payne, Tennessee.
Value to Teachers of the History of Education.—S. G. Williams, New York.
First Schools in the Ohio Valley.—W. H. Venable, Ohio.
The Recitation.—Geo. Howland, Chicago, Illinois.
Literature for Children to the Front.—Miss Mary E. Burt, Illinois.
Literature in the High Schools.—Miss Minnie C. Clark, Missouri.
Observation and Experiment in Pedagogical Inquiry Essential.—E. K. Russell, Massachusetts.
Sound Blindness.—Miss Sarah E. Wiltse, Michigan.
Honorary Degrees, as Conferred in American Colleges.—Chas. F. Smith, Tennessee.
The Problem of the Hour.—Alexander Hogg, Texas.
Education and the Republic.—A. S. Colyar, Tennessee.
Teaching of Patriotism in Public Schools.—Geo. W. F. Price, Tennessee.
History, a Patriotic Force in the School.—Henry B. Carrington, Massachusetts.
Educational Progress in the South since 1865.—W. A. Candler, Georgia.

1890 Forms of Discipline, and Discipline of Forms.—B. L. Wiggins, Tennessee.
Report—Pedagogical and Psychological Observation.—Geo. P. Brown, Illinois; W. T. Harris, Massachusetts.
Relation of Instruction to Will-Training.—Charles DeGarmo, Illinois.
Examinations as Tests for Promotion.—W. H. Maxwell, New York.
The Moral Value of Art Education.—Miss Ada M. Laughlin, Minnesota; Miss Flora Pennel, Illinois; Mrs. Hannah J. Carter, New York; Miss Christine Sullivan, Ohio; Miss Josephine C. Locke, Illinois, and Mrs. Mary D. Hicks, Massachusetts.
The White Cross Movement in Education.—Miss Frances E. Willard, Illinois.
State Schools and Parish Schools—Is Union between Them Impossible?—Bishop John Ireland, Minnesota.

1890 Compulsory Laws, and Their Enforcement.—Oscar H. Cooper, Texas.
The Correlation of Subjects in Elementary Programs.—J. W. Stearns, Wisconsin.
The Place and Function of the Agricultural College.—D. L. Kiehle, Minnesota; Lewis McLouth, Dakota.
Organization and System against Originality and Individuality on the Part of Teacher and Pupil.—Henry Sabin, Iowa.
University and School Extension.—W. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
A Problem in Civilization.—H. W. Blair, New Hampshire.
The Race Problem.—A. A. Gunby, Louisiana; Rev. J. C. Price, North Carolina.

1891 The School of the Future.—Francis W. Parker, Illinois.
Teaching Patriotism.—J. R. Preston, Mississippi. Discussion.
Historical Sketch of the National Education Association.—Z. Richards, District of Columbia.
The Present Status of Education in the U. S.—W. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
The Educational System of Ontario.—Geo. W. Ross, Minister of Education in Ontario.
Spelling Reform.—H. W. Brewster, Minnesota.
Another paper on the same subject. T. R. Vickroy, Missouri.
A Year in a German Model School.—Miss Julia S. Tutwiler, Alabama.
A Basis for Ethical Training in Elementary Schools.—Chas. DeGarmo, Pennsylvania.
The Profession of Teaching for Light and Power.—M. E. Gates, Massachusetts.
Elementary Education in England.—Wm. Clark, Canada.
The Professional Training of Teachers.—D. J. Goggin, Manitoba.
Educational Propaganda.—A. J. Rickoff, New York.
The Independent District System.—John A. MacDonald, Kansas.
Military Education in the United States.—Allen Allensworth, New Mexico.
Indian Education.—Dr. Oronhyatekha, Canada.
In Search of an Education.—Momolu Massaquoy, Africa.
The Influence of the Public School, Nationally and Internationally.—Rev. Geo. M. Grant, Ontario.
Report of Committee on Exhibits.—John E. Bradley, Minnesota, Chairman.

1892 Address of Welcome to President Benjamin Harrison.
Response by President Harrison.
Greeting from Dominion Educational Association.—Dr. Inch, Canada.
Twenty Years' Progress in Education.—W. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
Americanism in the Public Schools.—Francis Bellamy, Massachusetts.
Relation of Undergraduate to Post-Graduate Curricula.—Dr. William Pepper Pennsylvania.
Undesirable and Desirable Uniformity in Schools.—Charles W. Eliot, Massachusetts.
Ethical Culture in the Kindergarten.—Irwin Shepard, Minnesota.
Ethical Culture in Elementary and Secondary Schools.—Mrs. Delia Lathrop Williams, Ohio.
Ethical Culture in the College and University.—James H. Canfield, Nebraska.
Report on the World's Educational Congress.—W. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
University Education.—Richard H. Jesse, Missouri.
Educational Equipoise.—Mrs. Frances W. Leiter, Ohio.
Teaching Current Events in School.—E. O. Vaile, Illinois.
Literature for Children.—George E. Hardy, New York.
Literature for Teachers.—Hamilton W. Mabie, New York.
Representation of Educational Systems at the World's Exposition.—Albert G. Lane, Illinois.
The World's Congresses of 1893.—C. C. Bonney, Illinois.
The Duty of the State in Relation to the Kindergarten.—Andrew S. Draper, Ohio.
The Harmony between Control and Spontaneity.—James L. Hughes, Ontario.
To What Extent Can a Public-School System Be Improved by Legislation?—L. E. Wolfe, Missouri.
The School and the Criminal.—L. H. Jones, Indiana.
The Organization of American Education.—William Dewitt Hyde, Maine.
Scientific Value of Physical Culture.—A. B. Poland, New Jersey.

1893 The Relation between Educational Methods and Educational Ends.—John J. Keane, District of Columbia.

1893 Legal Education in the United States.—L. Dimscha, Russia.
The Present Situation of Education in France.—M. Gabriel Compayré, France.
A Perfect Physical Education Is Indispensable in Order to Produce an Ideal Education.—L. M. Torngren, Sweden.
Address.—M. Ergraff Kovalevsky, Russia.
Joseph Peter Varela and the Progress of Education in Uruguay.—Alberto Gomez Ruano, Uruguay.
Present Condition of the Public Schools of Uruguay.—Alberto Gomez Ruano, Uruguay.
Training of Teachers in High Schools in Sweden.—Edward Osterberg, Sweden.

1894 The Educational Exhibit at the Columbian Exposition.—Selim H. Peabody, New York.
The Organizers of the Nation and Education.—Austin Scott, New Jersey.
The Ethical Element in Literature, and How to Make the Most of It in Teaching.—J. A. McLellan, Ontario.
Rhythm in Education.—G. Stanley Hall, Massachusetts.
Professional Training of Teachers in Normal Schools.—John W. Cook, Illinois.
Professional Training of Teachers in Colleges.—S. G. Williams, New York.
Professional Training of Teachers in Summer Schools.—E. E. White, Ohio.
Professional Training of Teachers by Educational Publications.—John A. MacDonald, Kansas.
Improvement of City-School Systems.—Henry P. Emerson, New York.
The Influence of the Higher Education of a Country upon Its Elementary Schools.—Wm. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
Practical Education.—C. K. Adams, Wisconsin.
What Makes—What Mars, the Teacher?—Corinne Harrison, Virginia.
The Feasibility of Modifying the Programs of the Elementary and Secondary Schools to Meet the Suggestions in the Report of the Committee of Ten.—James C. MacKenzie, New Jersey.
Discussion of Reports of Committee of Ten—
Latin.—John T. Buchanan, Missouri.
English.—A. F. Nightingale, Illinois.
History.—Frank M. McMurry, Illinois.
Moral Training thru the Common Branches.—Charles DeGarmo, Pennsylvania.
Child-Study.—G. Stanley Hall, Massachusetts.
Education of Colored People in the South.—Richard R. Wright, Georgia.
Professional Obligations and Duties of the Teacher.—Edward Brooks, Pennsylvania.
Laboratory Methods in Elementary Schools.—Charles B. Scott, Minnesota.
The Higher Use of Nature-Studies.—Miss N. Cropsey, Indiana.
Horace Mann's Country School.—Henry Sabin, Iowa.
The Study of Literature.—Richard G. Moulton, Illinois.
Memorial Address—George Howland.—Albert G. Lane, Illinois; J. L. Pickard, California; John W. Cook, Illinois.
Memorial Address—Elizabeth Palmer Peabody.—Wm. E. Sheldon, Massachusetts.
Memorial Address—M. Alexander Newell.—Sarah E. Richmond, Maryland.
Memorial Address—Leland Stanford.—Will S. Monroe, California.
Memorial Address—Emily Marwedel.—Elizabeth Harrison, Illinois.
Memorial Address—John S. Crombie—John E. Bradley.—Ray Greene Huling, Massachusetts.
Memorial Address—Robert Allyn.—Edwin C. Hewett, Illinois.
Memorial Address—Robert Wallace Stevenson.—E. E. White, Ohio.

1895 Physical Training.—Edward F. Hermanns, Colorado.
President's Address—What Knowledge Is of Most Worth?—Nicholas Murray Butler, New York.
The Next Step in the Education of the Indian.—W. N. Hailmann, District of Columbia.
The Principles upon Which the Co-ordination of Studies Should Proceed.—Charles DeGarmo, Pennsylvania.
What Has Been Accomplished in Co-ordination in the Field of Natural Science.—Wilbur S. Jackman, Illinois.
What Has Been Accomplished in Co-ordination in the Field of History and Literature.—Charles A. McMurry, Illinois.
Education According to Nature.—William H. Payne, Tennessee.

The Education of Public Opinion.—Charles R. Skinner, New York.
New Standards of Patriotic Citizenship.—George H. Martin, Massachusetts.
The Study of American History as a Training for Good Citizenship.—J. Baldwin, Texas.
The Ethical Element in Patriotism.—A. P. Marble, Nebraska.
The Effect of the Theory of Evolution on Education.—Joseph LeConte, California.
Science and Education.—Wm. L. Bryan, Indiana.
The Instruction and Improvement of Teachers Now at Work in the Schools.—Arvin S. Olin, Kansas; Earl Barnes, California, and L. H. Jones, Ohio.
The Relation of Geography to History.—Edward Channing, Massachusetts.
Education Values.—James H. Baker, Colorado.
Report of the Committee on Necrology.—C. W. Bardeen, chairman.

1896 Horace Mann.—Wm. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
Horace Mann at Antioch College.—W. A. Bell, Indiana.
President's Address—Do Our Public Schools Meet Reasonable Expectations?—Newton C. Dougherty, Illinois.
Democracy and Education.—Nicholas Murray Butler, New York.
American Literature.—Brander Matthews, New York.
The Teaching of English Literature, with Special Reference to Secondary Schools.—W. P. Trent, Tennessee.
Literature in Elementary Schools.—Mrs. Ella F. Young, Illinois.
School Out of School.—John H. Vincent, New York.
Nature-Study and Moral Culture.—David Starr Jordan, California.
Nature-Study.—O. S. Westcott, Illinois.
The Function of Nature in Elementary Education.—M. G. Brumbaugh, Pennsylvania.
The American Public School.—Stewart L. Woodford, New York.
The Teacher and the School.—John Lancaster, Illinois.
Demands of Sociology upon Pedagogy.—Albion W. Small, Illinois.
The Pupil as a Social Factor.—Earl Barnes, California.
Country Schools and Country Roads.—Roy Stone (United States Engineer).
The General Government and Popular Education.—Andrew S. Draper, Illinois.
The Influence of the Negroes' Citizenship.—Booker T. Washington, Alabama.
Memorial Addresses—Constituting the Report of the Committee on Necrology for 1896.
Norman A. Calkins.—Horace H. Tarbell, Rhode Island; Edwin C. Hewett, Illinois.
Daniel B. Hager.—William E. Sheldon, Massachusetts.
John Kraus.—Horace S. Tarbell, Rhode Island.

1897 President's Address—The Best Education for the Masses.—Charles R. Skinner, New York.
The Study of History in Our Public Schools.—Newton C. Dougherty, Illinois.
Data of Method.—James M. Green, New Jersey.
The Co-operation of Women's Clubs in the Public Schools.—Mrs. Ellen M. Henrotin, Illinois.
Education from a Publisher's Standpoint.—Gilman H. Tucker, New York.
Education of the Deaf.—Alexander Graham Bell, District of Columbia.
Foreign-born Children in the Primary Grades.—Jane Addams, Illinois.
Tom and His Teachers.—Bishop John H. Vincent, New York.
The Need of Enhanced Material Support for the Rural Schools.—B. A. Hinsdale, Michigan.
Classification and Instruction in Rural Schools.—W. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
The Kind of Supervision Most Needed.—Henry Sabin, Iowa, chairman.
Intellectual Needs of Rural Schools.—D. L. Kiehle, Minnesota.
The March of the Ideal.—Clinton Scollard, New York.
Has the Heart of This People Changed towards Its Schools?—Carroll C. Pearse, Nebraska.
Educational Extremes.—O. T. Corson, Ohio.
What Not to Do.—Estelle Reel, Wyoming.
The Educational Outlook.—William B. Powell, District of Columbia.
Shall American History Be Taught in Cross-Sections or in Parallels?—James M. Greenwood, Missouri.
Some Tendencies of Modern Education.—James A. Foshay, California.

The Twentieth-Century School.—James L. Hughes, Ontario.
Winners of Men.—James H. Canfield, Ohio.
Lines of Growth in Maturing.—Richard G. Boone, Michigan.
Higher Education in the South.—George T. Winston, Texas.
The Democracy of Learning.—Lyman Abbott, New York.

1898 President's Address—Educational Tendencies.—J. M. Greenwood, Missouri.
Life and Character of Edward Austin Sheldon.—Charles R. Skinner, New York.
The Essentials in United States History to Be Taught in Elementary Schools.—Wilbur F. Gordy, Connecticut.
The Essentials in United States History to Be Taught in Secondary Schools.—Homer H. Seerley, Iowa.
The Essentials of English Composition for Elementary Schools.—Edward R. Shaw, New York.
The Essentials of English Composition to Be Taught in Secondary Schools.—C. C. Thach, Alabama.
American Universities and the National Life.—Andrew S. Draper, Illinois.
Our Educational Exhibit at the International Exposition in Paris in 1900.—W. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
The Educational Outlook.—W. W. Stetson, Maine.
Influence of Environment on the Development of United States History.—Jacques W. Redway, New York.
The Geospheres.—W. J. McGee, District of Columbia.
Minor Mental Abnormalities in Children as Occasioned by Certain Erroneous School Methods.—W. O. Krohn, Illinois.
The Latest Practical Discoveries in Biological Science and Their Bearing on Education.—N. A. Harvey, Wisconsin.
The Culture Value of Higher Mathematics.—W. B. Smith, Louisiana.
The Constants in Mathematics.—Edward Brooks, Pennsylvania.
Is the Science of Mathematics Qualitative as Well as Quantitative?—Frank H. Hall, Illinois.
The Educational Value of Geometry.—Kelly Miller, District of Columbia.
The Social Basis of Conscience.—Josiah Royce, Massachusetts.
The Duty of the State in Education.—E. E. White, Ohio.
The Deaf and Their Possibilities.—E. M. Gallaudet, District of Columbia.
Education and Gold in Alaska.—John Eaton, District of Columbia.
Lessons from American Educational History.—A. D. Mayo, Massachusetts.
The Duties and Privileges of the Supervisor.—Sarah Louise Arnold, Massachusetts.
Women's Clubs as an Educational Factor.—Margaret J. Evans, Minnesota.
The Child's Course of Study or the Teacher's—Which?—Sarah J. Walter, Connecticut.
The Teacher as a Traveler.—Lillie A. Williams, New Jersey.
Democracy and Education.—Edwin P. Seaver, Massachusetts.
Sociology's Demand upon the Schools.—J. F. Millspaugh, Utah.
Between Day School and Reform School.—Carroll G. Pearse, Nebraska.
The Proper Education of an American Citizen.—G. N. Grisham, Missouri.
The School of the Future.—A. E. Winship, Massachusetts.
The Larger University Idea.—Elmer E. Brown, California.
Report of the Committee on Necrology for 1898.—Henry Sabin, Iowa, chairman.
Addresses of Welcome and Responses.

1899 President's Address—Work and Influence of the Association.—Eliphalet Oram Lyte, Pennsylvania.
An Educational Policy for Our New Possessions.—W. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
The Educational Problem in Hawaii.—Henry S. Townsend, Hawaii.
The Average Scholarship of the Average Pupil.—Frank Rigler, Oregon.
Fatigue among School Children.—Will S. Monroe, Massachusetts.
Some Fundamentals in Teaching.—L. D. Harvey, Wisconsin.
Quo Vadimus?—Mrs. Helen L. Grenfell, Colorado.
The United States Exhibit at Paris.—Howard J. Rogers, New York.
Art in Education.—Elmer E. Brown, California.
The Religious Element in the Formation of Character.—George Montgomery, Los Angeles, California.
The Development of Moral Character.—G. W. A. Luckey, Nebraska.
Evolution and Ethics.—Sydney T. Skidmore, Pennsylvania.

The Scholar and the State.—R. H. Webster, California.
Growth of Confidence between High Schools and Colleges.—R. B. Fulton, Mississippi.
The Spirit of the Classics.—Mrs. Josephine Heermans, Missouri.
Let Pupils Be so Classified as to Allow Unrestricted Progress or Unlimited Time, according to Ability.—Frank J. Barnard, Washington.
The Outlook in Education.—Nicholas Murray Butler, New York.
The Progress in Public Education.—F. Louis Soldan, Missouri.
Usurpation of Home by School.—Aaron Gove, Colorado.
The Economic Interpretation of History.—E. A. Bryan, Washington.
Educational Journalism—Its Tribulations and Triumphs.—John MacDonald, Kansas.
The Function of the Educational Press.—George P. Brown, Illinois.
Are Educational Journals Educational?—William George Bruce, Wisconsin.
Ideal and Practical Considerations in Educational Journalism.—Ossian H. Lang, New York.
An Apology for the American University.—David Starr Jordon, California.
The School in Its Relation to the Higher Life.—Nathan C. Schaeffer, Pennsylvania.
Professional Sentiment.—A. E. Winship, Massachusetts.
Report of the Committee on Necrology.—Edwin C. Hewett, Illinois, chairman.

1900 President's Address—Educational Problems of the Day.—Oscar T. Corson, Ohio.
The Small College.—William Oxley Thompson, Ohio.
The Small College—Its Prospects.—William Rainey Harper, Illinois.
Contributions of Religious Organizations to the Cause of Education—By the Baptist Church.—Oscar H. Cooper, Texas.
Contributions of Religious Organizations to the Cause of Education—By the Catholic Church.—Conde B. Pallen, Missouri.
The State University.—Joseph Swain, Indiana.
The Problem of the South.—Booker T. Washington, Alabama.
The Problem of the Grades—Discipline.—Gertude Edmund, Massachusetts.
The Problem of the Grades—Classification and Promotion.—Elizabeth Buchanan, Missouri.
The Problem of the Grades—Instruction.—Mrs. Alice Woodworth Cooley, Minnesota.
The Influence of Music upon National Life.—Arnold J. Gantvoort, Ohio.
The Influence of Poetry in Education.—William M. Beardshear, Iowa.
The Value of English Literature in Ethical Training.—Reuben Post Halleck, Kentucky.
Educational Principles Applied to the Teaching of Literature.—Martin G. Brumbaugh, Pennsylvania.
"What Manner of Child Shall This Be?"—G. R. Glenn, Georgia.
Closing Address.—A. P. Montague, South Carolina.

1901 President's Address—The Duty of the National Educational Association in Shaping Public Educational Opinion.—James M. Green, New Jersey.
Progress in Education.—J. Lancaster Spalding, Illinois.
What Is a Fad?—F. Louis Soldan, Missouri.
Is the Curriculum Overcrowded?—James H. Van Sickle, Maryland.
How Early May Handwork Be a Part of School-Work?—Charles R. Richards, New York.
The School and the Library—The Value of Literature in Early Education.—Frederick M. Crunden, Missouri.
Some of Our Mistakes.—G. M. Grant, Canada.
Social Science and the Curriculum.—George E. Vincent, Illinois.
Economics in the Public Schools.—George Gunton, New York.
Ideals and Methods of Economic Teaching.—Frederic W. Speirs, Pennsylvania.
The Teacher as a Social-economic Power.—Reuben Post Halleck, Kentucky.
Our National Floral Emblem.—Edna Dean Proctor, Massachusetts.
The Educational Crisis in England.—Cloudesley S. H. Brereton, England.
The Functions of a University in a Prosperous Democracy.—Charles F. Thwing, Ohio.
Federal and State Interest in Higher Education.—Robert B. Fulton, Mississippi.
Recent Growth of Public High Schools in the U. S., as Affecting the Attendance of Colleges.—W. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
The Relation of Music to Life.—Thomas Whitney Surette, New York.

1902 President's Address—The Three H's in Education.—W. M. BEARDSHEAR, Iowa.
Some Pressing Problems.—NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER, New York.
The English Ideal of Education and Its Debt to America.—MICHAEL ERNEST SADLER, England.
Devotion to Truth: The Chief Virtue of the Teacher.—JOHN IRELAND, Minnesota.
The Education of the American Farmer.—JAMES WILSON, District of Columbia.
The Home and the Higher Education.—Mrs. CARRIE CHAPMAN CATT, New York.
Education in the Philippines.—JACOB GOULD SCHURMAN, New York.
How the School Strengthens the Individuality of the Pupils.—W. T. HARRIS, District of Columbia.
The Simplification of English Spelling a Present Duty.—CHARLES PAYSON GURLEY SCOTT, Pennsylvania.
Educational Value of Training in Public Speaking.—THOMAS C. TRUEBLOOD, Michigan.
Educational Conditions and Progress in China.—C. M. LACEY SITES, China.
The Ideal Normal School.—WILLIAM H. PAYNE, Michigan.
The Danger of Using Biological Analogies in Reasoning on Educational Subjects.—W. T. HARRIS, District of Columbia.
A. Round Table of State and County Superintendents.
Topic I: Instruction in the Elements of Agriculture in Rural Communities.—L. D. HARVEY, Wisconsin.
Topic II: The Financial Phase of the Consolidation of Rural Schools.—CHARLES A. VAN MATER, Indiana.
B. Round Table of City Superintendents.
Topic I: Four Minor Duties of a Superintendent.—I. C. MCNEIL, Wisconsin.
Topic II: Modernizing the Course of Study.—W. A. HOSTER, Indiana.
Topic III: How to Meet the People.—LOUIS P. NASH, Massachusetts.
C. Round Table of Normal Schools and Training Teachers.
Conference A.—Normal Schools.
Topic I: What Aspects of Psychology and Child-Study Are Suitable Subjects for Instruction in Normal Schools.—DANIEL PUTMAN, Michigan.
Topic II: Shall the Instruction in Psychology be Oral, or Shall a Textbook Be Used?—Grant KARR, New York.
Conference—Training Teachers.
Topic: Criticism—What Shall It Be?—JAMES E. RUSSELL, New York.
Progress of Education in Porto Rico.—M. G. BRUMBAUGH.
Altruism as a Law of Education.—ARNOLD TOMPKINS, Illinois.
The High School as the People's College.—G. STANLEY HALL, Massachusetts.
College Graduates in Elementary Schools.—THOMAS M. BALLIET, Massachusetts.
The Psychology and Ethics of Fun.—WALTER B. HILL, Georgia.
Round Table. Reciprocity in Licensing Teachers.—RICHARD C. BARRETT, Iowa.

1903 President's Address—The New Definition of the Cultivated Man.—CHARLES W. ELIOT, Massachusetts.
The Present Peril to Liberal Education.—ANDREW F. WEST, New Jersey.
The Opportunity and Function of the Secondary School.—CALVIN M. WOODWARD, Missouri.
Manual, Trade, and Technical Education.—THOMAS M. BALLIET, Massachusetts.
The Part of the Manual-training High School in American Education.—HENRY S. PRITCHETT, Massachusetts.
School Gardens, City School Yards, and the Surroundings of Rural Schools.—ORVILLE T. BRIGHT, Illinois.
School Gardens—HENRY LINCOLN CLAPP, Massachusetts.
Surroundings of Rural Schools.—CHARLES R. SKINNER, New York.
School Surroundings.—W. W. STETSON, Maine.
The Teaching of Civics and Good Citizenship in the Public Schools.—R. W. G. WELLING, New York.
Justification of City Expenditure on Parks and Parkways—Material for Public Education.—NATHAN MATTHEWS, Massachusetts.
The Nature-Study Movement.—L. H. BAILEY, New York.
The Beginning and Aims of the General Education Board.—WALLACE BUTTRICK, New York.
The Educational Needs of the Southern Negro.—Rev. CHARLES T. WALKER, New York.
The Schools of the People.—EDGAR GARDNER MURPHY, Alabama.

1904 President's Address—The Need of a New Individualism.—JOHN W. COOK, Illinois.
The Relation of the Church to Higher Education in the United States.—EDMUND J. JAMES, Illinois.
Popular Education in England.—Captain PERCY ATKIN, England.
Educational Possibilities for the Country Child in the United States.—O. J. KERN, Illinois.
Educational Needs of the South.—J. H. PHILLIPS, Alabama.
Education in the Philippines.—E. B. BRYAN, Indiana.
Our Educational Creed.—Z. X. SNYDER, Colorado.
The New Departure in Secondary Education.—J. J. SHEPPARD, New York.
Education in the American Navy.—CASPER F. GOODRICH, District of Columbia.
Education in Porto Rico.—SAMUEL MCCUNE LINDSAY, Porto Rico.
The Education of the Southern Negro.—BOOKER T. WASHINGTON, Alabama.
The Place of the Small College.—GEORGE A. GATES, California.
The Preparation of Teachers in Germany.—LEOPOLD BAHLSEN, Germany.
Why Teachers Should Organize.—MARGARET A. HALEY, Illinois.
Limitations of the Superintendent's Authority and of the Teacher's Independence.—AARON GOVE, Colorado.
Addresses at the Vesper Meetings—Art Exhibits in the Exposition.—HALSEY C. IVES, Missouri.
Addresses at the Vesper Meetings—Sculpture and Decoration at the Exposition.—GEORGE JULIAN ZOLNAY, Missouri.
Addresses at the Vesper Meetings—The Architecture of the Exposition.—GEORGE JULIAN ZOLNAY, Missouri.

1905 President's Address—Education for Efficiency.—WILLIAM H. MAXWELL, New York.
The Future of Teachers' Salaries.—W. T. HARRIS, District of Columbia.
The Uses of Educational Museums.—FREDERICK J. V. SKIFF, Illinois.
Standards of Local Administration.—GEORGE B. MCCLELLAN, New York.
The National Educational Purpose.—ANDREW S. DRAPER, New York.
Child Labor and Compulsory Education—The School Aspect.—GEORGE H. MARTIN, Massachusetts.
The Social and Legal Aspect of Compulsory Education and Child Labor.—FRANKLIN H. GIDDINGS, New York.
The Immigrant Child.—JULIA RICHMAN, New York.
Manual Training in the Grades.—LORENZO D. HARVEY, Wisconsin.
The Practical Utility of Manual and Technical Training.—WILLIAM BARCLAY PARSONS, New York.
The Economic Importance of Trade Schools.—FRANK A. VANDERLIP, New York.
Address by President Theodore Roosevelt and Responses.

1906 Report of the Joint Committee, Representing the American Library Association and the National Educational Association, on Instruction in Library Administration in Normal Schools.—Prepared by ELIZABETH G. BALDWIN, New York; JAMES H. CANFIELD, New York, chairman.
I. School Libraries.
II. The Public Library and the Public School.
III. How to Use a Library.
IV. The School Library Room.
V. Selecting and Ordering Books.
VI. Children's Reading.
VII. Incoming Books.
VIII. Cataloguing and Classification.
IX. Call Numbers, Shelf-List, Loan System.
X. Binding.
XI. Library Associations.
Appendix
Useful Books.
Articles in Periodicals.
Summary of State Laws Relating to School Libraries.
Memorial Addresses.
John Eaton by SHELDON JACKSON, District of Columbia.
William Rainey Harper by HARRY PRATT JUDSON, Illinois.
Mary H. Hunt by ALBERT E. WINSHIP, Massachusetts.
Albert Grannis Lane by JOHN W. COOK, Illinois.
Charles Duncan McIver by EDWIN A. ALDERMAN, Virginia.

1906 Thomas Blanchard Stockwell by DAVID W. HOYT, Rhode Island.
Albert Prescott Marble by CLARENCE E. MELENEY, New York.
Fifty Years of American Education.—ELMER ELLSWORTH BROWN, District of Columbia.
How the Superintendent May Correct Defective Classwork and Make the Work of the Recitation Teach the Pupil How to Prepare His Lesson Properly.—W. T. HARRIS, District of Columbia.
Recent International Congress at Liege.—WILL S. MONROE, Massachusetts.
The Teacher and the Librarian.—NATHAN C. SHAEFFER, Pennsylvania.
The Educational Awakening in England.—MICHAEL ERNEST SADDLER, England.
The Teaching of Modern Languages in England.—CLOUDESEY S. H. BRERETON, England.
Secondary Education of Girls During the Past Fifty Years.
I. In England.—DOROTHEA BEALE, England.
II. In France.—CAMILLE SÉE, France.
The Modern System of Higher Education for Women in Prussia.—FRIEDRICH PAULSEN, Berlin.
On the Developments and Changes in Primary Teaching in France during the Third Republic.—PIERRE EMILE LEVASSEUR, France.
What France Owes to America in the Matter of Education.—J. J. GABRIEL COMPAYRÉ, France.
The Rehabilitation of Philosophy in Germany.—HERMANN SCHWARTZ, Germany.
The Past and the Future of German Education.—FRIEDRICH PAULSEN, Berlin.
Agricultural Instruction in the Kingdom of Hungary.—BÉLA DE TORMAY, Hungary.

HISTORICAL CHAPTER

Origin of Free Schools in the American Colonies.—BARNARD'S JOURNAL.
Home and School Training in New England About 1776.—THOMAS BRAINARD, Connecticut.
The American Institute of Instruction.—ALBERT E. WINSHIP.
Western Literary Institute and College of Professional Teachers: 1831–1875.—WILL S. MONROE, Massachusetts.
School Teachers and Superintendents—Opening Address of the President.—HORACE MANN.
Closing Address.—HORACE MANN.
American Association for the Advancement of Education.—WILL S. MONROE, Massachusetts.
The American Association for the Advancement of Science.—L. O. HOWARD, District of Columbia.
American Library Association.—MELVIL DEWEY, New York.
General Education Board.—WALLACE BUTTRICK, New York.
The Southern Education Board.—EDGAR GARDNER MURPHY Alabama.
The Southern Educational Association.—RICHARD J. TIGHE, North Carolina.
The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.—HENRY S. PRITCHETT, New York.
State Teachers' Associations Organized before 1857.—WILL S. MONROE, Massachusetts.
Educational Journalism.—C. W. BARDEEN, New York.
The National Teacher's Association (1857–70)—Historical Sketch.
National Organization of Teachers.—WILLIAM RUSSELL, Massachusetts.
The National Educational Association, Historical Sketches, Extracts From D. B. Hagar's Presidential Address—1870; also From John Hancock's Presidential Address in 1879.
Organization and Functions of the National Educational Association.—W. T. HARRIS, District of Columbia.

LIST OF DEPARTMENTS

WITH PLACE AND YEAR OF ESTABLISHMENT OF EACH

NAME	PLACE	YEAR
Department of School Superintendence	Cleveland	1870
Department of Normal Schools	Cleveland	1870
Department of Higher Education	Cleveland	1870
Department of Elementary Education	Cleveland	1870
Department of Manual Training	Minneapolis	1875
The National Council of Education	Chautauqua	1880
Department of Art Education	Saratoga Springs	1883
Department of Kindergarten Education	Saratoga Springs	1884
Department of Music Education	Saratoga Springs	1884
Department of Secondary Education	Topeka	1886
Department of Business Education	Saratoga Springs	1892
Department of Child-Study	Asbury Park	1894
Department of Physical Education	Denver	1895
Department of Natural Science Instruction	Denver	1895
Department of School Administration	Denver	1895
The Library Department	Buffalo	1896
Department of Special Education	Milwaukee	1897
Department of Indian Education	Los Angeles	1899
Department of Technical Education	Asbury Park	1905

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENTS

DEPARTMENT OF SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENCE

During the session of the National Teachers' Association at Harrisburg, Pa., in 1865, a meeting of state and city superintendents there present was held, of which B. G. Northrop, agent of the Massachusetts Board of Education, was chairman, and L. Van Bokkelen, state superintendent of public schools of Maryland, was secretary. At this convention it was decided to hold a meeting in February, 1866, at Washington, for the purpose of forming a National Association of School Superintendents, to be composed of those devoted to the supervision of schools in the several states and cities of the country, and for the discussion of topics appropriate to such meeting.

A meeting was accordingly held on the 6th, 7th, and 8th of February, 1866, at which nine states and twenty cities were represented. The mayor of the city of Washington gave the Association a cordial welcome, and the President of the United States, on receiving their call, expressed great interest in the objects of their organization and in the extension of school instruction to every child in the country.

Papers were read as follows:

School Statistics, by Charles R. Coburn, superintendent of common schools of Pennsylvania

The Practicability of Greater Uniformity in the School System of Different States, by L. Van Bokkelen, state superintendent of Maryland

Defects of Our State System of Schools, by C. M. Harrison, state superintendent of New Jersey

Leading Features of a Model State School System, by Newton Bateman, state superintendent of Illinois

A National Bureau of Education, by E. E. White, state commissioner of Ohio

These subjects were thoroughly discussed and resolutions pertinent to the same were adopted, and several committees were appointed to report more in detail at the next meeting.

A committee consisting of Messrs. Emerson E. White, of Ohio, Newton Bateman, of Illinois, and J. K. Adams, of Vermont, was appointed to memorialize Congress on the establishment of a National Bureau of Education.

The importance of a National Bureau of Education had been presented to the National Teachers' Association on several occasions, first in 1859, and at the Harrisburg meeting it elicited very general interest, the establishment of such a bureau being advocated by President Greene in his inaugural address; by J. P. Wickersham, of Pennsylvania, in a paper on "Education and Reconstruction;" and by Andrew J. Rickoff, of Ohio, in a paper wholly devoted to the subject. Resolutions strongly favoring the movement were passed.

The memorial of the Association of School Superintendents praying for the establishment of a National Bureau of Education, drawn up in behalf of the committee by E. E. White of Ohio, was presented in the House of Representatives by Gen. James A. Garfield of Ohio, who at the same time introduced a bill to establish the Bureau in the Department of the Interior. The bill was read twice, referred to a select committee of seven and, with the accompanying memorial, ordered to be printed. The committee, consisting of Representatives Garfield of Ohio, Patterson of New Hampshire, Boutwell of Massachusetts, Donnelly of Minnesota, Moulton of Illinois, Goodyear of New York, and Randall of Pennsylvania, reported, instead of the bill referred to them creating a Bureau of Educational statistics under the Secretary of the Interior, a bill creating a Department of Education, the head of which, appointed by the President, should report directly to him.

The full text of the speech of General Garfield on the bill, and a copy of the act as passed March 1, 1867, may be found on pp. 426–35, volume of *Proceedings* for 1901, Detroit meeting.

The following officers were elected for 1866–67: Birdsey Grant Northrop, of Massachusetts, president; Charles R. Coburn, of Pennsylvania, vice-president; G. H. Hoss, of Indiana, corresponding secretary; L. Van Bokkelen, of Maryland, recording secretary; Duane Doty, of Michigan, treasurer.

Two valuable papers on the history of the Department of Superintendence were read before the department at the meeting in Chicago February 26, 27, 28, 1901, as follows:

"Sketch of the Department of Superintendence," Emerson E. White, Columbus, Ohio.

"The Past and Future Work of the Department of Superintendence," J. M. Greenwood, superintendent of schools, Kansas City, Missouri.

These sketches may be found on pp. 233–38, and pp. 227–32, respectively, in the volume of *Proceedings* for 1901, Detroit meeting.

OFFICERS

1866 INDIANAPOLIS, IND., AUGUST
Pres., BIRDSEY G. NORTHROP, Boston, Mass.
V.-Pres., CHARLES R. COBURN, Harrisburg, Pa.
Sec., L. VAN BOKKELEN, Baltimore, Md.

1867 No Meeting

1868 NASHVILLE, TENN.
Pres., EMERSON E. WHITE, Columbus, O.
V.-Pres., DANIEL STEVENSON, Frankfort, Ky.
Sec., L. VAN BOKKELEN, Baltimore, Md.

1869 TRENTON, N. J.
Pres., J. W. BULKLEY, Brooklyn, N. Y.
V.-Pres., E. E. WHITE, Columbus, O.
Sec., L. VAN BOKKELEN, Baltimore, Md.

1870 WASHINGTON, D. C., MARCH
Pres., J. P. WICKERSHAM, Harrisburg, Pa.
V.-Pres., S. S. ASHLEY, Raleigh, N. C.
Sec., W. R. CREERY, Baltimore Md.

DEPARTMENT OF SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENCE

1871 ST. LOUIS, MO.
Pres., W. D. HENKLE, Columbus, O.
V.-Pres., W. M. COLBY, Little Rock, Ark.
Sec., WARREN JOHNSON, Augusta, Me.

1872 BOSTON, MASS.
Pres., JOHN HANCOCK, Cincinnati, O.
Sec., A. P. MARBLE, Worcester, Mass.

1873 ELMIRA, N. Y.
Pres., W. T. HARRIS, St. Louis, Mo.
V.-Pres., J. W. PAIGE, Frederick, Md.
Sec., A. P. MARBLE, Worcester, Mass.

1874 WASHINGTON, D. C., JAN.; DETROIT, MICH., AUG.
Pres., J. H. BINFORD, Richmond, Va.
Sec., ALLEN ARMSTRONG, Council Bluffs, Ia.

1875 WASHINGTON, D. C., JAN. (?); MINNEAPOLIS, MINN., AUG.
Pres., J. ORMOND WILSON
V.-Pres., A. ABERNETHY, Iowa
Sec., R. W. STEVENSON, O.

1876 No Meeting

1877 WASHINGTON, D. C., DEC.; LOUISVILLE, KY., JULY
Pres., CHARLES S. SMART, Columbus, O.
V.-Pres., A. PICKETT, Memphis, Tenn.
Sec., H. S. TARBELL, East Saginaw, Mich.

1878 No Meeting

1879 WASHINGTON, D. C., FEB.; PHILADELPHIA, PA., JULY
Pres., J. P. WICKERSHAM, Harrisburg, Pa.
V.-Pres., JAMES H. SMART, Lafayette, Ind.
Sec., R. W. STEVENSON, Columbus, O.

1880 WASHINGTON, D. C., FEB.; CHAUTAUQUA, N. Y., JULY
Pres., M. A. NEWELL, Baltimore, Md.
V.-Pres., N. A. CALKINS, New York, N. Y.
Sec., S. A. BAER, Berks Co., Pa.

1881 NEW YORK FEB.; ATLANTA, GA., JULY
Pres., A. P. MARBLE, Worcester, Mass.
V.-Pres., N. A. CALKINS, New York, N. Y.
Sec., SAMUEL FINDLEY, Akron, O.

1882 WASHINGTON D. C., MARCH; SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y., JULY
Pres., W. H. RUFFNER, Richmond, Va.
V.-Pres., N. A. CALKINS, New York, N. Y.
Sec., H. S. JONES, Erie, Pa.

1883 WASHINGTON D. C., FEB.; SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y., JULY
Pres., N. A. CALKINS, New York, N. Y.
V.-Pres., H. S. TARBELL, Indianapolis, Ind.
Sec., HENRY S. JONES, Erie, Pa.

1884 WASHINGTON, D. C., FEB.; MADISON, WIS., JULY
Pres., B. L. BUTCHER, Wheeling, W. Va.
V.-Pres., D. F. DEWOLF, Columbus, O.
Sec., H. R. SANFORD, Middleton, N. Y.

1885 NEW ORLEANS, LA., JAN.; SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y., July
Pres., LEROY D. BROWN, Columbus, O.
Sec., W. O. ROGERS, New Orleans, La.

1886 WASHINGTON, D. C., FEB.; TOPEKA, KANS., JULY
Pres., WARREN EASTON, Baton Rouge, La.
V.-Pres., A. P. STONE, Springfield, Mass.
Sec., C. C. DAVIDSON, Alliance, O.

1887 WASHINGTON, D. C., MARCH; CHICAGO, ILL., JULY
Pres., CHARLES S. YOUNG, Carson City, Nev.
V.-Pres., N. C. DOUGHERTY, Peoria, Ill.
Sec., C. C. DAVIDSON, Alliance, O.

1888 WASHINGTON, D. C., FEB.; SAN FRANCISCO, CAL., JULY
Pres., N. C. DOUGHERTY, Peoria, Ill.
V.-Pres., HENRY A. WISE, Baltimore, Md.
Sec., W. R. THIGPEN, Savannah, Ga.

1889 WASHINGTON, D. C., FEB.; NASHVILLE, TENN., JULY
Pres., F. M. CAMPBELL, Oakland, Cal.
V.-Pres., C. C. DAVIDSON, Alliance, O.
Sec., W. R. THIGPEN, Savannah, Ga.

1890 NEW YORK, N. Y., FEB.
Pres., A. S. DRAPER, Albany, N. Y.
V.-Pres., J. A. B. LOVETT, Huntsville, Ala.
Sec., L. W. DAY, Cleveland, O.

1891 PHILADELPHIA, PA., FEB.
Pres., A. S. DRAPER, Albany, N. Y.
V.-Pres., J. A. B. LOVETT, Huntsville, Ala.
Sec., L. W. DAY, Cleveland, O.

1892 BROOKLYN, N. Y., FEB.
Pres., HENRY SABIN, Des Moines, Ia.
V.-Pres., V. G. CURTIS, New Haven, Conn.
Sec., L. W. DAY, Cleveland, O.

1893 BOSTON, MASS., FEB.
Pres., EDWARD BROOKS, Philadelphia, Pa.
V.-Pres., J. E. BRADLEY, Minneapolis, Minn.
Sec., J. H. PHILLIPS, Birmingham, Ala.

1894 RICHMOND, VA., FEB.;
Pres., D. L. KIEHLE, Minneapolis, Minn.
V.-Pres., WARREN EASTON, New Orleans, La.
Sec., F. TREUDLEY, Youngstown, O.

1895 CLEVELAND, O., FEB.
Pres., W. H. MAXWELL, Brooklyn, N. Y.
V.-Pres., O. T. CORSON, Columbus, O.
Sec., JAMES M. CARLISLE, Austin, Tex.

1896 JACKSONVILLE, FLA., FEB.
Pres., L. H. JONES, Cleveland, O.
V.-Pres., J. H. PHILLIPS, Birmingham, Ala.
Sec., R. E. DENFELD, Duluth, Minn.

1897 INDIANAPOLIS, IND., FEB.
Pres., C. B. GILBERT, St. Paul, Minn.
V.-Pres., A. B. BLODGETT, Syracuse, N. Y.
Sec., LAWTON B. EVANS, Augusta, Ga.

1898 CHATTANOOGA, TENN., FEB.
Pres., N. C. SCHAEFFER, Harrisburg, Pa.
V.-Pres., F. B. COOPER, Des Moines, Ia.
Sec., W. L. STEELE, Galesburg, Ill.

1899 COLUMBUS, O., FEB.
Pres., E. H. MARK, Louisville, Ky.
V.-Pres., G. H. CONLEY, Boston, Mass.
Sec., J. H. VAN SICKLE, Denver, Colo.

1900 CHICAGO, ILL., FEB.
Pres., A. S. DOWNING, New York, N. Y.
V.-Pres., G. R. GLENN, Atlanta, Ga.
Sec., C. M. JORDAN, Minneapolis, Minn.

1901 CHICAGO, ILL., FEB.
Pres., L. D. HARVEY, Madison, Wis.
V.-Pres., A. K. WHITCOMB, Lowell, Mass.
Sec., F. B. COOPER, Salt Lake City, Utah.

1902 CHICAGO, ILL., FEB.
Pres., G. R. GLENN, Atlanta, Ga.
V.-Pres., H. P. EMERSON, Buffalo, N. Y.
Sec., J. W. DIETRICH, Colo. Springs, Colo.

1903 CINCINNATI, O., FEB.
Pres., C. M. JORDAN, Minneapolis, Minn.
V.-Pres., C. F. CARROLL, Worcester, Mass.
Sec., J. N. WILKINSON, Emporia, Kans.

1904 ATLANTA, GA., FEB.
Pres., HENRY P. EMERSON, Buffalo, N. Y.
V.-Pres., EDWIN B. COX, Xenia, O.
Sec., JOHN H. HINEMON, Little Rock, Ark.

1905 MILWAUKEE, WIS., FEB.
Pres., E. G. COOLEY, Chicago, Ill.
V.-Pres., LAWTON B. EVANS, Augusta, Ga.
Sec., Miss E. E. WHITNEY, New York, N. Y.

1906 LOUISVILLE, KY., FEB.
Pres., J. W. CARR, Dayton, O.
V.-Pres., J. H. PHILLIPS, Birmingham, Ala.
Sec., Miss ELLA C. SULLIVAN, Chicago, Ill.

1907 CHICAGO, ILL., FEB.
Pres., W. W. STETSON, Augusta, Me.
V.-Pres., H. H. SEELEY, Cedar Falls, Ia.
Sec., J. H. HARRIS, Minneapolis, Minn.

TOPICS

1866 Cost per Capita of Education in Different States.—J. W. BULKLEY, New York.
Committee's Report on a National Bureau of Education.—E. E. WHITE, chairman, Ohio.
Education in the Argentine Republic.—Senor SARMIENTO, Minister from Argentine Republic to the United States.

1868 President's Opening Address.—E. E. WHITE, Ohio.
School Funds; How Best Raised and How Best Disbursed.[1]—JOHN EATON, Tennessee. (Not published.)
School Supervision; State, County, and City; Discussion.

1869 The Origin and Work of the Department of Education.[1]—J. W. BULKLEY, New York.
A National System of Free Schools.[1]—Rev. CHAS. BROOKS, Massachusetts.
Primary School Instruction.—E. LEIGH, New York.
Primary Education.[1]—GEO. B. SEARS, New Jersey.
The Rate Bill.[1]—B. G. NORTHROP, Connecticut.
The True Ideal of the American Public School.[1]—H. F. HARRINGTON, Massachusetts.
Examining and Licensing Teachers[1]—Discussion.
School Statistics.[1]—GEO. B. SEARS, New Jersey.

1870 School Supervision.—W. JOHNSON, Maine.
School Statistics.—W. D. HENKLE, Ohio.
National Aid to Schools in the South.—S. S. ASHLEY, North Carolina.
Consolidation of Department of Education and Educational Division of Freedmen's Bureau.—O. O. HOWARD, District of Columbia.
The Department of Education.—HENRY BARNARD, District of Columbia.
Memorial to Congress on National Aid to Schools in the South.

1871 The Normal-School Problem.—J. D. PHILBRICK, Massachusetts.
Compulsory Education.—JOHN HANCOCK, Ohio, and others.
School Statistics.—W. R. CREERY, Maryland.

1872 The Extent, Methods, and Value of Supervision in a System of Schools.—H. F. FARRINGTON, Massachusetts.
The Early Withdrawal of Pupils from School; Causes and Remedies.—W. T. HARRIS, Missouri.
Necessity for Public Instruction in the Gulf States.—JAMES HODSON, Alabama.
Report on Basis of Percentage of School Attendance.—W. T. HARRIS, Missouri, chairman.

1873 School-House Plans.—A. J. RICKOFF, Ohio.
The Relation between School Boards and Superintendents.—JOHN H. BINFORD, Virginia.
Western University Education.—W. G. ELIOT, Missouri.
Leigh's Method of Teaching Reading.—W. M. BRYANT, Iowa.

1874 JANUARY MEETING:[2]
Report on Statistical Forms.—GEO. J. LUCKEY, Pennsylvania.
Scientific and Industrial Education.—A. D. WHITE, New York.
The Centennial—Discussion.
Systems of Public Instruction in European and American Cities Compared.—J. D. PHILBRICK, Massachusetts.
AUGUST MEETING:
Report of Committee on Statistical Forms.—T. W. HARVEY, Ohio.
Report of the Committee on Relation of the General Government to Education.

1875 DECEMBER MEETING:[3]
Legal Prevention of Illiteracy.—B. G. NORTHROP, Connecticut.
Brain Culture in Relation to the Schoolroom.—A. N. BELL, New York.
The Origin of the Alphabet.—Prof. ENTHOFFER, U. S. Coast Survey.
American Education at the Centennial Exposition.—J. P. WICKERSHAM, Pennsylvania.
Can the Elements of Industrial Education Be Introduced into Our Common Schools?—J. D. PHILBRICK, Massachusetts.

1876 No Meeting.

1877 DECEMBER MEETING:
The School Organization of a State—Discussion.
National Aid to Education.—JOHN EATON, District of Columbia.
American Education.—GEORGE B. LORING, Massachusetts.
Brains versus Brick and Mortar.—JAMES A. GARFIELD, Ohio.

[1] Not published.

[2] Papers of the January meeting, 1874, published only in *Bureau of Education Circular No. 1* (1874).

[3] Papers of the December meeting, 1875, published only in *Bureau of Education Circular No. 1* (1875).

Defense of High Schools.—J. W. DICKINSON, Massachusetts.
Reports of Committee: (*a*) National Museum; (*b*) United States Bureau of Education; (*c*) National Aid to Education; (*d*) Public Lands to the District of Columbia.—M. A. NEWELL, chairman.
The High-School Question.—C. S. SMART, Indiana.

1878 No Meeting.

1879 FEBRUARY MEETING:
Popular Education in Switzerland.—JOHN HITZ, Consul General to Switzerland.
Popular Education in France.—E. C. WINES, New York.
Technical Education.—E. A. APGAR, New Jersey.
The Free Kindergarten and Kindergarten Training.—Mrs. LOUISE POLLOCK, District of Columbia.
Needs of Education in the South.—G. J. ORR, Georgia.
Education and the Tenth Census.—W. T. HARRIS, Missouri.
The Needs of the United States Bureau of Education.—JOHN EATON, District of Columbia.
Instruction in Governmental Ideas.—Justice STRONG, U. S. Supreme Court.
Technical Education and Industrial Drawing.—WALTER SMITH, Massachusetts.
Education at the Paris Exposition.—J. D. PHILBRICK, Massachusetts.

1880 FEBRUARY MEETING:
Bell's System of Visible Speech.—L. A. BUTTERFIELD, Massachusetts.
Report on a National Council of Education—Discussion.—THOMAS W. BICKNELL, Massachusetts.
Education of Dependent Children.—C. D. RANDALL, Michigan.
Best System of Schools for a State.—J. H. SMART, Indiana.
University Education.—D. C. GILMAN, Maryland.
Juvet's Time Globe.—RUSSELL A. OLIN.
Technical Education in Its Relations to Elementary Schools.—J. D. PHILBRICK.
Value of Kindergarten Training to Primary Teachers.—Mrs. LOUISE POLLOCK.
The Tenth Census from an Educational Point of View.—W. T. HARRIS, Missouri.
Industrial School in the District of Columbia.—J. M. WILSON, District of Columbia.
Peabody Fund and Education of the South.—BARNAS SEARS.
High-School Question—Discussion.
Congress and the Education of the People.—W. H. RUFFER, Virginia.
Laws Relating to the State Public School for Dependent Children at Coldwater, Michigan.
Outline of School Systems of the Various States.—Bureau of Education.
The Justification of the Public Schools.—A. P. MARBLE, Massachusetts.

1881 FEBRUARY MEETING:
The Present Aspect of Education.[1]—W. T. HARRIS, Missouri.
Uniformity of School Statistics.—ANDREW MCMILLAN, New York.
Weak Places in Our Systems of Public Instruction.—J. P. WICKERSHAM, Pennsylvania.
The Conservation of Pedagogic Energy.—C. O. THOMPSON, Massachusetts.
Our Schools and Our Forests.—F. B. HOUGH, New York.
Museums Illustrative of Education.—JOHN EATON, District of Columbia.
National Aid to Education.—J. W. PATTERSON, New Hampshire.

1882 MARCH MEETING:
How to determine the Merits of the Heating and Ventilating of School Buildings.—JOHN S. BILLINGS, U. S. Army.
The Chemical Examination of Air Applied to Questions of Ventilation.—CHAS. SMART, U. S. Army.
Obstacles in the Way of Primary Education.—H. S. JONES, Pennsylvania.
Chairs of Pedagogy in Our Higher Institutions of Learning.—G. STANLEY HALL, Massachusetts.
National Aid to Education.—Dr. A. D. MAYO, Massachusetts; Messrs. DEXTER A. HAWKINS, New Jersey; J. L. M. CURRY, Virginia.
Education in Alaska.—Rev. SHELDON JACKSON, New York.
A Word with Teachers from My Standpoint.—W. W. GODDING, M. D., District of Columbia.
Fundamental Inquiries concerning Common-School Studies.—Rev. JOHN M. GREGORY, Illinois.
How to Improve the Qualifications of Teachers.—W. T. HARRIS, Massachusetts.

[1] Not published.

1883 FEBRUARY MEETING:
Natural History in the Public Schools.—ALBERT S. BICKMORE, New York.
Industrial Education in Boston.—JAMES A. PAGE, Massachusetts.
Industrial Education in Philadelphia.—CHARLES G. LELAND, Pennsylvania.
The Educational Lessons of the Census.—W. T. HARRIS, Massachusetts.
If Universal Suffrage, then Universal Education.—Rev. ATTICUS G. HAYGOOD, Georgia.
Constitutionality of National Aid to Education.—WILLIAM LAWRENCE, District of Columbia.
Indian Education.—B. G. NORTHROP, Connecticut, Gen. S. C. ARMSTRONG, Virginia, and Miss A. C. FLETCHER, Indian Territory.
How, and by Whom, the Fitness of Pupils for Promotion Is Determined.—C. G. EDWARDS, Maryland.
Practical Results of Compulsory Education.—JOSEPH WHITE, Massachusetts.
Chief Obstacles to Successful Results in the Schools.—M. A. NEWELL, Maryland.

1884 FEBRUARY MEETING:[1]
Supervision of Country Schools.—JOHN W. HOLCOMBE, Indiana.
Indian Education.—JOHN M. HAYWORTH, District of Columbia.
Remarks on Indian Education.—R. H. PRATT; CARLISLE, Pennsylvania; S. C. ARMSTRONG, Virginia.
Arbor Day in the Public Schools.—J. B. PEASLEE, Ohio.
Recess.—W. T. HARRIS, Missouri.
No Recess.—S. A. ELLIS, Pennsylvania.
How a State Superintendent Can Best Advance Popular Education.—E. E. HIGBEE, Pennsylvania.
National Aid for the Support of Public Schools.—J. W. DICKINSON, Massachusetts.
The Educational Status and Needs of the New South.—ROBERT BINGHAM, North Carolina.
Proposed Legislation Respecting National Aid to Education.—THOMAS W. BICKNELL, Massachusetts.
The New Bill for National Aid to Public Schools.—B. G. NORTHROP, Connecticut.
Industrial Education.—JOHN M. ORDWAY, Louisiana.
Public Education in Industrial Pursuits.—A. P. MARBLE, Massachusetts.
The New Order of Mercy; or Crime and Its Prevention.—GEORGE T. ANGELL, Massachusetts.
The Education of the Normal Color Sense.—B. JOY JEFFRIES, Massachusetts.
Supplementary Reading.—GEO. T. LUCKEY, Pennsylvania; CHAS. G. EDWARDS, Maryland.

1884 JULY MEETING:
City and Town Supervision of Schools.—R. W. STEVENSON, Ohio.

1885 FEBRUARY MEETING:[2]
School Economy.—A. J. RICKOFF, New York.
The Inner Workings of the University of Virginia.—JAMES M. GARNETT, Virginia.
A True Course of Study for Elementary Schools.—E. E. WHITE, Ohio.
Rise and Progress of Public Instruction in Texas.—W. C. ROTE.
Co-ordination in Instruction and in Education.—Brother NOAH, of Brothers of the Christian School, Louisiana.
Moral Education in the Common Schools.—W. T. HARRIS.
The Relation of the University to the Common Schools.—WILLIAM P. JOHNSTON, Louisiana.

1885 JULY MEETING:
The County Superintendency.—JOHN W. HOLCOMBE, Indiana.
High Schools and the State.—J. A. SEAMAN, Louisiana.
English in American Schools.—E. S. COX, Ohio.

1886 MARCH MEETING:[3]
School Superintendence a Profession.—M. A. NEWELL, Maryland.
The Duties of the County Superintendents.—D. L. KIEHLE, Minnesota.
Reading-Circles for Teachers.—JEROME ALLEN, New York.
Co-education of the Races.—CHAS. S. YOUNG, Nevada.
Preliminary Report on Educational Statistics.—LEROY BROWN, Ohio.

[1] The papers of the February meeting, 1884, published only in *Bureau of Education Circular No. 4* (1884).

[2] The papers for the February meeting, 1885, published in the *Bureau of Education Circular No. 1* (1885).

[3] The papers for the March meeting, 1886, published in the *Bureau of Education Circular No. 2* (1886).

National Aid to Education.—J. A. B. Lovett, Alabama.
The Educational and Religious Interests of the Colored People of the South.—S. M. Finger, North Carolina.
Forestry in Education.—Warren Higly, Ohio.
Language Work.—N. C. Dougherty, Illinois.
Growth and Benefits of Reading Circles.—Hubert M. Skinner, Indiana.
City Superintendence.—J. W. Akers, Iowa.

1886 July Meeting:
County Superintendents: Their Relations and Duties to Teachers.—E. B. McElroy, Oregon.
Teachers' Institutes.—D. C. Tillotson, Kansas.

1887 March Meeting:[1]
Opening Address.—The Work of the Bureau of Education.—N. H. R. Dawson, U. S. Commissioner of Education.
Public Education on the Pacific Coast and State Textbooks.—Fred M. Campbell, Colorado.
The Examination and Certification of Teachers.—A. J. Rickoff, New York.
A Civil Service and Public Schools.—LeRoy Brown, Ohio.
Powers and Duties of School Officers and Teachers—Absolute and Relative.—A. P. Marble, Massachusetts; J. M. Green, New Jersey.
County and City Supervision.—E. E. Higbee, Pennsylvania.
Industrial Education in the Public Schools.—F. W. Parker, Illinois; W. B. Powell, District of Columbia.
The Province of the Public Schools.—J. W. Dickinson, Massachusetts.
What a Small City is Doing in Industrial Education.—H. W. Compton, Ohio.
A System of Grading for Country Schools.—J. W. Holcombe, Indiana.
The Best System of State Supervision.—Warren Easton, Louisiana.
The Relation of Our Public Schools to Our General Government.—H. W. Blair, United States Senate.
Education in Alaska.—Sheldon Jackson, District of Columbia.

1887 July Meeting:
School Supervision Compared.—John Hancock, Ohio.
The Superintendent and Good Literature in School.—O. H. Cooper, Texas.

1888 February Meeting:[2]
Manual Training in the Public Schools.—Charles H. Ham, Illinois.
County Institutes.—Jesse B. Thayer, Wisconsin.
Elocution: Its Place in Education.—Martha Fleming, Tennessee.
Qualifications of Teachers: How Shall the Qualifications Be Determined?—A. S. Draper, New York.
Normal Schools.—J. P. Wickersham, Pennsylvania.
Moral Education in the Common Schools.—W. T. Harris, Massachusetts.
Can School Programs Be Shortened and Enriched?—Chas. W. Eliot, Massachusetts.
Alaska.—N. H. R. Dawson, U. S. Commissioner of Education.
Superintendents and Teachers.—J. E. Bradley, Minnesota.
The Relation of the Superintendent and Teacher to the School.—A. E. Winship, Massachusetts.
National Aid to Education.—J. A. B. Lovett, Alabama.
The Blair Bill.—A. P. Marble, Massachusetts.
Federal Aid.—Alex. Hogg, Texas.

1888 July Meeting:
Efficient Supervision.—J. M. Greenwood, Missouri.
The Ethics of School Management.—C. B. Gilbert, Minnesota.

1889 March Meeting:[3]
Psychology in Its Relation to Pedagogy.—Nicholas Murray Butler, New York.
City Training- and Practice-Schools.—W. S. Jackman, Pennsylvania.
Training-Schools.—W. B. Powell, District of Columbia.
The Purpose and Means of City Training-Schools.—S. S. Parr, Minnesota.
County Institutes.—Albert G. Lane, Illinois.
State Teachers' Institutes.—John W. Dickinson, Massachusetts.

[1] Papers for the meeting in March, 1887, published only in *Bureau of Education Circular No. 3* (1887).

[2] Papers of the February meeting, 1888, published only in the *Bureau of Education Circular No. 6* (1888).

[3] Papers of the meeting in March, 1899, published only in the *Bureau of Education Circular No. 2* (1889).

Relation of Manual Training to Body and Mind.—C. M. Woodward, Missouri.
The Psychology of Manual Training.—W. T. Harris, Massachusetts.
Manual Training in Ungraded Schools.—Jerome Allen, New York.
Educational Value of Manual Training.—Geo. P. Brown, Illinois.
Mechanic Arts High Schools.—Edwin P. Seaver, Massachusetts.
How Shall Manual Training Be Introduced into the Graded Schools?—John D. Ford, U. S. N., Maryland.
How and to What Extent May Manual Training Be Introduced into City Schools?—H. M. Compton, Ohio.
The Work of the City Superintendent.—T. M. Balliet, Massachusetts.
The School Principal.—Geo. Howland, Illinois.
Qualifications of Principals.—J. M. Greenwood, Missouri.
Teachers' Examinations.—M. A. Newell, Maryland.
Examination for Promotion in the Public Schools.—Wm. DeWitt Hyde, Maine; Wm. M. Griffin, New Jersey.
The State and the Higher Education.—Fred. M. Campbell, California; Herbert B. Adams, Maryland.
Education in the South.—W. R. Garrett, Tennessee.
National Aid to Education.—W. H. Blair, U. S. S., New Hampshire.

1890 School Statistics as the Basis of Legislative Action.—Harvey M. LaFollette, Indiana.
The American Educational Exhibit at the International Exposition of 1892.—John Eaton and others.
State Supervision: What Plan of Organization and Administration is Most Effective?—J. W. Patterson, New Hampshire.
City-School Systems.—W. H. Maxwell, New York.
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The General Government and Public Education.—W. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
The Education of the Negro in the South.—J. A. B. Lovett, Alabama.
The Gap between the Elementary Schools and the Colleges.—Chas. W. Eliot, Massachusetts.

1891 Recent Legislation upon Compulsory Education in Illinois and Wisconsin.—N. C. Dougherty, Illinois.
Compulsory Education in Massachusetts.—Geo. H. Martin, Massachusetts.
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The National Educational Association; Its Organization and Functions.—W. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
Art Education in the Public Schools.—James Macalister, Pennsylvania.
The Highest Office of Drawing.—Frank Aborn, Ohio.
Education of the Indian Youth Generally.—R. H. Carlisle, Pennsylvania.
Education of the Negro.—General Anderson, Virginia.
The Public School and Civil Service Reform.—Geo. W. Curtis, New York.
Universities and Schools.—O. H. Cooper, Texas.
Preparation of Teachers for Their Work.—Henry Sabin, Iowa.

1892 The Rural School Problem—Henry Raab, Illinois.
The Educational Exhibit of the World's Columbian Exposition.—Selim H. Peabody, Illinois.
The World's Educational Congress.—W. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
In Memoriam—Dr. James P. Wickersham.—Edward Brooks, Pennsylvania.
In Memoriam—Thomas W. Harvey.—L. W. Day, Ohio.
In Memoriam—John Hancock.—W. E. Sheldon, Massachusetts.
History and Literature in Grammar Grades.—J. H. Phillips, Alabama.
Shortening and Enriching the Grammar-School Course.—Chas. W. Eliot, Massachusetts.
What Shall the State Do toward the Education of Children below the School Age, between the Ages of Three and Six?—Frank A. Fitzpatrick, Nebraska.
What Can Be Done to Bring Pupils farther on in Their Studies before They Leave School to Go to Work?—Charles W. Hill, Massachusetts.

*1893 Wood-Work in Grammar Grades.—V. G. Curtis, Connecticut.
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Organization for School Purposes in Large Cities.—A. S. Draper, Ohio.
Supervision of City Schools.—W. H. Maxwell, New York.

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The Cambridge Experiment.—FRANCIS COGSWELL, Massachusetts.
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(*b*) The American Educational Exhibits—ELIPHALET ORAM LYTE, Pennsylvania.
(*c*) The United States Exhibit of Elementary Education.—BEN BLEWETT, Missouri.
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   Topic—Interrelation of Functions in a City School System.
   1. Influence of the Supervisor.—ADA VAN STONE HARRIS, New York.
   2. The Influence of the City Normal School or Training School.—ELLA FLAGG YOUNG, Illinois.

B. Round Table of Superintendents of Smaller Cities.
   Topic—The Local Training-School as an Agency for the Preparation of Teachers.—WILBUR F. GORDY, Illinois.
   1. The Best Means and Methods of Improving Teachers Already in the Service.—WILLIAM MCKENDREE VANCE, Ohio.

C. Round Table of State and County Superintendents.
   1. Teachers' Salaries and How Affected by the Operation of the Minimum-Salary Law.—FASSETT A. COTTON, Indiana.
   2. Rural School Architecture.—J. W. OLSEN, Minnesota.

D. Round Table Conference on Simplified Spelling.
   1. Simpler Spelling: What Can be Most Wisely Done to Hasten It?—E. BENJAMIN ANDREWS, Nebraska.
   2. What Can Most Wisely Be Done to Hasten Simpler Spelling?—J. GEDDES, JR., Massachusetts.

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The New Phonetic Alphabet.—GEORGE HEMPL, Michigan.

What Form of Industrial Training is Most Practical and Best Suited to the Country Child?—O. J. KERN, Illinois.

Forms of Industrial Education Best Adapted to City Children.—CHARLES H. KEYES, Connecticut.

Art as Related to Manual Training.—JAMES EDWIN ADDICOTT, Louisiana.

THE AMERICAN NORMAL SCHOOL ASSOCIATION

THE DEPARTMENT OF NORMAL SCHOOLS

The first meeting of the representatives of normal schools in the country was held in the city of New York, in 1855, at the time of the meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Education. The meeting was informal in its character, and was devoted to a free interchange of views on subjects connected with the practical working of normal schools.

Another informal meeting was held at Springfield, Mass., in 1856, and a committee was appointed to submit a constitution and plans for a permanent organization.

The third meeting was held at Albany, N. Y., in 1857, but as few were present no steps were taken to form a permanent organization.

In 1858, a meeting was held in Norwich, Conn., and a constitution was adopted.

The first annual convention at Trenton, N. J., in 1859, was largely attended, and the exercises were of the most practical character, but the proceedings were not published.

1859 TRENTON N. J. August 17–19.

OFFICERS

President—WILLIAM F. PHELPS, Trenton, N. J.
Secretary—BIRDSEY G. NORTHROP, Boston, Mass.

Topics[1]

In 1866 this Association met at Indianapolis, Ind., with the National Teachers' Association. The proceedings and papers were published in connection with those of the National Teachers' Association. There was no meeting of either association in 1867. Joint meetings were held in 1868 at Nashville, Tenn., at Trenton, N. J., in 1869, and at Cleveland, Ohio, in 1870 when, on the reorganization of the National Educational Association, the American Normal School Association became the Department of Normal Schools of the N. E. A.

OFFICERS

1866 INDIANAPOLIS, IND.
Pres., Richard Edwards, St. Louis, Mo.
Sec., L. B. Kellogg, Emporia, Kans.

1867 No Meeting

1868 NASHVILLE, TENN.
Pres., D. B. Hagar, Salem, Mass.
V.-Pres., E. A. Sheldon Oswego, N. Y.
Sec., W. E. Crosby, Cincinnati, O.

1869 TRENTON, N. J.
Pres., M. A. Newell, Baltimore, Md.
V.-Pres., John Ogden, Nashville, Tenn.
Sec., A. S. Barbour, Washington, D. C.

1870 CLEVELAND, O.
Pres., John Ogden, Gambier, O.
V.-Pres., John M. Olcott, Terre Haute, Ind.
Sec., A. L. Barbour, Washington, D. C.

DEPARTMENT OF NORMAL SCHOOLS

1871 ST. LOUIS, MO.
Pres., S. H. White, Peoria, Ill.
V.-Pres., C. C. Rounds, Farmington. Me.
Sec., A. L. Barbour, Washington, D. C.

1872 BOSTON, MASS.
Pres., C. C. Rounds, Farmington, Me.
V.-Pres., Anna C. Brackett, New York, N.Y.
Sec., Nathan Newby, Ind.

1873 ELMIRA, N. Y.
Pres., A. G. Boyden, Bridgewater, Mass.
V.-Pres., Joseph Estabrook, Ypsilanti, Mich.
Sec., M. A. Newell, Baltimore, Md.

1874 DETROIT, MICH.
Pres., James H. Hoose, Cortland, N. Y.
V.-Pres., W. N. Hailmann. Louisville, Ky.
Sec., Mrs. S. A. Rulison, North Bend, O.

1875 MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.
Pres., J. C. Greenough, Providence, R. I.
V.-Pres., Wm. A. Jones, Terre Haute, Ind.
Sec., C. F. R. Bellows, Ypsilanti, Mich.

1876 Baltimore, Md.
Pres., Edward Brooks, Millersville, Pa.
V.-Pres. Delia A. Lathrop, Cincinnati, O.
Sec., Geo. S. Albee, Oshkosh, Wis.

1877 LOUISVILLE, KY.
Pres., F. Louis Soldan, St. Louis, Mo.
V.-Pres., S. H. White, Peoria. Ill.
Sec., Grace C. Bibb, St. Louis, Mo.

1878 No Meeting

1879 PHILADELPHIA, PA.
Pres., Wm. F. Phelps, Whitewater, Wis.
V.-Pres., T. Marcellus, Marshall, W. Va.
Sec., Grace C. Bibb, St. Louis, Mo.

1880 CHAUTAUQUA, N. Y.
Pres., J. C. Gilchrist, Cedar Falls, Ia.
V.-Pres., E. C. Hewett, Normal, Ill.
Sec., G. W. Fetter, Philadelphia, Pa.

1881 ATLANTA, GA.
Pres., Jerome Allen, Geneseo, N. Y.
V.-Pres., G. L. Osborne, Warrensburg, Mo.
Sec., G. P. Brown, Terre Haute, Ind.

1882 SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
Pres., C. C. Rounds, Farmington, Me.
V.-Pres., T. C. H. Vance, Lexington, Ky.
Sec., Jerome Allen, St. Cloud, Minn.

1883 SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
Pres., E. A. Ware, Atlanta, Ga.
V.-Pres., E. C. Hewett, Normal, Ill.
Sec., G. P. Beard, California, Pa.

1884 MADISON, WIS.
Pres., E. C. Hewett, Normal, Ill.
V.-Pres., J. Baldwin, Huntsville, Tex.
Sec., M. S. Cooper, Oswego, N. Y.

1885 SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
Pres., George P. Brown, Terre Haute, Ind.
V.-Pres., J. Baldwin, Huntsville, Tex.
Sec., Sarah E. Sprague, Winona, Minn.

1886 TOPEKA, KANS.
Pres., A. G. Boyden, Bridgewater, Mass.
V.-Pres., G. L. Osborne, Warrensburg, Mo.
Sec, E. H. Cook, Potsdam, N. Y.

1887 CHICAGO, ILL.
Pres., A. R. Taylor, Emporia, Kans.
V.-Pres., James H. Hoose, Cortland, N. Y.
Sec., Mary Nicholson, Indianapolis, Ind.

1888 SAN FRANCISCO, CAL.
Pres., S. S. Parr, Greencastle, Ind.
V.-Pres., R. C. Norton, Cape Girardeau, Mo.
Sec., Rose C. Swart, Oshkosh, Wis.

1889 NASHVILLE, TENN.
Pres., Irwin Shepard, Winona, Minn.
V.-Pres., Lucy Washburn, San José, Cal.
Sec., Ellen A. Williams, Framingham, Mass.

1890 ST. PAUL, MINN.
Pres., W. W. Parsons, Terre Haute, Ind.
V.-Pres., James H. Hoose, Cortland, N. Y.
Sec., John L. Lampson, Nashville, Tenn.

1891 TORONTO, ONT.
Pres., B. A. Hinsdale, Ann Arbor, Mich.
V.-Pres., G. L. Osborne, Warrensburg, Mo.
Sec., Isabella Lawrence, St. Cloud, Minn.

[1] The papers read at this Session were printed in the *Proceedings* of the American Normal School Association, published by A. S. Barnes and Burr, New York, 1860, and were as follows:

The Proper Sphere and Work of the Normal School.—Alpheus Crosby, Massachusetts.

To What Extent Can the Art of Teaching Be Taught in Normal Schools.—John Ogden, Ohio.

The Course of Study Best Suited to the Objects of American Normal Schools.—Richard Edwards, Missouri.

1892 SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
Pres., CHARLES DEGARMO, Swarthmore, Pa.
V.-Pres., LARKIN DUNTON, Boston, Mass.
Sec., MARGARET E. CONKLING, Milwaukee, Wis.

1893 CHICAGO, ILL.
Pres., J. M. MILNE, Oneonta, N. Y.
V.-Pres., J. W. COOK, Normal, Ill.
Sec , J. N. WILKINSON, Emporia, Kans.

1894 ASBURY PARK, N. J
Pres., J. M. MILNE, Oneonta, N. Y.
V.-Pres., J. W. COOK, Normal, Ill.
Sec., J. N. WILKINSON, Emporia, Kans.

1895 DENVER, COLO.
Pres., J. M. GREEN, Trenton, N. J.
V.-Pres., Z. X. SNYDER, Greeley, Colo.
Sec., C. C. VAN LIEW, Normal, Ill.

1896 BUFFALO, N. Y.
Pres., JOHN W. COOK, Normal, Ill.
V.-Pres., G. R. KLEEBERGER, St. Cloud, Minn.
Sec., A. G. BOYDEN, Bridgewater, Mass.

1897 MILWAUKEE, WIS.
Pres., A. G. BOYDEN, Bridgewater, Mass.
V.-Pres., Z. X. SNYDER, Greeley, Colo.
Sec., E. A. STRONG, Ypsilanti, Mich.

1898 WASHINGTON, D. C.
Pres., H. H. SEERLEY, Cedar Falls, Ia.
V.-Pres., ROSE C. SWART, Oshkosh, Wis.
Sec., F. B. PALMER, Fredonia, N. Y.

1899 LOS ANGELES, CAL.
Pres., THEODORE B. NOSS, California, Pa.
V.-Pres., MARION BROWN, New Orleans, La
Sec., J. N. WILKINSON, Emporia, Kans.

1900 CHARLESTON, S. C.
Pres., JAMES E. RUSSELL, New York, N Y.
V.-Pres., N. CROPSEY, Indianapolis, Ind.
Sec., CHARLES B. DYKE, Hampton, Va.

1901 DETROIT, MICH.
Pres., C. D. MCIVER, Greensboro, N. C.
V.-Pres., Z. X. SNYDER, Greeley Colo.
Sec., MYRON T. SCUDDER, New Paltz, N. Y.

1902 MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.
Pres., JESSE F. MILLSPAUGH, Winona, Minn.
V.-Pres., MYRON T. SCUDDER, New Platz, N. Y.
Sec., JOHN R. KIRK, Kirksville, Mo.

1903 BOSTON, MASS.
Pres., LIVINGSTON C. LORD, Charleston, Ill.
V.-Pres., A. SALISBURY, Whitewater, Wis.
Sec., EDGAR L. HEWETT, Las Vegas, N. M.

1904 ST. LOUIS, MO.
Pres., LEWIS H. JONES, Ypsilanti, Mich.
V.-Pres., GRANT KARR, Oswego, N. Y.
Sec., MONTANA HASTINGS, Kirksville, Mo.

1905 ASBURY PARK AND OCEAN GROVE, N. J.
Pres., C. C. VAN LIEW, Chico, Cal.
V.-Pres., JESSE D. BURKS, Paterson, N. J.
Sec., ANNA BUCKBEE, California, Pa.

1906 No Meeting

1907 LOS ANGELES, CAL.
Pres., JOHN R. KIRK, Kirksville, Mo.
V.-Pres., D. B. JOHNSON, Rock Hill, S. C.
Sec., MARY ALICE WHITNEY, Emporia, Kans.

TOPICS

1866 The Duties of an American State in Respect to Higher Education.—WILLIAM F. PHELPS, Minnesota.
Oral Instruction: Its Philosophy and Methods.—Mrs. MARY HOWE SMITH, New York.
Oral Teaching.—EDWIN C. HEWETT, Illinois.
Normal Education in Kansas.—L. M. KELLOGG, Kansas.
Normal Schools: Their Organization and Course of Study.—WILLIAM F. PHELPS, Minnesota.

1867 No Meeting.

1868 State Normal Schools, Are Essential for the Efficient Operation of Public Instruction—Discussion.
The Usefulness of Model Schools in Connection with Normal Schools, and the Mode of Conducting Them—Discussion.
Textbooks.—M. A. NEWELL, Maryland.

1869 How Shall Pupils Be Taught to Teach?—JOHN ALDEN, New York.
School Architecture.—WILLIAM F. PHELPS, Minnesota.
Education as a Science.—JOHN OGDEN, Ohio.
Course of Study for a Normal School.—FORDYCE ALLEN, Pennsylvania.
The Spiritual Element of Education.—EDWARD BROOKS, Pennsylvania.

1870 President's Address—The Condition and Wants of Normal Schools.—JOHN OGDEN, Ohio.
Course of Study for Normal Schools.—WILLIAM F. PHELPS, Minnesota.
The Means of Providing Professional Instruction.—S. H. WHITE, Illinois.
The Human Body: A Subject of Study for Teachers.—J. L. PICKARD, Illinois.
Object-Lessons: Their Value and Place.—DELIA A. LATHROP, Ohio.
Vocal Music in Normal Schools.—GEO. B. LOOMIS, Indiana.
The Application of Mental Science to Teaching.—J. W. DICKINSON, Massachusetts.

THE DEPARTMENT OF NORMAL SCHOOLS

1871 President's Address—State Aid for Normal Schools.—S. H. WHITE, Illinois.
Model Schools in Connection with Normal Schools.—R. EDWARDS, Illinois

1871 The Normal School Its Own Model School.—ANNA C. BRACKETT, Missouri.
Principles and Methods in a Normal Course.—J. W. ARMSTRONG, New York.

1872 The Proper Work of Normal Schools.—J. C. GREENOUGH, Rhode Island.
Normal-School Work among the Freedmen.—S. C. ARMSTRONG, Virginia.
The American Normal School.—ANNA C. BRACKETT, New York.
Professional Instruction in Normal Schools.—T. W. HARVEY, Ohio.
Relation between Matter and Method in Normal Instruction.—GEO. P. BEARD, Missouri.
Practice Schools: Their Uses and Relation to Normal Training.—Miss J. H. STICKNEY, Massachusetts.

1873 Duties and Dangers of Normal Schools.—RICHARD EDWARDS, Illinois.
Elementary and Scientific Knowledge.—J. W. DICKINSON, Massachusetts.
Instruction in Natural Science in Normal Schools.—J. C. GREENOUGH, Rhode Island.
Training-Schools: Their Place in Normal-School Work.—DELIA A. LATHROP, Ohio.
Relative Contribution of Scholarship and Methods to the Power of the Teacher.—H. B. BUCKHAM, New York.

1874 What Constitutes a Consistent Course of Study for Normal Schools.—J. OGDEN, Ohio.
Training-Schools in Connection with Normal Schools.—J. C. GREENOUGH, Rhode Island.
What Must Be the Work of Normal Schools to Entitle Them to Be Called Professional?—LARKIN DUNTON, Massachusetts.
Method and Manner.—F. LOUIS SOLDAN, Missouri.

1875 The Professional Training of Teachers.—DELIA A. LATHROP, Ohio.

1876 President's Address—Centennial Thoughts on Normal Schools.—EDWARD BROOKS, Pennsylvania.
What is a School, etc.?—J. H. HOOSE, New York.
What May Normal Schools Do to Furnish Right Habits of Thought and Study in Their Pupils?—C. A. MOREY, Minnesota.
Personal and Acquired Gifts of Teaching.—H. B. BUCKHAM, New York.
A Professional Course of Study for Normal Schools.—JOHN ODGEN, Ohio.

1877 Normal Schools.—F. LOUIS SOLDAN, Missouri.
Range and Limits of Normal-School Work.—E. C. HEWETT, Illinois.
Common-School Studies in Normal Schools.—J. C. GREENOUGH, Rhode Island.
Attacks on Normal Schools.—C. C. ROUNDS, Maine.
A Few Queries concerning Some of the Details of Normal-School Work.—S. H. WHITE, Illinois.

1878 No Meeting.

1879 Professional Degrees for Teachers.—J. C. GILCHRIST, Iowa.
A Contribution to the Question of Professional Instruction in Normal Schools.—LEWIS MCLOUTH, Michigan.

1880 Instruction in Subject-Matter a Legitimate Part of Normal-School Work.—G. L. OSBORNE, Missouri.
Some of the Obstructions, Natural and Interposed, That Resist the Formation and Growth of the Pedagogic Profession.—GEO. P. BROWN, Indiana.

1881 President's Address—The Necessity of a Normal School in a Public System of Instruction.—JEROME ALLEN, Minnesota.
What Constitutes a Normal School.—J. C. GILCHRIST, Iowa.
The Best Normal Training for Country Teachers.—T. C. H. VANCE, Kentucky.

1882 The True Place of a Normal School in the Educational System.—D. L. KIEHLE.

1883 Normal Schools: Their Origin, Object, and Condition.—E. C. HEWETT, Illinois.
Right Use of Memory against Cramming.—B. G. NORTHROP, Connecticut.
The Normal-School Problem, and the Problems of the Schools.—H. H. STRAIGHT, New York.
The Place and Function of the Normal School.—CHARLES DEGARMO, Illinois.

1884 Necessity for Normal Schools.—E. C. HEWETT, Illinois.
Normal Schools: Their Necessity and Growth.—THOMAS HUNTER, New York.
Some Applications of Psychology to the Art of Teaching.—W. H. PAYNE, Michigan.

1885 Educational Value of Each of the Common-School Studies.—J. H. HOOSE, New York.
The Function of the Normal School.—EDWARD E. SHEIB, Louisiana.

1886 Distinctive Principles of Normal-School Work.—A. G. Boyden, Massachusetts.
Report on Organization, Courses of Study, and Methods of Instruction in Normal Schools.—A. R. Taylor, Kansas.
Educational Value of Common-School Studies.—J. H. Hoose, New York; W. H. Payne, Michigan; Edward Brooks, Pennsylvania.

1887 Value of Lessons from Educational History.—A. R. Taylor, Kansas.
Methods of Instruction in the Normal Schools of the United States.—Thos. J. Gray, Minnesota.
The General System of Normal Schools.—Charles DeGarmo, Illinois.
Conditions of Psychology in Normal Schools.—G. S. Albee, Wisconsin.

1888 The Normal-School Problem.—S. S. Parr, Indiana.
The Distinctive Work of the Normal School.—Joseph Baldwin, Texas.
The Subject-Matter Which Belongs Properly to the Normal School Curriculum.—C. W. Hodgin, Indiana; W. T. Harris; Miss Lucy M. Washburn, California.
The Training-School as an Adjunct of the Normal School.—Chas. H. Allen, California.
The Relation of the Normal to the Academic School.—Thos. H. Kirke, Wisconsin.

1889 Pedagogical Chairs in Colleges and Universities.—B. A. Hinsdale, Michigan.
Report of Committee Appointed at Chicago, on Methods of Instruction and Course of Studies in Normal Schools.—Thos. H. Gray, Minnesota; A. G. Boyden, Massachusetts; C. C. Rounds, New Hampshire.
Normal-School Work among the Colored People.—A. J. Steele, Tennessee.
The Training of the Teacher in the South.—A. D. Mayo, Massachusetts.

1890 The Normal-School Curriculum.—W. W. Parsons, Indiana.
Educational Ideas in Dicken's Novels.—F. L. Soldan, Missouri.
Common-School Branches, from a Professional Point of View.—Isabel Lawrence, Minnesota.
Recitation Estimates.—A. R. Taylor, Kansas.
Report of Committee; Criticism in Normal Schools: Its Value as an Element in Training Teachers.—Thomas J. Gray, Minnesota.
Mental Effects of Form in Subject-Matter.—J. H. Hoose, New York.

1891 The Teacher's Academical and Professional Preparation.—B. A. Hinsdale, Michigan.
What Constitutes Professional Work in a Normal School?—Chas. DeGarmo, Pennsylvania. Discussion.
The Place of the City Training-School.—Ellen G. Reveley, Ohio.
The Function of a Teacher's Training-College.—Walter L. Hervey, New York. Discussion.

1892 Co-ordination of the Normal School and the University in the Training of Teachers.—Charles DeGarmo, Pennsylvania.
The Economic Causes of Modern Progress.—Simon N. Patten, Pennsylvania.
Value of Herbartian Pedagogy for Normal Schools.—F. M. McMurry, Illinois.

1893 No Meeting.

1894 Report of Committee on the Relation of Normal Schools to Universities.—Charles DeGarmo, New York.
The Duty of the Normal School toward the Problem of School Literature.—C. C. Van Liew, Illinois.
Recent Educational Theory.—F. M. McMurry, New York.
Scholarship in Normal Schools.—Livingstone C. Lord, Minnesota.
The Academic Function of the Normal School.—James M. Green, New Jersey.
The Teacher as an Expert.—R. G. Boone, Michigan.

1895 Psychology in Normal Schools.—Z. X. Snyder, Colorado.
Psychology for Normal Schools.—M. V. O'Shea, Minnesota.
The Real Province of Method.—James M. Milne, New York; Howard Sandison, Indiana.
Organization of Training-Schools and Practice-Teaching.—Kate D. Stout, New Jersey.
The Organization of Practice-Teaching in Normal Schools.—J. N. Wilkinson, Kansas.
The Correlation of Studies in a Normal School.—N. C. Schaeffer, Pennsylvania.
Concentration or Co-ordination of Studies in the Normal School.—John W. Cook, Illinois.

1896 Professor Rein's Practice-School at Jena and Its Lessons for American Normal Schools.—JOHN W. HALL, New York.
The Practice-School as a Public School.—E. A. SHELDON, New York.

1897 Report of Normal-School Committee.—Z. X. SNYDER, Colorado, chairman.
How May the Normal School Best Accomplish Its Purpose?—RICHARD G. BOONE, Michigan.

1898 Preliminary Report of Committee on the Formulation of a Course of Study.
The New England State Normal Schools.—A. G. BOYDEN, Massachusetts.
The Southern State Normal Schools.—MARION BROWN, Louisiana.
Normal Schools West of the Mississippi River and East of the Rocky Mountains.—HOMER H. SEERLEY, Iowa.
The North Central State Normal Schools.—R. G. BOONE, Michigan.
Report of Subcommittee on the State Normal Schools of the Pacific Coast.—EDWARD T. PIERCE, California.
The Middle State Normal Schools.—N. C. SCHAEFFER, Pennsylvania.
The "Training-School" in the United States.—Z. X. SNYDER, Colorado.

1899 Report of the Committee on Normal Schools—
Function of the Normal School.
Training-Schools—Theses.
Geographical and Historical Variations That Exist in Normal Schools in the United States.
The Inner Life of a Normal School.
Normal-School Administration.
State Normal Schools.
Appendix A. Professor Rein's Practice-School, Jena, Germany.—JOHN W. HALL, Colorado.
Appendix B. General View of the Work of the Normal School.—ALBERT G. BOYDEN, Massachusetts.
Appendix C. A Typical English Training-College.—GEORGE MORRIS PHILIPS, Pennsylvania.
Appendix D. Continuous Sessions in Normal Schools.—IRWIN SHEPARD, Minnesota.

1900 Training of Teachers for White Schools.—CHARLES D. MCIVER, North Carolina.
The Training of Negro Teachers.—H. B. FRISSELL, Virginia.

1901 The Training of Teachers for Secondary Schools.—JAMES E. RUSSELL, New York.

1902 The Relations of the Heads of Departments to the Training-School.—DAVID FELMLEY, Illinois.
Defects in the Normal Schools That Are Responsible for the Opposition and Criticism Urged against Them in Many Parts of the United States.—HOMER H. SEERLEY, Iowa.

1903 The City Normal School of the Future.—FRANCIS BURKE BRANDT, Pennsylvania.
Does the Teacher's Knowledge of a Subject Differ from the Scholar's Knowledge?—W. W. PARSONS, Indiana, and Others.
Conditions of Admission to Normal Schools.—WALTER P. BECKWITH, Massachusetts, and Others.
The Academic Side of Normal-School Work.—HENRY JOHNSON, Illinois.
To What Extent and in What Manner Can the Normal School Increase Its Scholarship?—JAMES M. GREEN, New Jersey.

1904 In How Far May Child-Psychology Take the Place of Adult Psychology or Rational Psychology in the Training of Teachers?—G. STANLEY HALL, Massachusetts.
What Is the Net Gain to Education of Recent Investigations in Physiological Psychology?—CHARLES C. VAN LIEW, California.
Out-of-Door Work in Geography.—MARK S. W. JEFFERSON, Michigan.

1905 A Statement of the Issues before the Department.—CHARLES C. VAN LIEW, California.
The Modern High-School Curriculum as Preparation for a Two Year Normal Course, and the Sort of Training Which Makes for the Best Normal-School Preparation.—DAVID FELMLEY, Illinois.
How Can the Normal School Best Produce Efficient Teachers of the Elementary Branches as Regards the Control of Both Subject-Matter and Method?—GRANT KARR, New York.

1905 The Co-operation of Universities and Normal Schools in the Training of Elementary Teachers.—FRANK M. MCMURRY, New York; GUY E. MAXWELL, Minnesota.
The Co-operation of Universities and Normal Schools in the Training of Secondary Teachers.—E. N. HENDERSON, New York; Z. X. SNYDER, Colorado.

1906 No Meeting.

THE DEPARTMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION

The Central College Association held its second annual meeting in Oberlin, Ohio the week following the reorganization of the National Educational Association and the formal establishment of the Department of Higher Education. This Association voted in somewhat cautious terms to approve the organization of a new department and to instruct its executive committee to co-operate "in such manner as will advance the interests of this Association."

The Papers and Proceedings of the Central College Association for the Oberlin meeting were printed in the *Proceedings* of the N. E. A. for the Cleveland meeting. It does not appear that co-operation between the two organizations was carried further excepting that many of the members of the Central College Association became members of the Higher Department of the N. E. A.

OFFICERS

1871 ST. LOUIS, MO.
Pres., CHAS. W. ELIOT, Cambridge, Mass.
V.-Pres., N. S. COBLEIGH, Delaware, O.
Sec., S. G. WILLIAMS, Cleveland, O.

1872 BOSTON, MASS.
Pres., JAMES MCCOSH, Princeton, N. J.
V.-Pres., DAVID A. WALLACE, Monmouth, Ill.
Sec., T. H. SAFFORD, Chicago, Ill.

1873 ELMIRA, N. Y.
Pres., DAVID A. WALLACE, Monmouth, Ill.
V.-Pres., J. D. RUNKLE, Boston, Mass.
Sec., W. D. HENKLE, Salem, O.

1874 DETROIT, MICH.
Pres., DANIEL READ, Columbia, Mo.
V.-Pres., W. P. ATKINSON, Boston, Mass.
Sec., GEO. P. HAYS, Washington, Pa.

1875 MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.
Pres., GEO. P. HAYS, Washington, Pa.
V.-Pres., I. W. ANDREWS, Marietta, O.
Sec., C. S. VENABLE, Charlottesville, Va.

1876 BALTIMORE, MD.
Pres., NOAH PORTER, New Haven, Conn.
V.-Pres., C. S. VENABLE, Charlottesville, Va.
Sec., H. E. SHEPHERD, Baltimore, Md.

1877 LOUISVILLE, KY.
Pres., DANIEL GILMAN, Baltimore, Md.
V.-Pres., ELI T. TAPPAN, Gambier, O.
Sec., EDWARD S. JOYNES, Nashville, Tenn.

1878 No Meeting

1879 PHILADELPHIA, PA.
Pres., ELI T. TAPPAN, Gambier, O.
V.-Pres., E. I. JOYNES, Nashville, Tenn.
Sec., HUGH BOYD, Mt. Vernon, Ia.

1880 CHAUTAUQUA, N. Y.
Pres., ELI T. TAPPAN Gambier, O.
V.-Pres., LEMUEL MOSS, Bloomington, Ind.
Sec., E. B. BIERMAN, Annville, Pa.

1881 ATLANTA, GA.
Pres., LEMUEL MOSS, Bloomington, Ind.
V.-Pres., J. L. PICKARD, Iowa City, Ia.
Sec. John S. COPP, Hillsdale, Mich.

1882 SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
Pres., I. W. ANDREWS, Marietta, O.
V.-Pres., H. H. TUCKER, Atlanta, Ga.
Sec., G. M. STEARNS, Topeka, Kans.

1883 SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
Pres., W. W. FOLWELL Minneapolis, Minn.
V.-Pres., vacant
Sec., J. H. WRIGHT, Hanover, H. N.

1884 MADISON, WIS.
Pres., J. L. PICKARD, Iowa City, Ia.
V.-Pres., LEMUEL MOSS, Bloomington, Ind.
Sec., J. H. WRIGHT, Hanover, N. H.

1885 SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
Pres., LEMUEL MOSS, Bloomington, Ind.
V.-Pres., JOHN BASCOM, Madison, Wis.
Sec., W. G. WILLIAMS, Delaware, O.

1886 TOPEKA, KANS.
Pres., JEROME ALLEN, New York
V.-Pres., ELIAB W. COY, Cincinnati, O.
Sec., E. J. JAMES, Philadelphia, Pa.

1887 CHICAGO, ILL.
Pres., W. A. MOWRY, Boston, Mass.
V.-Pres., PETER MCVICAR, Topeka, Kans.
Sec., H. H. FREER, Mt. Vernon, Ia.

1888 SAN FRANCISCO, CAL.
Pres., B. A. HINSDALE Cleveland, O.
V.-Pres., ALICE F. PALMER, Cambridge, Mass
Sec., T. C. MCBRIDE, Iowa City, Ia.

1889 NASHVILLE, TENN.
Pres., S. H. PEABODY, Champaign, Ill.
V.-Pres., G. H. HOWISON, Berkeley, Cal.
Sec., T. H. MCBRIDE, Iowa City, Ia.

1890 ST. PAUL, MINN.
Pres., G. STANLEY HALL, Worcester, Mass
V.-Pres., E. S. JOYNES, Columbia, S. C.
Sec., G. R. CUTTING, Lake Forest, Ill.

1891 TORONTO, ONT.
Pres., J. J. MILLS, Richmond, Ind.
V.-Pres., E. B. ANDREWS, Providence, R. I.
Sec., C. A. BLANCHARD, Wheaton, Ill.

1892 SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
Pres., MERRILL E. GATES, Amherst, Mass.
V.-Pres., H. W. ROGERS, Evanston, Ill.
Sec., JOHN M. COULTER, Bloomington, Ind.

1893 No Meeting

1894 ASBURY PARK, N. J.
Pres., AUSTIN SCOTT, New Brunswick, N. J.
V.-Pres., Rt. Rev. J. J. KEANE, Washington, D. C.
Sec., MELVIL DEWEY, Albany, N. Y.

1895 DENVER, COLO.
Pres., JAMES H. BAKER, Boulder, Colo.
V.-Pres., J. F. CROWELL, New York, N. Y.
Sec., HORACE GOODHUE, Northfield, Minn.

1896 BUFFALO, N. Y.
Pres., JAMES H. BAKER, Boulder, Colo.
V.-Pres., DABNEY LIPSCOMB, Agricultural College, Miss.
Sec., JOSEPH SWAIN, Bloomington, Ind.

1897 MILWAUKEE, WIS.
Pres., JOSEPH SWAIN, Bloomington, Ind.
V.-Pres., J. G. SCHURMAN, Ithaca, N. Y.
Sec., GEORGE P. WINSHIP, Providence, R. I.

1898 WASHINGTON, D. C.
Pres., R. H. JESSE, Columbus, Mo.
V.-Pres., A. T. ORMOND, Princeton, N. J.
Sec., HENRY WADE ROGERS, Evanston, Ill.

1899 LOS ANGELES, CAL.
Pres., ROBERT B. FULTON, University, Miss.
V.-Pres., ELMER E. BROWN, Berkeley, Cal.
Sec., G. A. TAWNEY, Beloit, Wis.

1900 CHARLESTON, S. C.
Pres. J. H. RAYMOND, Morgantown, W. Va.
V.-Pres., WILLIAM F. KING, Mt. Vernon, Ia.
Sec., OSCAR J. CRAIG, Missoula, Mont.

1901 DETROIT, MICH.
Pres., CHARLES F. THWING, Cleveland, O.
V.-Pres., WM. M. BEARDSHEAR, Ames, Ia.
Sec., WM. H. BLACK, Marshall, Mo.

1902 MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.
Pres., W. H. P. FAUNCE, Providence, R. I.
V.-Pres., C. W. DABNEY, Knoxville, Tenn.
Sec., JOHN W. PERRIN, Cleveland, O.

1903 BOSTON, MASS.
Pres., BENJAMIN IDE WHEELER, Berkeley, Cal.
V.-Pres., WILLIAM H. SMILEY, Denver, Colo.
Sec., JOHN H. MACCRACKEN, Fulton, Mo.

1904 ST. LOUIS, MO.
Pres., BENJAMIN IDE WHEELER, Berkeley, Cal.
V.-Pres., GEORGE HARRIS, Amherst, Mass.
Sec., JOHN H. MACCRACKEN, New York, N.Y.

1905 ASBURY PARK AND OCEAN GROVE, N. J.
Pres., RICHARD H. JESSE, Columbia, Mo.,
V.-Pres., WILLIAM L. BRYAN, Bloomington, Ind
Sec., JOSEPH SWAIN, Swarthmore, Pa.

1906 No Meeting

1907 LOS ANGELES, CAL.
Pres., WM. L. BRYAN, Bloomington, Ind.
V.-Pres., C. ALPHONSO SMITH, Chapel Hill, N. C.
Sec., OSCAR J. CRAIG, Missoula, Mont.

TOPICS

1871 Classical Study and the Means of Securing It in the West.—H. K. EDSON, Iowa.
Superior Instruction as Related to Universal Education.—JOHN EATON, District of Columbia.
Modern Mathematics in the College Course.—T. H. SAFFORD, Illinois.
Pronunciation of Latin and Greek.—H. M. TYLER, Illinois.
Report—College Degrees.—DANIEL READ, Missouri.

1872 Report—College Degrees.—D. A. WALLACE, Illinois, President.
Report Greek and Latin Pronunciation.—H. M. TYLER, Illinois.
Natural-History Education.—N. S. SHALER, Massachusetts.
Methods of Teaching English in High Schools.—F. A. MARCH, Pennsylvania.

1873 Report—National University.—CHARLES W. ELIOT, Massachusetts.
Classical Studies.—EDWARD JONES, Virginia.
Liberal Education of the Nineteenth Century.—W. P. ATKINSON, Massachusetts.

1874 Reviews of the History of the Department.—DANIEL READ, Missouri.
The Elective System in Colleges.—A. P. PEABODY, Massachusetts.
The Plan of the University of Viginia.—C. S. VENABLE, Virginia.
A National University.—J. W. HOYT, Wisconsin.
Defense of Classical Studies. How Dead Languages Make Live Men.—JAMES D. BUTLER, Wisconsin.
National Endowments for Schools for Scientific and Technical Training.—J. K. PATTERSON, Kentucky.

1875 The Relations and Duties of Educators to Crime.—J. B. BITTINGER, Pennsylvania.
Military Science and Tactics in Our Universities and Colleges.—A. D. SCHENCK, Iowa.
Comparative Orthoepy.—W. C. SAWYER, Wisconsin.

1876 The History of the South Carolina College.—W. J. RIVERS, Maryland.
The Political Economy of Higher and Techincal Education.—H. A. M. HENDERSON, Kentucky.
Position of the Modern Languages in the Higher Education.—EDWARD S. JOYNES, Tennessee.
The Terms Anglo-Saxon and English.—HENRY E. SHEPHERD, Maryland.
Position of the Modern Mathematical Theories in Our Higher Courses of Pure Mathematics.—WM. THORNTON, Virginia.
Report on Orthoepy.—W. C. SAWYER, Wisconsin.
Phonetic Reform.—E. JONES, Liverpool, England.
The Study of Anglo-Saxon Language and Literature.—J. M. GARNETT, Maryland.

1877 The Elective System.—Wm. LeRoy Brown, Tennessee.
The Class System.—Noah Porter, Connecticut.
American Revision and Adaptation of Foreign Textbooks.—Caskie Harrison, Tennessee.
Report—Recommendation of the Berlin Conference Regarding German Orthography.—C. F. Radditz, Maryland.

1878 No Meeting.

1879 College Dormitories.—Charles K. Adams, Michigan.
Orthography in High Schools and Colleges.—Francis A. March, Pennsylvania.

1880 Scholarships.—J. L. Pickard, Iowa.
Complexity of Causes.—Eli T. Tappan, Ohio.
Equivalents in a Liberal Course of Study.—W. T. Harris, Missouri.

1881 The Study of Political Science in Colleges.—I. W. Andrews, Ohio.
Advancement of Higher Education.—H. H. Tucker, Georgia.

1882 The Place of Original Research in a College Education.—J. H. Wright, New York.
Man the Machine, or Man the Inventor, Which?—John W. Glenn, Georgia.

1883 The University, How and What?—W. W. Folwell, Minnesota.
The Schools of Political Science.—C. K. Adams, Michigan.

1884 The Civic Education.—W. W. Folwell, Minnesota.
Study of Language in a Liberal Education.—John Bascom, Wisconsin.

1885 The Relation of Secondary Education to the American University Problem.—Andrew F. West, New Jersey.
The Practical Value of College Education.—S. N. Fellows, Iowa.

1886 Methods in College Teaching.—Jerome Allen, New York.
The College Curriculum.—Wm. A. Mowry, Massachusetts.
Colleges North and Colleges South.—Julius D. Dreher, Virginia.

1887 The Place of Literature in the College Course.—Homer B. Sprague, California.
Requisites for Admission to College and for College Degrees.—Reports of Committee.—H. A. Thompson, Ohio, chairman.

1888 Philosophy in Colleges and Universities.—W. T. Harris, Massachusetts.
Historical Sketch of Higher Education on the Pacific Coast.—W. Cary Jones, California.
Higher Education.—Horatio Stebbins, California.
The State University and Public High School.—A. L. Cook, California.
Needs and Prospects of Higher Education on the Pacific Coast.—C. C. Stratton, California.

1889 An Educational Experiment.—Selim H. Peabody, Illinois.
The Higher Education of the Colored Race.—A. Owen, Tennessee; W. S. Scarborough, Ohio.

1890 What Have the People a Right to Ask from Colleges?—Chas. A. Blanchard, Illinois.
Shorter College Courses to Meet a Popular Demand.—H. L. Stetson, Iowa.
A Chair of Pedagogy.—R. G. Boone, Indiana; Levi Seeley, Illinois.
Defects in College Discipline.—Rufus C. Burleson, Texas.
Co-operative Government.—W. C. Fernald, Maine.
The Relation of the College to the Morals of the Student.—M. D. Hornbeck, Illinois.
The Spiritual Element in Education.—E. F. Bartholomew, Illinois.
College Education and Professional Life.—J. C. Hutchinson, Illinois.
Uniform Requirements for Admission.—H. A. Fischer, Illinois.
College Fraternities: Their Influence and Control.—J. T. McFarland, Iowa.

1891 Should the College Course be Shortened?—John M. Coulter, Indiana.
The Importance of Pedagogical Training for College Professors.—H. F. Fisk, Illinois.

1892 The World's Congresses of 1893.—Charles C. Bonney, Illinois.
Rhetoric and Public Speaking in the American College.—Henry Allyn Frink, Massachusetts.
Education and Citizenship.—B. P. Raymond, Connecticut.
The University in Its Relation to the People, Elmer E. Brown, Michigan.

1893 No Meeting.

1894 The Future of the Smaller College.—John F. Crowell, North Carolina.
The Group System of College Studies.—Adolphe Cohn, New York.

1894 Faculty and Alumni Control of College Athletics.—GEORGE WHARTON PEPPER, Pennsylvania.
Student Co-operation in College Government.—ETHELBERT D. WARFIELD, Pennsylvania.

1895 The Organization of the University of Toronto.—W. H. FRASER, Toronto.
The Future Organization of the Higher Education in the United States.—RICHARD T. ELY, Wisconsin.
A Conservative View of College Electives—Discussion.
Standard of Admission to Professional Schools.—J. N. HALL, Colorado.
The Relation of a College Course to the Professional Schools.—T. R. BACON, California.

1896 How to Secure the Interest of the Colleges and Universities in the Department.—JAMES H. BAKER, Colorado.
History in the Secondary Schools.—H. MORSE STEPHENS, New York.
Entrance Requirements—The Chicago System.—WILLIAM R. HARPER, Illinois.
Entrance Requirements of Yale College.—THOMAS DAY SEYMOUR, Connecticut.

1897 State Supervision of Degree-Conferring Institutes.—HENRY WADE ROGERS, Illinois.

1898 Are There Studies That, as Contestants, Should Be Pursued in Every Course in the Secondary Schools, and in the Freshman and Sophomore Years of the College?—JAMES M. GREEN, New Jersey.
The Training of the High-School Teacher.—M. V. O'SHEA, Wisconsin.
Should the Undergraduate Curriculum of Four Years in Colleges and Universities Be Mentioned?—NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER, New York.
Is It Possible and Desirable to Form a Federation of Colleges and Universities in the United States?—B. A. HINSDALE, Michigan.

1899 Continuous University Sessions.—JEROME H. RAYMOND, West Virginia.
The Study of Education in the University.—ELMER ELLSWORTH, California.

1900 The Satisfactions of Being a College President.—CHARLES F. THWING, Ohio.
State Aid to Higher Education in Europe and America.—JOSEPH SWAIN, Indiana.
An Ethnic View of Higher Education.—I. W. HOWERTH, Illinois.
The Function of the Land-Grant College in American Education.—W. M. BEARDSHEAR, Iowa.

1901 The Function of the State University.—RICHARD HENRY JESSE, Missouri.
The Rise of National Education in the Sixteenth Century.—JOHN WILLIAM PERRIN, Ohio.
Education for Social Control.—WILLIAM E. CHANCELLOR, New Jersey.
The Moral Factor in Education.—WM. H. P. FAUNCE, Rhode Island.

1902 Should Entrance to College Be thru the Examination of the School or of the Pupil?—EDWIN GRANT DEXTER, Illinois.
Report of the Commission on Accredited Schools.—GEORGE N. CARMAN, Illinois.
Organization of Education in Brazil.—HORACE M. LANE, South America.
The Future of Greek Studies.—J. IRVING MANATT, Rhode Island.
Education in the Appreciation of Art.—WILLIAM BAYARD CRAIG, Iowa.

1903 The Length of the Baccalaureate Course and Preparation for the Professional Schools—Sketch.—ELMER ELLSWORTH BROWN, California, and Others. Shall the University Concern Itself More Directly with the Morals and Manners of Its Students?—GEORGE HARRIS, Massachusetts, and Others.

1904 Coeducation.—G. STANLEY HALL, Massachusetts.
Coeducation as It Has Been Tested in State Universities.—R. H. JESSE, Missouri.
The Advantage of Co-ordinate (Annex) Method in Education.—CHARLES F. THWING, Ohio.
Coeducation in Relation to Other Types of College Education For Women.—JAMES B. ANGELL, Michigan.
The General Tendency of College Athletics.—E. BENJAMIN ANDREWS, Nebraska.
Character in Athletics.—WILLIAM H. P. FAUNCE, Rhode Island.
The Effects of Athletics on the Morals of the College.—FRANK STRONG, Kansas.

1905 President's Address—The Excessive Expansion of the Course of Study.—WILLIAM L. BRYAN, Indiana.
Honor in Student Life in Colleges and Universities.—CHARLES ALPHONSO SMITH, North Carolina.

1905 Does Wide Election, and Do Minute Courses, Weaken Undergraduate Courses in Universities? Are Colleges More Fortunate in These Things?—JAMES H. CANFIELD, New York.

Which Is Better: The Western Plan of Admitting Students to Colleges and Universities by Certificates, or the Eastern Method of Admitting Only by Examinations?—GEORGE E. MACLEAN, Iowa.

Should Chairs of Pedagogy Attached to College Departments of Universities Be Developed into Professional Colleges for the Training of Teachers?—ALBERT ROSS HILL, Missouri.

1906 No Meeting.

DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

OFFICERS

1871 ST. LOUIS, MO.
Pres., E. A. SHELDON, Oswego, N. Y.
V.-Pres., A. C. SHORTRIDGE, Indianapolis, Ind.
Sec., W. E. SHELDON, Waltham, Mass.

1872 BOSTON, MASS.
Pres., DELIA A. LATHROP, Cincinnati, O.
V.-Pres., JAMES JOHONNOT, New York, N. Y.
Sec., L. H. CHENEY, St. Louis, Mo.

1873 ELMIRA, N. Y.
Pres., N. A. CALKINS, New York, N. Y.
V.-Pres., HARRIET N. MORRIS, New York, N. Y.
Sec., AUGUSTA M. HAWLEY, Ohio.

1874 DETROIT, MICH.
Pres., H. F. HARRINGTON, New Bedford, Mass.
V.-Pres., HANNAH CUMMINGS, Kirksville, Mo.
Sec., GEO. B. SEARS, Newark, N. J.

1875 MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.
Pres., ALFRED KIRKE, Chicago, Ill.
V.-Pres., Miss H. KEELER, Cleveland, O.
Sec., LUCY J. MALTBY, Warrensburg, Mo.

1876 BALTIMORE, MD.
Pres., Mrs. M. O. STONE, New Milford, Conn.
Sec., O. V. TOUSLEY, Minneapolis, Minn.

1877 LOUISVILLE, KY.
Pres., JAMES CRUIKSHANK, Brooklyn, N. Y.
V.-Pres., H. A. M. HENDERSON, Frankfort, Ky.
Sec., FRANK ABORN, Cleveland, O.

1878 No Meeting

1879 PHILADELPHIA, PA.
Pres., GEO. P. BROWN, Indianapolis, Ind.
V.-Pres., SARAH E. RICHMOND, Baltimore, Md.
Sec., WM. J. DAVIS, Louisville, Ky.

1880 CHAUTAUQUA, N. Y.
Pres., JAMES H. SMART, Indianapolis, Ind.
V.-Pres., SUSAN E. BLOW, St. Louis, Mo.
Sec., LELIA E. PATRIDGE, Philadelphia, Pa.

1881 ATLANTA, GA.
Pres., O. V. TOUSLEY, Minneapolis, Minn.
V.-Pres., R. W. STEVENSON, Columbus, O.
Sec., J. B. ROBERTS, Indianapolis, Ind.

1882 SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
Pres., J. M. BLOSS, Indianapolis, Ind.
V.-Pres., W. O. ROGERS, New Orleans, La.
Sec., J. J. BURNS, Chillicothe, O.

1883 SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
Pres., JOHN B. PEASLEE, Cincinnati, O.
V.-Pres., W. N. BARRINGER, Newark, N. J.
Sec., STERLING G. BRINKLEY, Quitman, Ga.

1884 MADISON, WIS.
Pres., F. LOUIS SOLDAN, St. Louis, Mo.
V.-Pres., W. N. BARRINGER, Newark, N. J.
Sec., ELLA CALKINS, New York, N. Y.

1885 SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
Pres., W. N. BARRINGER, Newark, N. J.
V.-Pres., A. R. TAYLOR, Emporia, Kans.
Sec., ELLA CALKINS, New York, N. Y.

1886 TOPEKA, KANS.
Pres., JOHN W. HOLCOMBE, Indianapolis, Ind.
V.-Pres., L. R. KLEMM, Hamilton, O.
Sec., MARGARET W. SUTHERLAND, Mansfield, O.

1887 CHICAGO, ILL.
Pres., W. H. BARTHOLOMEW, Louisville, Ky.
V.-Pres. Miss E. BAUMGARTNER, Springfield, Ill.
Sec., M. W. SUTHERLAND, Mansfield, O.

1888 SAN FRANCISCO, CAL.
Pres., LEROY D. BROWN, Columbus, O.
V.-Pres., AGNES L. ROUNDS, Cambridge Mass.
Sec., J. L. LAMSON, Nashville, Tenn.

1889 NASHVILLE, TENN.
Pres., JOSEPH O'CONNOR, San Francisco, Cal.
V.-Pres., BETTIE A. DUTTON, Cleveland, O.
Sec., R. K. BUEHRLE, Lancaster, Pa.

1890 ST. PAUL, MINN.
Pres., BETTIE A. DUTTON, Cleveland, O.
V.-Pres., D. L. KIEHLE, St. Paul, Minn.
Sec., F. A. CHASE, Nashville, Tenn.

1891 TORONTO, ONT.
Pres., H. S. JONES, Erie, Pa.
V.-Pres., JULIA TUTWILER, Livingston, Ala.
Sec., ELLEN F. WHEATON, St. Paul, Minn.

1892 SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
Pres., JULIA TUTWILER, Livingston, Ala.
V.-Pres., FRANK B. GAULT, Tacoma, Wash.
Sec., LUCIA STICKNEY, Cincinnati, O.

1893 No Meeting

1894 ASBURY PARK N. J.
Pres., Mrs. R. D. RICKOFF, New York, N. Y.
V.-Pres., AARON GOVE, Denver, Colo.
Sec., F. TREUDLEY, Youngstown, O.

1895 DENVER, COLO.
Pres., F. TREUDLEY, Youngstown, O.
V.-Pres., Miss N. CROPSEY, Indianapolis, Ind
Sec., W. C. WARFIELD, Covington, Ky.

1896 BUFFALO, N. Y.
Pres., S. T. DUTTON, Brookline, Mass.
V.-Pres., J. K. STABLETON, Lexington, Neb.
Sec., HENRIETTA B. AYERS, Denver, Colo.

1897 MILWAUKEE, WIS.
Pres., SARAH C. BROOKS, St. Paul, Minn.
V.-Pres., E. B. COX, Xenia, O.
Sec., IDA C. BENDER, Buffalo, N. Y.

1898 WASHINGTON, D. C.
Pres., W. N. HAILMANN, Washington, D. C.
V.-Pres., R. H. HALSEY, Binghampton, N. Y.
Sec., HARRIET E. SMITH, Milwaukee, Wis.

1899 LOS ANGELES, CAL.
Pres., W. N. Hailmann, Dayton, O.
V.-Pres., J. W. Carr, Anderson, Ind.
Sec., Miss E. V. Brown, Washington, D. C.

1900 CHARLESTON, S. C.
Pres., Miss N. Cropsey, Indianapolis, Ind.
V.-Pres., J. W. Dinsmore, Beatrice, Neb.
Sec., Bettie A. Dutton, Cleveland, O.

1901 DETROIT, MICH.
Pres., J. W. Carr, Anderson, Ind.
V.-Pres., J. C. Harris, Rome, Ga.
Sec., Mrs. Sara D. Jenkins, Ithaca, N. Y.

1902 MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.
Pres., R. A. Ogg, Kokomo, Ind.
V.-Pres., J. J. Doyne, Little Rock, Ark.
Sec., Adda P. Wertz, Carbondale, Ill.

1903 BOSTON, MASS.
Pres., Miss M. A. Holton, Minneapolis, Minn.
V.-Pres., Frederick Tredley, Athens, O.
Sec., Adda P. Wertz, Carbondale Ill.

1904 ST. LOUIS, MO.
Pres., Ada Van Stone Harris, Rochester, N. Y.
V.-Pres., C. N. Kendall, Indianapolis, Ind.
Sec., Emma G. Olmstead, Potsdam, N. Y.

1905 ASBURY PARK and OCEAN GROVE, N. J.
Pres., Miss N. Cropsey, Indianapolis, Ind.
V.-Pres., J. H. Van Sickle, Baltimore, Md.
Sec., Lida B. Earhart, Whitewater, Wis.

1906 No Meeting.

1907 LOS ANGELES, CAL.
Pres., Mrs. A. W. Cooley, Minneapolis, Minn.
V.-Pres., C. F. Carroll, Rochester, N. Y.
Sec., Mrs. J. Heermans, Kansas City, Mo.

TOPICS

1871 First Steps in Teaching Reading [Abstract].—E. E. White, Ohio.
Methods of Teaching Language [Abstract].—D. H. Crittenden, New York.
Learning to Draw.—H. C. Harden, Massachusetts.
Philosophy of Methods.—J. W. Armstrong, New York.
How to Teach Geography.—Mary Howe Smith, Missouri.
What Constitutes a Good Primary Teacher.—W. T. Harris and Others.

1872 Object-Teaching.—N. A. Calkins, New York. Discussion.—Z. Richards, District of Columbia; Bronson Alcott, Massachusetts.
English Grammar in Elementary Schools.—M. A. Newell, Maryland.
Adaptation of Froebel's Principles of Education to American Schools.—W. N. Hailmann, Kentucky.
Scope and Method of Physical Science in the Common School.—C. O. Thompson, Massachusetts.
English Literature and Its Place in Popular Education.—F. H. Underwood, Massachusetts.

1873 Primary Reading: The Thought and Sentence Method.—Geo. L. Farnham, New York.
Elementary Reading: The Phonetic Method.—E. Leigh, New York.
What Should Be the Leading Object of American Free Schools.—H. F. Harrington, Massachusetts.
What Froebel's System of Education Is, and How It Can Be Introduced into Our Public Schools.—J. W. Dickinson, Massachusetts.
School Hours for Children under Ten.—A. J. Rickoff, Ohio.

1874 Several Problems in Graded School Management.—E. E. White, Ohio.
Language Lessons in Elementary Schools.—Miss H. A. Keeler, Ohio.
Science in Common Schools.—J. W. Armstrong, New York.
What Shall We Attempt in Elementary Schools?—Mrs. A. C. Martin, Massachusetts.

1875 Language Teaching: Its Importance and Its Methods.—H. F. Harrington, Massachusetts.
What Shall We Do with the Boys?—J. L. Pickard, Illinois.
The Relation of the Teacher to the Reforms of the Day.—Frances E. Willard, Illinois.

1876 Characteristics of Froebel's Method of Kindergarten Training.—Mrs. John Kraus-Boelte, New York.
Aesthetics of Education.—Minnie Swayze, New Jersey.

1877 The English Language in Elementary Schools.—Zalmon Richards, District of Columbia.
Moral Training in Schools.—R. H. Rivers, Tennessee.
The Kindergarten: Its Use and Abuse in America.—John Kraus; Mrs. Kraus-Boelte, New York.

1878 No Meeting.

1879 Culture in Elementary Schools.—Geo. P. Brown, Indiana.
The Relation of the Kindergarten to the School.—W. T. Harris, Missouri.

1879 A Graduating System for Country Schools.—A. L. WADE, West Virginia.
The First School Days.—Mrs. REBECCA D. RICKOFF, Ohio.
Art and Drawing in Education.—WALTER SMITH, Massachusetts.

1880 The Practical Use of Reference Books.—MARY W. HINMAN, Indiana.
What Should We Seek to Accomplish in the Reading Exercise?—E. O. VAILE, Illinois.
How Can Character Be Symetrically Developed?—ELLEN HYDE, Massachusetts.

1881 The Philosophy of Illustration.—J. J. BURNS, Ohio.
Education of the Sensibilities.—JOHN W. DOWD, Ohio.

1882 On the Relation of the Processes of Acquisition and Memory to Elementary Teaching.—GEORGE P. BROWN, Indiana.
What, How, and How Better?—Miss CARRIE B. SHARPE, Indiana.

1883 The Education of the Heart.—H. H. FICK, Ohio.
Primary Education: What and How?—HENRY RAAB, Illinois.

1884 Training Needed.—F. LOUIS SOLDAN, Missouri.
Form, Color, and Design.—FANNIE S. COMMINGS, New York.
Methods of Teaching Music.—H. E. HOLT, Massachusetts.
English Instruction for Children.—O. T. BRIGHT, Illinois.

1885 A Syllabus.—W. N. BARRINGER, New Jersey.
The True Object of Early School Training.—CLARENCE E. MELENY, New Jersey.
Language as an Educator.—Z. RICHARDS, District of Columbia.
A New Departure in Teaching Geography.—L. R. KLEMM, Ohio.
Avenues to the Mind.—WM. M. GIFFIN, New Jersey.

1886 Application of Froebel's Principles (Educational) to the Primary School.—W. N. HAILMANN, Indiana.
Symposium: A Survey of Common-School Education.
(*a*) Historical Sketch.—W. H. BARTHOLOMEW, Kentucky.
(*b*) Necessary External Conditions.—Miss VINA WARE, Iowa.
(*c*) The Course of Study, Proper Limits, etc.—H. M. JAMES, Nebraska.
(*d*) Order of Subjects.—MARY B. PHILLIPS, Illinois.
(*e*) Principles of Method.—AGNES I. ROUNDS, New Hampshire.
(*f*) Country Schools, Suggestions for Improvement.—J. C. MCPHERSON; C. J. FELTS, Indiana.

1887 The Union of Oral and Book Teaching.—Mrs. N. S. WILLIAMS, Kentucky.
Meaning of the Maxim, "We Learn to Do by Doing."—N. C. SCHAEFFER, Pennsylvania.
The Importance of Religious Motives and Sanctions in Moral Training.—ROBERT ALLYN, Illinois.

1888 Greek Philosophy and Modern Education.—LEROY D. BROWN, Ohio.
Normal Training for Teachers of Elementary Schools.—Miss K. N. T. TUPPER. Oregon.
The Application of Arithmetic to Physical Science.—W. MCNAB MILLER, Nevada.
Scientific Methods in Teaching Geography.—C. F. PALMER, Ohio.
Short and Rational Method of Number Work.—F. B. GINN, California.

1889 Discipline in Elementary Schools.—BETTIE A. DUTTON, Ohio.
Individuality of Teachers.—J. M. DEWBERRY, Alabama.

1890 Geology in Early Education.—ALEXANDER WINCHELL, Michigan.
Science Training in Primary and Grammar Grades.—GUSTAVE GUTTENBERG, Pennsylvania.
Our Brother in Stripes, in the Schoolroom.—JULIA S. TUTWILER, Alabama.
Fairy Tales and Folk Lore.—W. T. HARRIS, District of Columbia.
The Teacher and the Parent.—Mrs. JENNIE S. MCLAUCHLIN, Illinois.

1891 Synthetic Sound System of Teaching Reading.—F. B. GAULT, Washington.
Natural Science for the Common Schools.—WILBUR S. JACKMAN, Illinois.
The Educational Burdens upon the Lower Grades.—Miss ABBIE LOW, Pennsylvania.
Voice Culture in Primary and Elementary Schools.—ZALMON RICHARDS, District of Columbia.

1892 Individualization by Grouping.—JULIA S. TUTWILER, Alabama.
History in Elementary Education.—M. A. NEWELL, Maryland.
Moral Training in Elementary Schools.—Z. RICHARDS, Washington, District of Columbia.
The Natural Sciences in Elementary Education.—S. G. WILLIAMS, New York.

1893 No Meeting.

1894 School Boards.—Charles E. Gaton, New York.
A Few Changes in Elementary School Instruction.—Edward G. Ward, New York.
The Ideal Primary School Curriculum.—Miss Emma C. Davis, Ohio.

1895 Substitution of the Teacher for the Textbook.—J. M. Rice, New York.
Nature-Study and Literature.—Miss Sarah L. Arnold, Massachusetts.
Departmental Teaching in Grammar Grades.—J. M. Fendley, Texas.

1896 Opening Remarks, Improvements in Educational Methods.—S. T. Dutton, Massachusetts.
The Place of Nature-Study in Primary Work.—Miss Flora J. Cook, Illinois.
Some Applications of Correlation.—Frank M. McMurry, New York.
Vertical Writing.—Miss Annie E. Hills, Massachusetts.

1897 What to Teach and What to Leave Out.—Wm. M. Giffin, Illinois.
Imagination in Arithmetic.—Frank H. Hall, Illinois.
The New Arithmetic.—John H. Tear, Illinois.
Elementary Mathematics and Education.—L. W. Colwell, Illinois.

1898 President's Address—Value of Froebel's Method in Elementary Education.—William N. Hailmann, Ohio.
Play as a Means for Idealizing and Extending the Child's Experience.—Miss Allie M. Felker, California.
Successive Differentiation of Subjects in the Elementary Schools.—Z. X. Snyder, Colorado.
Value of the Hand in the Acquisition of Knowledge and Expression of Thought.—Miss Mary F. Hall, Wisconsin.
The Function of Manual Training in the Elementary School.—Richard Waterman, Illinois.
Social Co-operation.—B. C. Gregory, New Jersey.

1899 The Culture-Epoch Theory in Education.—Louise Morris Hannum, Colorado.
The Place and Development of Purpose in Education.—W. N. Hailmann, Ohio.
Vices of Childhood and Youth.—J. W. Dinsmore, Nebraska.

1900 Nature-Study in the Public Schools.—D. Lange, Minnesota.
Nature-Study in the Public Schools—The Geographical Phase.—Jacques W. Redway, New York.
English in the Grades.—A. A. Reed, Nebraska.
The Elimination of the Grammar School.—Otis Ashmore, Georgia.

1901 The Church and the Public School.—T. A. Mott, Indiana.
The Economic Basis of Art: Cause and Cure of Art Unresponsiveness in Children.—Charles DeGarmo, New York.
Educational Pioneering in the Southern Mountains.—William Goodell Frost, Kentucky.
Education and Crime.—Amos W. Butler, Indiana.

1902 The Practical Value of Teaching Agriculture in the Public Schools.—Joseph Carter, Illinois.
The Use and Danger of Method.—W. A. Millis, Indiana.
Myth and History in the Elementary Schools; The Use and Limits of Each.—Miss May H. Prentice, Ohio.

1903 The Lock-Step in the Public Schools.—Richard G. Boone, Massachusetts.
Nature-Study True to Life.—C. F. Hodge, Massachusetts.
The Child's Favorite Study in the Elementary Curriculum.—Earl Barnes, Pennsylvania.

1904 The Natural Activities of Children as Determining the Industries in Early Education.—Katharine E. Dopp, Illinois, and Other Authors.
Avenues of Language—Expression in the Elementary School.—Percival Chubb, New York, and Others.
A Filipino's View of Education in the Philippines.—Senora Maria Del Pilar Zamora, Philippine Islands.

1905 Review of the Educational Progress of the Year and a Discussion of Some Phases of the Curriculum of the Elementary School.—Miss N. Cropsey, Indiana; M. A. Bailey, New York.
Round Table—Conference A.
Hand-Work in Primary Schools.—Wilhelmina Seegmiller, Indiana, leader
Round Table—Conference B.

1905 Right Methods of Studying History and Geography by Children.—FRANK M. MCMURRY, New York, leader.
Round Table—Conference C.
Reading in the First School Year.—Mrs. ALICE W. COOLEY, North Dakota, leader.
The Psychology of Reading and Writing.—ROBERT MACDOUGALL, New York.
The Study of English Composition as a Means of Acquiring Power.—Miss GEORGIA ALEXANDER, Indiana.
Teaching our Language to Non-English-Speaking Pupils.—GUSTAVE STRAUBENMULLER, New York.

THE DEPARTMENT OF MANUAL TRAINING

This department was organized as the Department of Industrial Education at the meeting at Minneapolis, August 3–6, 1875. The name was changed in 1890 to the Department of Industrial and Manual Training, and in 1899 to the Department of Manual Training.

OFFICERS

1876 BALTIMORE, MD.
Pres., S. R. THOMPSON, Lincoln, Neb.
V.-Pres., S. P. ROBERTS, Ithaca, N. Y.
Sec., CHAS. G. LACY, Minneapolis, Minn.

1877 LOUISVILLE, KY.
Pres., MANLY MILES, Champaign, Ill.
V.-Pres., E. M. PENDLETON, Athens, Ga.
Sec., CHAS. G. LACY, Minneapolis, Minn.

1878 No Meeting

1879 PHILADELPHIA, PA.
Pres., J. D. RUNKLE, Boston, Mass.
V.-Pres., L. S. THOMPSON, Lafayette, Ind.
Sec., CHAS. G. LACY, Minneapolis, Minn.

1880 CHAUTAUQUA, N. Y.
Pres., E. E. WHITE, Lafayette, Ind.
V.-Pres., ALEX. HOGG, College Station, Tex.
Sec., H. B. WHITTINGTON, Philadelphia, Pa.

1881 ATLANTA, GA.
Pres., E. E. WHITE, Lafayette, Ind.
V.-Pres., W. W. FOLWELL, Minneapolis, Minn.
Sec., S. R. THOMPSON, Lincoln, Neb.

1882 SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
Pres., C. O. THOMPSON, Worcester, Mass.
V.-Pres., H. H. FICK, Cincinnati, O.
Sec., S. R. THOMPSON, Lincoln, Neb.

1883 SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
Pres., C. M. WOODWARD, St. Louis, Mo.
V.-Pres., W. W. FOLWELL, Minneapolis, Minn.
Sec., S. R. THOMPSON, Lincoln, Neb.

1884 MADISON, WIS.
Pres., C. M. WOODWARD, St. Louis, Mo.
V.-Pres., H. H. BELFIELD, Chicago, Ill.
Sec., E. A. SINGER, Philadelphia, Pa.

1885 SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
Pres., H. H. BELFIELD, Chicago, Ill.
V.-Pres., JAMES MACALISTER, Philadelphia, Pa.
Sec., S. H. THOMPSON, Lincoln, Neb.

1886 TOPEKA, KANS.
Pres., JAMES MACALISTER, Philadelphia, Pa.
V.-Pres., J. M. ORDWAY, New Orleans, La.
Sec., W. F. M. GOSS, Lafayette, Ind.

1887 CHICAGO, ILL.
Pres., J. M. ORDWAY, New Orleans, La.
V.-Pres., J. A. WICKERSHAM, Terre Haute, Ind.
Sec., J. D. WALTERS, Manhattan, Kans.

1888 SAN FRANCISCO, CAL.
Pres., G. T. FAIRCHILD, Manhattan, Kans.
V.-Pres., H. M. LEIPZIGER. New York, N. Y.
Sec., S. R. THOMPSON, New Wilmington, Pa.

1889 NASHVILLE, TENN.
Pres., G. T. FAIRCHILD, Manhattan, Kans.
V.-Pres., H. H. BELFIELD, Chicago, Ill.
Sec., A. J. RICKOFF, New York, N. Y.

1890 ST. PAUL, MINN.
(Industrial Education and Manual Training)
Pres., A. J. RICKOFF, New York, N. Y.
V.-Pres., J. M. ORDWAY, New Orleans, La.
Sec., HENRY A. WISE, Baltimore, Md.

1891 TORONTO, ONT.
Pres., LEWIS MCLOUTH, Brookings, S. D.
V.-Pres. WILLIAM SAYRE, Philadelphia, Pa.
Sec., GEO. S. MILLS, Toledo, O.

1892 SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
Pres., H. M. LEIPZIGER, New York, N. Y.
V.-Pres., W. M. BEARDSHEAR, Ames, Ia.
Sec., E. R. BOOTH, Cincinnati, O.

1893 No Meeting—See International Congress of Education.

1894 ASBURY PARK, N. J.
Pres., W. M. BEARDSHEAR, Ames, Ia.
V.-Pres., A. C. GORDON, Minnesota
Sec., W. B. FRIEDBERG, New York, N. Y

1895 DENVER, COLO.
Pres., E. R. BOOTH, Cincinnati, O.
V.-Pres., A. N. EBAUGH, Baltimore, Md.
Sec., CHAS. D. LARKINS, Brooklyn, N. Y.

1896 BUFFALO, N. Y.
Pres., CHAS. H. KEYES, Pasadena, Cal.
V.-Pres., W. H. MAGRUDER, Agricultural College, Miss.
Sec., ABBY L. MARLATT, Providence, R. I.

1897 MILWAUKEE, WIS.
Pres., OSCAR CLUTE, Lake City, Fla.
V.-Pres., Mrs. N. S. KEDZIE, Manhattan, Kans.
Sec., JUDSON E. HOYT, Menomonie, Wis.

1898 WASHINGTON, D. C.
Pres., EDWARD O. SISSON, Peoria, Ill.
V.-Pres., W. R. LAZENBY, Columbus, O.
Sec., JUDSON E. HOYT, Menomonie, Wis.

1899 LOS ANGELES, CAL.
Pres., JUDSON E. HOYT, Menomonie, Wis.
V.-Pres., PERLA G. BOWMAN, Columbus, O.
Sec., CHARLES A. BENNETT, Peoria, Ill.

1900 CHARLESTON, S. C.
Pres., CHARLES H. KEYES, Hartford, Conn.
V.-Pres., CHARLES A. BENNETT, Peoria, Ill.
Sec., L. A. BUCHANAN, Stockton, Cal.

1901 DETROIT, MICH.
Pres., CHARLES A. BENNETT, Peoria, Ill.
V.-Pres., B. A. LENFEST. Waltham, Mass.
Sec., L. A. BUCHANAN, Stockton, Cal.

1902 MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.
Pres., C. R. RICHARDS, New York, N. Y.
V.-Pres., C. F. WARNER, Springfield, Mass.
Sec., J. H. TRYBOM, Detroit, Mich.

1903 BOSTON, MASS.
Pres., C. F. WARNER, Springfield, Mass.
V.-Pres., J. E. PAINTER, Minneapolis, Minn.
Sec., C. L. KIRSCHNER, New Haven, Conn.

1904 ST. LOUIS, MO.
Pres., A. H. CHAMBERLAIN, Pasadena, Cal.
V.-Pres., C. L. KIRSCHNER, New Haven, Conn.
Sec., FRANK M. LEAVITT, Boston, Mass.

1905 ASBURY PARK AND OCEAN GROVE.
Pres., A. H. CHAMBERLAIN, Pasadena, Cal.
V.-Pres., C. L. KIRSCHNER, New Haven, Conn.
Sec., FRANK M. LEAVITT, Roxbury, Mass.

1906 No Meeting.

1907 LOS ANGELES, CAL.
Pres., FRANK M. LEAVITT, Roxbury, Mass.
V.-Pres., C. R. BATES, Port Deposit, Md.
Sec., OSCAR L. MCMURRY, Chicago, Ill.

TOPICS

1876 President's Address—The Legitimate Field of the Industrial Department.—S. R. THOMPSON.
The Industrial Education of Women.—EZRA S. CARR, California.
Instruction in Manual Arts in Connection with Scientific Studies.—MANLY MILES, Illinois.
What Can Be Done to Secure a Larger Proportion of Educated Labor among Our Producing and Manufacturing Classes?—WM. C. RUSSELL, New York.
What Are the Legitimate Duties of an Agricultural Professor?—E. M. PENDLETON, Georgia.
Drawing as an Element of Advanced Industrial Education.—C. B. STETSON, Massachusetts.
Required Adjustments in Scientific Education; with Special Reference to Instrumental Drawing.—S. EDWARD WARREN, New York.

1877 Relation of the Common School to Industrial Education.—S. R. THOMPSON, Nebraska.
Systematic Manual Training or Labor in Industrial Education.—GEO. T. FAIRCHILD, Kansas.
The Russian System of Mechanical Art Education.—J. D. RUNKLE, Massachusetts.
The Relation of Manual Labor to Technological Training.—CHAS. O. THOMPSON, Massachusetts.

1878 No Meeting.

1879 Educated Labor.—L. S. THOMPSON.
The Beginning of Industrial Education.—M. A. NEWELL, Maryland.
Destitute Children.—JOHN HITZ, District of Columbia.
The Use of Modeling in Education.—EDWARD A. SPRING, New Jersey.

1880 Technical Training in American Schools.—E. E. WHITE, Indiana.
Technical Instruction in the Land Grant Colleges.—J. M. GREGORY, Illinois.

1881 Industrial Education.—E. E. WHITE, Ohio.
Annual Report of the Industrial Department.—S. R. THOMPSON, Nebraska.
The Decay of Apprenticeship.—L. S. THOMPSON, Indiana.

1882 The National Industrial College: Its History, Work, and Ethics.—E. E. WHITE, Purdue University.
The Function of an American Manual Training School.—C. M. WOODWARD, Missouri.
Annual Report of the Secretary of the Industrial Department.—S. R. THOMPSON, Nebraska.
Dexterity before Skill.—GEORGE T. FAIRCHILD, Kansas.

1883 The Fruit of Manual Education.—C. M. WOODWARD, Missouri, president.
Moral Influence of Manual Training.—J. R. BUCHANAN, Massachusetts.
Drawing in Grammar Schools.—WALTER S. PERRY, Massachusetts.

1884 A Layman's Views of Manual Training.—AUGUSTUS JACOBSON, Illinois.
Technical and Art Education in Public Schools, as Elements of Culture.—FELIX ADLER, New York.
Hand Work in Public Schools.—JOHN M. ORDWAY, Louisiana.

1885 Report of the Progress of Industrial Education During the Year.—S. R. Thompson, Pennsylvania.
The Educational Value of Manual Training.—Charles Ham, Illinois.
Outline of Work for a Manual Training School.—Wm. F. M. Goss, Indiana.

1886 Manual Training from the Other Side.—Geo. F. Magoun, Iowa.
The Reports of this Department this year are meager and unsatisfactory.

1887 No papers, but extended discussions on various topics.

1888 Some Limitations in Industrial Training.—Geo. T. Fairchild.
A Brief Summary of the Progress of Industrial Education during the Year.—S. R. Thompson, Pennsylvania.
The Relation of Industrial and Moral Training in Our Schools.—Z. Richards, District of Columbia.
The Power and Utility of Industrial Education in Our Grammar Schools.—T. O. Crawford, California.
The Relation of Manual Training Schools to Technical Schools.—C. M. Woodward, Missouri.

1889 Ways, Means, and Maxims in Manual Training.—J. D. Walter, Kansas.
Industrial Education in the South.—B. G. Northrop, Connecticut.

1890 Classification, Nomenclature, and Practical Details of Manual Training.—C. M. Woodward, St. Louis, Missouri.

1891 The President's Opening Address—Some Definitions.—Lewis M'Louth, South Dakota.
The Teacher of Tool Work.—C. M. Woodward, Missouri.
Manual Training, and Its Place in the Educational System of Ontario.—N. Wolverton, Ontario.

1892 Education as Affected by Manual Training.—Henry M. Leipziger, New York.
The Relation of the Kindergarten to Manual Training.—Caroline T. Haven, New York.
Manual Training from the Kindergarten to the High School.—Charles A. Bennett, New York.
Sloyd as an Educational Subject.—J. M. Trybom, Massachusetts.
Business Education: Its Place in the American Curriculum.—S. S. Packard, New York.
Manual Training in New York City Schools.—Paul Hoffman, New York.

1893 No Meeting.

1894 Drawing—Its Relation to Manual Training and the Industrial Arts.—John C. Miller, Illinois.
Organizations and Plans for Manual-Training Schools.—C. M. Woodward, Missouri.
The Progress of Manual Training.—Henry M. Leipziger, New York.
The Hygienic Relation of Dress to Education.—R. Anna Morris, Iowa.
Manual-Training Methods in Philadelphia Public Schools.—J. Liberty Tadd, Pennsylvania.

1895 President's Address—The Philosophy of Manual Training.—E. R. Booth, Ohio.
The Modification of Secondary-School Courses Most Demanded by the Conditions of Today, and Most Ignored by the Committee of Ten.—Charles H. Keyes, California.
Industrial Education a Necessity of the Times.—Albert R. Robinson, Illinois.
The Effects of Manual Training.—Charles D. Larkins, New York.
A Plea for the Systematic Extension of Industrial Training from the Kindergarten to Grammar Schools.—Miss Mary A. Pinney, Connecticut.
Industrial Training as Applied to Indian Schools.—R. H. Pratt, Pennsylvania.

1896 The Need of Manual Training for Girls.—Mrs. Nellie S. Kedzie, Kansas.
Physical Effects of Sloyd.—Flora J. White, Massachusetts.
Manual Training in the Public Schools of the Smaller Cities.—Judson E. Hoyt, Wisconsin.
Manual Training and the Course of Study.—C. F. Carroll, Massachusetts.
The Aesthetic Principle in Manual Training.—Charles A. Bennett, New York.

1897 President's Address—The Head and the Hand.—Oscar Clute, Florida.
Mental Results from Manual Training.—Edward O. Sisson, Illinois.
Some Possible Relations of Normal Schools to Manual Training.—W. D. Parker, Wisconsin.

1898 Education for the Industrial Classes.—J. L. Snyder, Michigan.
Domestic Science as a Synthetic Study for Girls.—Mrs. Ellen H. Richards, Massachusetts.
Manual Training in Horticulture.—William R. Lazenby, Ohio.
Report of Committee on Hindrances and Helps to Manual Training and Industrial Education.—George A. Robbins, Illinois, chairman.

1899 The Teacher in the Manual-Training School.—Walter A. Edwards, California.
The Educational Value of Metal-Working.—Vinton S. Paessler, New York.
Constructive Work in the Elementary Schools.—Gertrude E. English, Illinois.
Correlation of Manual Training with Other Branches of Study.—James E. Addicott, California.
The Manual-Training System of Los Angeles.—Annette Johnson, California.

1900 Teaching Trades in Connection with the Public Schools.—Charles F. Warner, Massachusetts.
Character, Content, and Purpose of High-School Courses in Manual Training.—B. A. Lenfest, Massachusetts.
Manual Training for the Ordinary High School.—James H. Van Sickle, Maryland.

1901 Textile Arts as Constructive Work in Elementary Schools.—Clara Isabel Mitchell, Illinois.
Artistic Handicraft in Primary and Intermediate Grades.—Helen M. Maxwell, Minnesota.
The Relation of Manual Training to Technical Education.—V. G. Curtis, Ohio.
Education for the Trades in America—What Can Technical High Schools Do for It.—Charles F. Warner, Massachusetts.

1902 From the Practical to the Intellectual in the Shop.—Arthur W. Richards, New York.
The Field of Shop-Work in the Elementary School.—J. E. Painter, Minnesota.
Possibilities of Art Education in Relation to Manual Training.—Ernest F. Fenellosa, Alabama.
Practical Co-operation between Art and Manual Training.—Harold Peyser, New York.

1903 Education for the Trades: From the Standpoint of the Manufacturer.—Milton P. Higgins, Massachusetts.
The Demand for Trade Schools: From the Educator's Point of View.—Arthur Henry Chamberlain, California.
The Organization of Trade Schools: From the Point of View of a School Superintendent.—Thomas M. Balliet, Massachusetts.
The Organization of Trade Schools: From the Point of View of a Trade-School Director.—Arthur L. Williston, New York.
The Attitude of Trade Unions toward Trade Schools.—William H. Sayward, Massachusetts.
Craftsmanship in Education.—Leslie W. Miller, Pennsylvania.
Art Instruction as Related to Manual Work.—Alfred Vance Churchill, New York.
Indian Basketry—Its Poetry and Symbolism.—George Wharton James, California.
Manual Training in the Elementary School.—Elizabeth Euphrosyne Langley, Illinois.
The Boy and His Handicraft at Home.—George H. Bryant, Rhode Island.
Hand-Work for High-School Girls.—Abby L. Marlatt, Rhode Island.
Manual Training versus the Manual Arts.—James Parton Haney, New York.

1904 The Constructive Idea in Education.—Wilbur S. Jackman, Illinois.
Manual Training in Sweden.—Carl Lidman, of the Swedish Commission.
Reports on Work as Shown by Exhibits.—Various Authors.
Manual-Training High Schools or Manual Training in High Schools.—Charles B. Gilbert, New York.
What May Be Done for Manual Training in Country Schools?—Alfred Bayliss, Illinois.
Progress of the South, as Shown by Exhibits.—Brown Ayres, Louisiana.

1905 President's Address—The Problems That Perplex.—Arthur Henry Chamberlain, California.
How Can Class Teachers Be Educated to the Value of Manual Training?—F. M. McMurry, New York.

1906 Industrial Training in Public Evening Schools.—CHARLES F. WARNER, Massachusetts.

The Necessity for Special Manual-Training High Schools.—CHARLES H. KEYES, Connecticut.

Forms and Limitations of Handwork for Girls in the High School.—KATHARINE E. DOPP, Illinois.

1906 No Meeting.

THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION

HISTORICAL SKETCH

The first recorded suggestion of a National Council of Education in this country is to be found in the editorial columns of the *National Journal of Education*, of Boston, in the issue of July 24, 1879, from the pen of the founder and editor of that journal, Hon. Thomas W. Bicknell. In a column article, Mr. Bicknell set forth various reasons for the formation of a Congress or Council of Education, outlined its constitution as a representative body, holding annual or biennial meetings, discussing questions involving the principles and philosophy of education, and sustaining an advisory relation to state and national systems of education. In several subsequent issues of that journal, editorials appeared, setting forth more fully the scope of the proposed Council and soliciting the opinions of American educators. Articles also appeared from correspondents in different parts of the country indorsing the proposed Council and offering valuable suggestions as to its structure, purposes, and relations to the educational world. In the autumn of 1879 several state organizations passed resolutions in favor of a National Council. As time passed, many prominent educators wrote and spoke favorably of the project—notably E. E. White, of Ohio; W. F. Phelps, of Minnesota; Samuel Eliot, of Boston; W. T. Harris, of St. Louis; John Hancock and A. J. Rickoff, of Ohio; W. E. Sheldon, of Boston; B. G. Northrop, of Connecticut; J. P. Wickersham of Pennsylvania, and others.

So much interest had been awakened in the matter of a Council, that Mr. Bicknell was invited to read a paper before the Superintendents' Section of the National Educational Association at Washington, D. C., in February, 1880, on "A National Council of Education." The report of that meeting states that Mr. Bicknell discussed the work of existing organizations, urged the need of a more careful and deliberate examination of educational questions by a body of experts in the science and art of education; quoted the opinions of leading men in all parts of the country favoring such a body; showed some of the advantages to be derived, and recommended the formation of such a Council at Chautauqua, N. Y. at the next session of the National Educational Association. The features of the work of the Council, he argued, would be instigational, scientific, and deliberative; its prerogative, only advisory and recommendatory, bearing the weight of the well-matured convictions of the best teachers and wisest educators.

The discussion which followed was participated in by W. T. Harris, of Missouri; J. P. Wickersham, of Pennsylvania; A. P. Marble and D. B. Hagar, of Massachusetts; Aaron Gove, of Colorado; H. S. Tarbell and J. H. Smart, of Indiana; G. J. Orr, of Georgia, and others, all of whom favored the formation of a Council and presented various suggestions as to its formation and work. On motion, it was voted that a committee be appointed to prepare a plan of organization to be reported to the board of directors of the N. E. A. at Chautauqua, N. Y., in July, 1880.

This committee consisted of Messrs. Bicknell, of Massachusetts, chairman; Wilson, of Washington; Wickersham, of Pennsylvania; Harris, of Missouri; Hagar, of Massachusetts; Tarbell, of Indiana; Pendleton, of Ohio; Shepard, of Maryland; Gove, of Colorado; Orr, of Georgia; and Smart of Indiana. This committee, after long and careful discussion of various methods of organizations, made a report, through its chairman to the Directors of the N. E. A. at Chautauqua, N. Y., on July 14, 1880, which,

after discussion by the board, was unanimously approved and recommended to the N. E. A. for adoption. This report is not presented here since its essential recommendations were all embodied in the Constitution which follows.

The report of the Committee on a National Council of Education was received by the Association from the board of directors, and adopted unanimously. Subsequently members were elected in accordance with the recommendations of the report of the Committee on Organization. These members met and elected James McCosh, of New Jersey, as temporary chairman, and Thomas W. Bicknell, of Massachusetts, as secretary. The following constitution was then adopted:

CONSTITUTION AND BY-LAWS

PREAMBLE. In order to consider educational questions of general interest and of public importance, and to formulate such conclusions as may be reached, the National Council of Education is organized within the National Educational Association, and adopts the following constitution:

Article 1. This organization shall be called the National Council of Education.

Art. 2. Any member of the Association identified with educational work is eligible to membership in the Council, and after the first election such membership shall continue for six years, except as hereinafter provided.

Art. 3. At the first election of members to this Council, the several departments, namely, the Elementary, the Higher, the Normal, the Superintendents, and the Industrial, shall elect three members each. The directors of the Association shall elect twelve other members and the Council thus constituted of 27 members shall elect 24 additional members, making the total number of the Council 51 persons.

Art. 4. The term of service of the several members of the Council chosen at the first election shall be arranged by the executive committee of the Council.

Art. 5. At all subsequent elections each of the several departments shall elect biennially one member. The directors shall elect annually two members, and the Council shall elect annually four members, who shall hold office for six years, or until their successors are appointed.

Art. 6. The annual election of members of the Council shall be held in connection with the annual meetings of the Association. If any department of the Association or the board of directors shall fail for any reason to fill its quota of members annually, the vacancy or vacancies shall be filled by the Council.

Art. 7. The Council shall hold an annual meeting in connection with the meeting of the Association, and such other meetings as may be provided for by vote of the Council.

Art. 8. If a member fail to attend the annual meetings of the Council for two consecutive years, his place shall be considered vacant, unless he be excused by a two-thirds vote of the Council. A vacancy caused by absence, by death, or for any other cause, shall be filled by the Council.

Art. 9. No state shall be represented by more than eight members in the Council.

Art. 10. The officers of the Council shall be a President, a Vice-President, and a Secretary. An executive committee, consisting of the three officers above named and four other members, shall be appointed, and such other committees as may from time to time be necessary. The three officers and the other members of the Executive Committee shall be elected annually, at the time and place of the annual meeting of the Association, and shall continue in office until their successors are chosen. It shall be one of the duties of the Executive Committee to make an annual report of the doings of the Association.

Art. 11. This constitution may be altered or amended at a regular meeting, by the unanimous consent of the members present, or by a two-thirds vote of the members present, in case such alteration or amendment has been proposed in writing at a previous regular meeting, and any provision may be waived, at any regular meeting, by unanimous consent.

Art. 12. By-laws not in violation of this constitution may be adopted by a two-thirds vote of the Council.

MEMBERS

Israel W. Andrews, Marietta, O.
Henry Barnard, Hartford, Conn.
Newton Bateman, Galesburg, Ill.
Grace C. Bibb, Columbia, Mo.
Thomas W. Bicknell, Boston, Mass.
Anna C. Brackett, New York City.
Edward Brooks, Millersville, Pa.
N. A. Calkins, New York City.
D. N. Camp, New Britain, Conn.
A. L. Chapin, Beloit, Wis.

J. W. Dickinson, Boston, Mass.
John Eaton, Washington, D. C.
W. W. Folwell, Minneapolis, Minn.
D. C. Gilman, Baltimore, Md.
Aaron Gove, Denver, Colo.
S. S. Greene, Providence, R. I.
J. M. Gregory, Urbana, Ill.
W. T. Harris, St. Louis, Mo.
John Hancock, Dayton, O.
W. D. Henkle, Salem, O.
D. B. Hagar, Salem, Mass.
E. C. Hewett, Normal, Ill.
Ellen Hyde, Framingham, Mass.
E. S. Joynes, Knoxville, Tenn.
F. A. March, Easton, Pa.
Lemuel Moss, Bloomington, Ind.
A. P. Marble, Worcester, Mass.
James McCosh, Princeton, N. J.
W. A. Mowry, Providence, R. I.
M. A. Newell, Baltimore, Md.
B. G. Northrop, Hartford, Conn.
Edward Olney, Ann Arbor, Mich.
G. J. Orr, Atlanta, Ga.
John B. Peaslee, Cincinnati, O.
W. F. Phelps, Winona, Minn.
John D. Philbrick, Boston, Mass.
J. L. Pickard, Iowa City, Ia.
A. J. Rickoff, Cleveland, O.
C. C. Rounds, Farmington, Me.
W. H. Ruffner, Richmond, Va.
H. E. Shepard, Baltimore, Md.
J. H. Smart, Indianapolis, Ind.
F. Louis Soldan, St. Louis, Mo.
E. T. Tappan, Gambier, O.
H. S. Tarbell, Indianapolis, Ind.
H. S. Thompson, Columbia, S. C.
C. O. Thompson, Worcester, Mass.
S. R. Thompson, Lincoln, Neb.
E. E. White, Lafayette, Ind
J. P. Wickersham, Harrisburg, Pa.
J. O. Wilson, Washington, D. C.

At 11:00 A. M., on Friday, July 16, the Council met on the call of the president, when the Committee on Nominations presented the following names for officers for 1880, and they were elected.

President.—Thomas W. Bicknell, Massachusetts.
Vice-President.—James McCosh, New Jersey.
Secretary.—F. Louis Soldan, Missouri.
Executive Committee (with the above).—J. P. Wickersham, Pennsylvania; E. E. White, Indiana; Anna C. Brackett, New York; Wm. H. Ruffner, Virginia.

It was voted to publish a circular containing a statement of the purposes of the Council, the report of the committee, the constitution, and a list of members. It was also voted to hold the first meeting in connection with, but prior to, the next annual meeting of the National Educational Association. The Council of Education then adjourned.

The Constitution of the Council has been variously amended since organization, as may be determined by reference to the annual volumes of *Proceedings* since 1880.

CONSTITUTION[1]

PREAMBLE

The National Council of Education shall have for its object the consideration and discussion of educational questions of general interest and public importance, and the presentation, thru printed reports, of the substance of the discussions and the conclusions formulated. It shall be its object to reach and disseminate correct thinking on educational questions; and, for this purpose, it shall be the aim of the Council, in conducting its discussions, to define and state with accuracy the different views and theories on the subject under consideration, and, secondly, to discover and represent fairly the grounds and reasons for each theory or view, so far as to show, as completely as possible, the genesis of opinion on the subject. It shall be the duty of the Council, in pursuance of this object, to encourage from all its members the most careful statement of differences in opinion, together with the completest statement of grounds for the same. It shall further require the careful preservation and presentation of the individual differences of opinion, whenever grounds have been furnished for the same by members of the Council. It shall invite the freest discussion and embody the new suggestions developed by such discussions. Any member making such suggestion or objection may put in writing his view, and the grounds therefor, and furnish the same to the secretary for the records of the Council. It shall prepare, thru its president, an annual report to the National Educational Association, setting forth the questions considered by the Council during the previous year, and placing before the Association, in succinct form, the work accomplished. It shall embody in this report a survey of those educational topics which seem to call for any action on the part of the Association. The Council shall appoint, out of its own number,

[1] Including all amendments to 1907.

committees representing the several departments of education, and thereby facilitate the exchange of opinion among its members on such special topics as demand the attention of the profession or of the public.

ARTICLE I—MEMBERSHIP

1. The National Council of Education shall consist of sixty members, selected from the membership of the National Educational Association. Any member of the Association identified with educational work is eligible to membership in the Council, and, after the first election, such membership shall continue for six years, except as hereinafter provided.

2. In the year 1885 the Board of Directors shall elect eight members—four members for six years, two for four years, and two for two years, and the Council shall elect eight members—five members for six years, two for four years, and one for two years; and annually thereafter the Board of Directors shall elect five members and the Council five members, each member, with the exception hereinafter provided for (sec. 5), to serve six years, or until his successor is elected.

3. The annual election of members of the Council shall be held in connection with the annual meetings of the Association. If the Board of Directors shall fail, for any reason, to fill its quota of members annually, the vacancy or vacancies shall be filled by the Council.

4. The term of service of the several members of the Council chosen at the first election shall be arranged by the Executive Committee of the Council.

5. The absence of a member from two consecutive annual meetings of the Council shall be considered equivalent to resignation of membership, and the Council shall fill vacancies caused by absence from the Council as herein defined, as well as vacancies caused by death or resignation, for the unexpired term. All persons who have belonged to the Council shall, on the expiration of their membership, become honorary members, with the privilege of attending its regular sessions and participating in its discussions. No state shall be represented in the Council by more than eight members.

ARTICLE II—QUALIFICATION FOR MEMBERSHIP

All members of the Council shall be either life or active members of the National Educational Association.

ARTICLE III—MEETINGS

There shall be a regular annual meeting of the Council held at the same place as the meeting of the National Educational Association, and at least two days previous to this meeting. There may be special meetings of the Council, subject to the call of the Executive Committee, but the attendance at these meetings shall be entirely voluntary. A majority of the Council shall constitute a quorum for the transaction of business at any meeting, whether regular or called; but any less number, exceeding eight members, may constitute a quorum for the transaction of business at the regular annual meeting, as defined in this article.

ARTICLE IV—THE WORK OF THE COUNCIL

The Council shall, from time to time, undertake to initiate, conduct, and guide the thoro investigation of important educational questions originating in the Council; also to conduct like investigations originating in the National Educational Association, or any of its departments, and requiring the expenditure of funds.

ARTICLE V—THE APPOINTMENT OF SPECIAL COMMITTEES AND EXPERTS

In the appointment of special committees, and in the selection of writers and speakers, it shall be the privilege of the Council to appoint such experts, whether members of the Council or not, as are deemed best qualified to conduct investigations.

ARTICLE VI—OFFICERS

At the annual election of officers in 1904 the president of the Council shall be elected for a term of three years, the vice-president for a term of two years, and the secretary for a term of one year; and thereafter annually the vacancy caused by the outgoing officers shall be filled by the election of one person for a term of three years.

It shall be the duty of the president of the Council to prepare, with the assistance and approval of the Executive Committee, such a program for the annual meeting as shall realize as fully as practicable the purposes for which the Council was organized and exists.

ARTICLE VII—STANDING COMMITTEES

1. There shall be four standing committees: an Executive Committee, a Committee on Membership, a Committee on Educational Progress, and a Committee on Investigations and Appropriations.

2. The Executive Committee shall be composed of the president of the Council and of three other members, whose terms of office shall be so arranged that one new member may be chosen each year, beginning with the year 1899.

3. It shall be the duty of the Executive Committee to provide an annual program by selecting, whenever feasible, subjects for investigation, and appointing committees to conduct such investigations. It shall be the duty of the Executive Committee to carry out the provisions contained in this constitution referring to volunteer and invited papers. It shall be the duty of the Executive Committee to provide a place on the program for the report on any investigation which may be ordered by the National Educational Association or its departments.

4. The Committee on Membership shall be composed of the president of the Council and six other members, whose terms of office shall be so arranged that two vacancies may be filled every year, beginning with 1899.

5. There shall be appointed annually a committee of one to submit, at the next meeting, a report on "Educational Progress during the Past Year," in which a survey of the important movements and events in education during the preceding year is given. This committee need not be selected from the members of the Council.

6. The Committee on Investigations and Appropriations shall be composed of nine members, whose terms of office shall be so arranged that three vacancies may be filled each year, beginning with 1903. No proposal to appoint a committee to undertake an educational investigation of any kind, and no proposal to ask the Board of Directors of the Association for an appropriation for any purpose, shall be acted upon until such proposal has been referred to this Committee on Investigations and Appropriations for report.

ARTICLE VIII—THE DUTIES OF THE COUNCIL

1. It shall be the duty of the Council to further the objects of the National Educational Association, and to use its best efforts to promote the cause of education in general.

2. The meetings of the Council shall be, for the most part, of a "round table" character.

ARTICLE IX—AMENDMENTS

This constitution may be altered or amended at a regular meeting of the Council, by a two-thirds vote of the members present, and any provision may be waived at any regular meeting by unanimous consent.

By-laws not in violation of the constitution may be adopted by a two-thirds vote of the Council.

EXECUTIVE OFFICERS OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FROM 1881–1907

1881 ATLANTA, GA.
Pres., T. W. Bicknell, Boston, Mass.
V.-Pres., James McCosh, Princeton, N. J.
Sec., F. Louis Soldan, St. Louis, Mo.

1882 SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
Pres., T. W. Bicknell, Boston, Mass.
V.-Pres., J. P. Wickersham, Lancaster, Pa.
Sec. E. E. White, Lafayette, Ind.

1883 SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
Pres., Thomas W. Bicknell, Boston, Mass.
V.-Pres., E. E. White, Lafayette, Ind.
Sec., C. C. Rounds, Farmington, Me.

1884 MADISON, WIS.
Pres., E. E. White, Lafayette, Ind.
V.-Pres., T. W. Bicknell, Boston, Mass.
Sec., A. G. Boyden, Bridgewater, Mass.

1885 SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
Pres., E. E. White, Cincinnati, O.
V.-Pres., Daniel B. Hagar, Salem, Mass.
Sec., George P. Brown, Terre Haute, Ind.

1886 TOPEKA, KANS.
Pres., Daniel B. Hagar, Salem, Mass.
V.-Pres., H. S. Jones, Erie, Pa.
Sec. and Treas., George P Brown, Terre Haute, Ind.

1887 CHICAGO, ILL.
Pres., Daniel B. Hagar, Salem, Mass.
V.-Pres., H. S. Jones, Erie, Pa.
Sec., E. W. Coy, Cincinnati, O.

1888 SAN FRANCISCO, CAL.
Pres., J. L. Pickard, Iowa City, Ia.
V.-Pres., C. C. Rounds, Plymouth, N. H.
Sec., E. W. Coy, Cincinnati, O.

1889 NASHVILLE, TENN.
Pres., J. L. Pickard, Iowa City. Ia.
V.-Pres., W. T. Harris, Concord, Mass.
Sec., Mary E. Nicholson, Indianapolis, Ind.

1890 ST. PAUL, MINN.
Pres., Selim H. Peabody, Champaign. Ill.
V.-Pres., George Howland, Chicago, Ill.
Sec., D. L. Kiehle, St. Paul, Minn.

1891 TORONTO, ONT.
Pres., Selim H. Peabody, Champaign, Ill.
V.-Pres., George Howland, Chicago, Ill.
Sec., D. L. Kiehle, St. Paul, Minn.

1892 SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
Pres., James H. Baker, Denver, Colo.
V.-Pres., E. W. Coy, Cincinnati, O.
Sec., N. C. Schaeffer, Kutztown, Penn.

1893 No Meeting

1894 ASBURY PARK, N. J.
Pres., E. W. Coy, Cincinnati, O.
V.-Pres., F. A. Fitzpatrick, Omaha, Neb.
Sec., Chas DeGarmo, Swarthmore, Pa.

1895 DENVER, COLO.
Pres., C. C. Rounds, Plymouth, N. H.
V.-Pres., E. Oram Lyte, Millersville, Pa.
Sec., N. C. Dougherty Peoria, Ill.

1896 BUFFALO, N. Y.
Pres., H. S. Tarbell, Providence, R. I.
V.-Pres., Earl Barnes, Stanford Univ., Cal.
Sec., Bettie A. Dutton, Cleveland, O.

1897 MILWAUKEE, WIS.
Pres., B. A. Hinsdale, Ann Arbor, Mich.
V.-Pres., Chas. DeGarmo, Swarthmore, Pa.
Sec., Bettie A. Dutton, Cleveland, O.

1898 WASHINGTON, D. C.
Pres., Chas. DeGarmo, Swarthmore, Pa.
V.-Pres., Wm. F. King, Mt. Vernon, Ia.
Sec., Bettie A. Dutton, Cleveland, O.

1899 LOS ANGELES, CAL.
Pres., A. R. Taylor, Emporia, Kans.
V.-Pres., J. H. Van Sickle, Denver, Colo.
Sec., Bettie A. Dutton, Cleveland, O.

1900 CHARLESTON, S. C.
Pres., F. Louis Soldan, St. Louis, Mo.
V.-Pres., Elmer E. Brown, Berkeley, Cal.
Sec., Bettie A. Dutton, Cleveland, O.

1901 DETROIT, MICH.
Pres., C. M. Jordan, Minneapolis, Minn.
V.-Pres., Bettie A. Dutton, Cleveland, O.
Sec., J. H. Phillips, Birmingham, Ala.

1902 MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.
Pres., J. H. Phillips, Birmingham, Ala.
V.-Pres., Mary E. Nicholson, Indianapolis, Ind.
Sec., Jesse F. Millspaugh, Winona, Minn.

1903 BOSTON, MASS.
Pres., William R. Harper, Chicago, Ill.
V.-Pres., W. H. Bartholomew Louisville, Ky.
Sec., J. F. Millspaugh, Winona, Minn.

1904 ST. LOUIS, MO.
Pres., Frank A. Fitzpatrick, Boston, Mass.
V.-Pres., Joseph Swain, Swarthmore, Pa.
Sec., J. H. Van Sickle, Baltimore, Md.

1905 ASBURY PARK AND OCEAN GROVE, N. J.
Pres., Elmer E. Brown, Berkeley, Cal.
V.-Pres., N. C. Schaeffer, Harrisburg, Pa.
Sec., J. W. Carr, Anderson, Ind.

1906 No Meeting

1907 LOS ANGELES, CAL.
Pres., Elmer E. Brown, Berkeley, Cal.
V.-Pres., A. S. Downing, Albany, N. Y.
Sec., J. W. Carr, Dayton, O.

MEMBERSHIP IN THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FROM 1880–1907

WITH TERMS OF SERVICE CLASSIFIED BY STATES

(A) indicates appointment by the Association; (C) indicates appointment by the Council; (see Constitution of Council, Art. I). The intervals between the years named indicate the separate terms of service.

		TERMS OF SERVICE	YEARS OF SERVICE
ALABAMA			
Julia S. Tutwiler	(C)	1883–1885	2
N. R. H. Dawson	(C)	1888–1891	3
J. H. Phillips	(A)	1894–1900–1906	..
CALIFORNIA			
John Swett	(C)	1883–1884; also 1888–1890	3
Ira G. Hoitt	(C)	1888–1891	3
G. H. Howison	(C)	1888–1889	1
Lillie J. Martin	(A)	1889–1892	3[1]
Earl Barnes	(A)	1894–1897–1898	4
Charles H. Keyes	(C)	1895–1898	3[2]
Elmer E. Brown	(C)	1896–1897–1903–1909	..
Edward T. Pierce	(C)	1899–1901	2
James A. Foshay	(A)	1899–1900–1904	5
Jesse F. Millspaugh	(A)	1904–1908	..[3]
C. C. Van Liew	(A)	1905–1906	..
COLORADO			
Aaron Gove	(C)	1880–1882–1888–1894–1900–1906	..
James H. Baker	(C)	1886–1888–1894–1900–1906	..
James H. Van Sickle	(C)	1896–1898–1901	5[4]
Lewis C. Greenlee	(C)	1900–1905–1911	..
Z. X. Snyder	(C)	1901–1905–1911	..
CONNECTICUT			
David N. Camp	(A)	1880–1890	10
B. G. Northrop	(A)	1880–1882	2
Henry Barnard	(C)	1880–1885	5
Charles H. Keyes	(C)	1889–1901–1907	..[5]
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA			
John Eaton	(A)	1880–1888; also 1892–1894	10[6]
J. Ormond Wilson	(A)	1880–1882	2
Zalmon Richards	(C)	1885–1888–1894–1897	12
W. T. Harris	(A)	1889–1891–1897–1903–1909	..[2 7]
William B. Powell	(C)	1900–1901	1
Anna Tolman Smith	(C)	1902–1904–1910	.
Alexander Graham Bell	(C)	1902–1903–1904	2

[1] See Indiana.
[2] See Massachusetts.
[3] See Minnesota and Utah.
[4] See Maryland.
[5] See Massachusetts and Californa.
[6] See Ohio and Tennessee.
[7] See Massachusetts and Missouri.

GEORGIA			
G. J. Orr	(A)	1880–1882–1886	6
W. R. Thigpen	(A)	1889–1890–1892	3
Euler B. Smith	(C)	1892–1896–1898	6
ILLINOIS			
J. M. Gregory	(A)	1880–1882	2
E. C. Hewett	(A)	1880–1890–1896–1899	10
Newton Bateman	(C)	1880–1882	2
S. H. Peabody	(C)	1884–1887–1893–1896	12
F. W. Parker	(C)	1882–1886; also 1900–1902	6
Robert Allyn	(A)	1885–1891	6
George Howland	(C)	1887–1890–1892	5
Newton C. Dougherty	(C)	1888–1892–1898–1904–1905	17
George P. Brown	(C)	1887–1889–1895–1901–1902	15[1]
Charles DeGarmo	(C)	1891–1892	1[2]
John W. Cook	(C)	1892–1896–1900; also 1904–1910	..
Charles A. McMurry	(A)	1894–1896–1899	5
A. S. Draper	(C)	1894–1898–1900; also 1903–1904	8[3]
John Dewey	(C)	1896–1899; also 1901–1904	6
Albert G. Lane	(A)	1896–1902–1906	10
J. E. Bradley	(A)	1894–1897	3[4]
William R. Harper	(A)	1897–1903–1906	9
Arnold Tompkins	(A)	1899–1900	1
O. S. Westcott	(C)	1900–1902–1908	..
A. R. Taylor	(A)	1901–1907	..[5]
J. L. Spalding	(C)	1902–1904	2
Ella F. Young	(A)	1903–1905	2
L. C. Lord	(A)	1903–1906	..
Edwin G. Cooley	(A)	1905–1909	..
INDIANA			
J. H. Smart	(A)	1880–1885–1888	8
H. S. Tarbell	(C)	1880–1884–1888	8[6]
Lemuel Moss	(C)	1880–1886	6
George P. Brown	(C)	1882–1887	5[7]
C. O. Thompson	(A)	1882–1885 (died 1885)	3[8]
W. N. Hailmann	(C)	1885–1891–1894	9
L. S. Thompson	(C)	1885–1889	4[9]
Mary A. Nicholson	(C)	1886–1887–1893–1899	13
John S. Irwin	(C)	1886–1890–1894	8
S. S. Parr	(C)	1888–1889	1[10]
Lillie J. Martin	(C)	1888–1889	1[11]
Lewis H. Jones	(C)	1890–1891–1894	4[12]
W. W. Parsons	(A)	1891–1892	1
R. G. Boone	(A)	1892–1894	2[13]
William L. Bryan	(C)	1895–1898; also 1905–1908	..
Joseph Swain	(C)	1899–1903	4[14]
John W. Carr	(C)	1900–1905	5[15]
Calvin N. Kendall	(A)	1904–1906	..
Miss N. Cropsey	(C)	1905–1909	..
IOWA			
J. L. Pickard	(C)	1880–1885–1891	11
W. F. King	(C)	1886–1889–1895–1901–1904	18
Henry Sabin	(A)	1889–1893–1899	10
H. H. Seerley	(C)	1891–1894–1900	9
KANSAS			
George T. Fairchild	(A)	1885–1891–1894	9[16]
Frank A. Fitzpatrick	(C)	1886–1887–1892	6[17]
James H. Canfield	(A)	1886–1891	5[18]
A. R. Taylor	(A)	1892–1895–1901	9[19]
W. M. Davidson	(C)	1899–1902–1904	5[17]
J. N. Wilkinson	(C)	1904–1906	..
KENTUCKY			
W. H. Bartholomew	(A)	1890–1893–1899–1905–1911	..
George T. Fairchild	(A)	1898–1900	2[20]
E. H. Mark	(A)	1903–1907	..
LOUISIANA			
Edwin A. Alderman	(A)	1900–1902–1904	4[21]
John M. Ordway	(A)	1885–1889	4
MAINE			
C. C. Rounds	(A)	1880–1882	2[22]
Wm. J. Corthell	(C)	1886–1888	2

[1] See Indiana.
[2] See Pennsylvania.
[3] See New York and Ohio.
[4] See Minnesota.
[5] See Kansas.
[6] See Rhode Island.
[7] See Illinois.
[8] See Massachusetts.
[9] See New Jersey.
[10] See Minnesota.
[11] See California.
[12] See Ohio and Michigan.
[13] See Michigan and New York.
[14] See Pennsylvania.
[15] See Ohio.
[16] See Kentucky.
[17] See Nebraska.
[18] See Nebraska, Ohio, and New York.
[19] See Illinois.
[20] See Kansas.
[21] See North Carolina and Virginia.
[22] See New Hampshire and New York.

MARYLAND			
M. A. Newell	(C)	1880–1883	3
Henry A. Shepherd	(C)	1880–1882	2
Daniel C. Gilman	(C)	1880–1884	4
G. Stanley Hall	(C)	1882–1888	6
James H. Van Sickle	(C)	1901–1904–1910	..[1]
MASSACHUSETTS			
Thomas W. Bicknell	(A)	1880–1887–1889	9
J. W. Dickinson	(A)	1880–1886–1890; also 1891–1895	14
A. P. Marble	(A)	1880–1884	4
C. O. Thompson	(A)	1880–1882	2[2]
J. D. Philbrick	(C)	1880–1885	5
Ellen Hyde	(C)	1880–1882	2
D. B. Hagar	(C)	1880–1884–1890–1891	11
W. T. Harris	(A)	1885–1889	4[3]
William E. Sheldon	(C)	1883–1888–1894–1900	17
J. C. Greenough	(C)	1882–1884–1885	3
A. G. Boyden	(A)	1882–1889	7
Larkin Dunton	(A)	1882–1884–1887	5
W. A. Mowry	(C)	1887–1893–1898	11[4]
John T. Prince	(A)	1891–1894	3
Charles W. Eliot	(A)	1892–1895	3
Frank A. Fitzpatrick	(A)	1895–1899–1905–1911	..[5]
Paul H. Hanus	(C)	1898–1899–1900	2
Charles H. Keyes	(C)	1898–1899	1[6]
Frank A. Hill	(C)	1900–1903	3
William E. Hatch	(C)	1904–1907	..
George H. Martin	(C)	1904–1906	..
MICHIGAN			
W. H. Payne	(C)	1882–1886–1888	6[7]
B. A. Hinsdale	(C)	1888–1892–1898–1900	12
R. G. Boone	(A)	1894–1898–1903	9[8]
L. H. Jones	(C)	1902–1903–1909	..[9]
MINNESOTA			
William F. Phelps	(A)	1880–1882	2
W. W. Folwell	(A)	1880–1886	6
D. L. Kiehle	(C)	1885–1887–1893–1899–1900	15
J. E. Bradley	(A)	1890–1891–1894	4[10]
S. S. Parr	(A)	1889–1891	2
Irwin Shepard	(C)	1894–1900–1904	10
Charles B. Gilbert	(A)	1894–1896	2[11]
Charles M. Jordan	(C)	1896–1902–1905	9
J. F. Millspaugh	(A)	1899–1902–1904	5[12]
R. E. Denfeld	(A)	1902–1905	3
MISSISSIPPI			
J. R. Preston	(A)	1894–1899	5
R. B. Fulton	(A)	1899–1901–1903	4
MISSOURI			
W. T. Harris	(A)	1880–1885	5[13]
Grace Bibb Sudborough	(A)	1880–1882	2
F. Louis Soldan	(A)	1880–1886–1892–1898–1904–1910	..
J. M. Greenwood	(A)	1885–1887–1893–1899–1905–1911	..
C. M. Woodward	(C)	1888–1891–1896	8
John T. Buchanan	(C)	1895–1896	1
William H. Black	(C)	1899–1903–1909	..
Mrs. Josephine Heermans	(C)	1900–1904–1910	..
A. Ross Hill	(C)	1904–1910	..
John R. Kirk	(A)	1905–1908	..
NEBRASKA			
S. R. Thompson	(C)	1880–1884–1886	6
H. M. James	(C)	1884–1885–1889–1895	11
J. H. Canfield	(A)	1891–1892–1895	4[14]
Frank A. Fitzpatrick	(A)	1892–1893–1895	3[15]
H. S. Jones	(A)	1890–1894	4[16]
H. K. Wolfe	(A)	1894–1895	1
Carroll G. Pearse	(A)	1900–1904	4[17]
W. M. Davidson	(C)	1904–1908	..[18]
W. K. Fowler	(C)	1904–1907	..
NEW HAMPSHIRE			
C. C. Rounds	(A)	1882–1888–1894–1897	15[19]

[1] See Colorado.
[2] See Indiana.
[3] See Missouri and District of Columbia.
[4] See Rhode Island.
[5] See Nebraska and Kansas.
[6] See Connecticut and California.
[7] See Tennessee.
[8] See Indiana and New York.
[9] See Ohio and Indiana
[10] See Illinois
[11] See New Jersey and New York.
[12] See Utah and California.
[13] See Massachusetts and District of Columbia.
[14] See Kansas and Ohio and New York.
[15] See Kansas and Massachusetts.
[16] See Pennsylvania.
[17] See Wisconsin.
[18] See Kansas.
[19] See Maine and New York.

NEW JERSEY			
James McCosh	(A)	1880–1882	2
W. N. Barringer	(A)	1884–1887–1889	5
L. S. Thompson	(A)	1889–1891	3[1]
Nicholas Murray Butler	(C)	1891–1897	6[2]
James M. Green	(A)	1894–1895–1901–1907	..
Charles B. Gilbert	(A)	1896–1897–1901	5[3]
NEW YORK			
N. A. Calkins	(A)	1880–1886–1892–1895	15
Anna C. Brackett	(C)	1880–1882	2
Matilda S. Cooper	(A)	1882–1888	6
J. H. Hoose	(C)	1882–1888–1894	12
A. J. Rickoff	(A)	1884–1890–1896	12[4]
Thomas Hunter	(C)	1887–1888	1
A. S. Draper	(C)	1889–1892; also 1904–1907	..[5]
William H. Maxwell	(C)	1891–1892–1898–1900; also 1905–1909	..
Henry M. Leipziger	(A)	1894–1895	1
S. G. Williams	(C)	1894–1897–1899	5
J. G. Schurman	(A)	1895–1897	2
Augustus S. Downing	(A)	1895–1901–1907	..
Walter L. Hervey	(A)	1896–1898	2
Edward R. Shaw	(C)	1896–1900; also 1901–1903	6
Charles R. Skinner	(A)	1897–1903–1905	8
Nicholas Murray Butler	(C)	1897–1903–1909	..[6]
C. C. Rounds	(A)	1897–1901	4[7]
James H. Canfield	(A)	1899–1900	1[8]
James E. Russell	(C)	1900–1902–1908	..
Charles B. Gilbert	(A)	1901–1903	2[9]
Howard J. Rogers	(A)	1903–1909	..
R. G. Boone	(A)	1903–1904	1[10]
NORTH CAROLINA			
Edwin A. Alderman	(A)	1898–1900	2[11]
Charles D. McIver	(A)	1900–1901–1906	6
NORTH DAKOTA			
Homer B. Sprague	(C)	1888–1891	3
OHIO			
W. D. Henkle	(A)	1880–1882	2
John Hancock	(A)	1880–1886–1891	11
I. W. Andrews	(A)	1880–1884–1888	8
Eli T. Tappan	(A)	1880–1885–1888	8
A. J. Rickoff	(A)	1880–1884	4[12]
John B. Peaslee	(C)	1880–1886–1889	9
Emerson E. White	(A)	1880–1886–1892–1896; also 1897–1900–1902	21
R. W. Stevenson	(A)	1882–1883–1889–1893	11
E. W. Coy	(C)	1883–1884–1890–1896–1902–1905	22
B. A. Hinsdale	(C)	1885–1886–1888	3[13]
Delia L. Williams	(C)	1885–1889–1895	10
John Eaton	(A)	1888–1889–1892	4[14]
Bettie A. Dutton	(C)	1891–1895–1901–1907	..
Lucia Stickney	(C)	1894–1900–1906	..
L. H. Jones	(C)	1894–1897–1902	8[15]
A. S. Draper	(C)	1892–1894	2[16]
James H. Canfield	(A)	1895–1898–1899	4[17]
O. T. Corson	(C)	1899–1902–1904	5
Charles F. Thwing	(A)	1900–1902–1908	..
J. W. Carr	(C)	1905–1906	..[18]
OREGON			
Ella C. Sabin	(C)	1890–1892	2[19]
Frank Rigler	(A)	1898–1901	3
PENNSYLVANIA			
J. P. Wickersham	(A)	1880–1881	1
Edward Brooks	(C)	1880–1882	2
F. A. March	(C)	1880–1885	5
E. A. Singer	(A)	1882–1886	4
E. J. James	(C)	1884–1887; also 1891–1892	4
H. S. Jones	(A)	1882–1888–1890	8[20]
James MacAlister	(C)	1882–1884	2
E. E. Higbee	(A)	1885–1887–1889	4
N. C. Schaeffer	(C)	1887–1893–1899–1905–1911	..
E. Oram Lyte	(A)	1890–1893–1899–1905–1911	..
Charles DeGarmo	(C)	1892–1897–1900	8[21]
Lightner Witmer	(C)	1898–1900	2
Joseph Swain	(C)	1903–1905–1911	..[22]
M. G. Brumbaugh	(C)	1905–1908	..

[1] See Indiana.
[2] See New York.
[3] See Minnesota and New York.
[4] See Ohio.
[5] See Ohio and Illinois.
[6] See New Jersey.
[7] See New Hampshire and Maine.
[8] See Ohio, Nebraska, and Kansas.
[9] See Minnesota and New Jersey.
[10] See Michigan.
[11] See Louisiana and Virginia.
[12] See New York.
[13] See Michigan.
[14] See Tennessee and District of Columbia.
[15] See Indiana and Michigan.
[16] See New York and Illinois.
[17] See Nebraska, New York, and Kansas.
[18] See Indiana.
[19] See Wisconsin.
[20] See Nebraska.
[21] See Illinois.
[22] See Indiana.

RHODE ISLAND			
S. S. Greene	(C)	1880–1883	3
W. A. Mowry	(C)	1880–1887	7[1]
Merrick Lyon	(C)	1883–1885–1888	5
Thomas J. Morgan	(C)	1882–1885; also 1888–1891	6
T. B. Stockwell	(A)	1884–1888	4
Sarah E. Doyle	(A)	1885–1888	3
H. S. Tarbell	(C)	1888–1890–1896–1899	11[2]
SOUTH CAROLINA			
H. S. Thompson	(C)	1880–1883	3
V. C. Dibble	(C)	1883–1886	3
TENNESSEE			
Edward S. Joynes	(C)	1880–1882	2
Clara Conway	(C)	1888–1894	6
W. R. Garrett	(A)	1889–1895	6
W. H. Payne	(C)	1889–1891; also 1895–1897	4[3]
TEXAS			
Joseph Baldwin	(A)	1886–1892–1898	12
Oscar H. Cooper	(A)	1894–1900–1902	8
L. E. Wolfe	(C)	1904–1910	
UTAH			
J. F. Millspaugh	(A)	1895–1896–1899	4[4]
Vermont			
M. H. Buckham	(A)	1882–1884	2
VIRGINIA			
William H. Ruffner	(C)	1880–1882	2
George J. Ramsey	(A)	1900–1903	3
H. B. Frissell	(C)	1904–1905	1
Edwin A. Alderman	(A)	1904–1905	1[5]
J. L. M. Curry	(C)	1882–1883	1
WASHINGTON			
D. Bemis	(A)	1891–1894	3
R. H. Bingham	(C)	1900–1902	2
Frank B. Cooper	(C)	1903–1905–1911	..
WISCONSIN			
A. L. Chapin	(C)	1880–1882–1888	8
J. W. Stearns	(C)	1885–1890	5
Warren D. Parker	(C)	1890–1892	2
Ellen C. Sabin	(C)	1892–1896; also 1897–1900	7
L. D. Harvey	(A)	1894–1898–1904–1910	..
I. C. McNeill	(A)	1899–1905–1911	..
R. H. Halsey	(A)	1901–1904–1910	..
Carroll G. Pearse	(A)	1904–1910	..[6]
CANADA			
James L. Hughes	(A)	1891–1894	3

OFFICERS, STANDING COMMITTEES, MEMBERS

OFFICERS FOR 1906–1907

ELMER E. BROWN	Washington, D. C.	*President*	Term expires in 1907
AUGUSTUS S. DOWNING	Albany, N. Y.	*Vice-President*	Term expires in 1906
JOHN W. CARR	Dayton, Ohio	*Secretary*	Term expires in 1908

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

THE PRESIDENT, *ex officio*

Anna Tolman Smith	Washington, D. C.	Term expires in 1906
Howard J. Rogers	Albany, N. Y.	Term expires in 1907
James M. Greenwood	Kansas City, Mo.	Term expires in 1908

COMMITTEE ON MEMBERSHIP

W. T. Harris	Washington, D. C.	Term expires in 1906
*Albert G. Lane	Chicago, Ill.	Term expires in 1906
†Chas. D. McIver	Greensboro, N. C.	Term expires in 1907
Livingston C. Lord	Charleston, Ill.	Term expires in 1907
James M. Greenwood, *chairman*	Kansas City, Mo.	Term expires in 1908
E. Oram Lyte	Millersville, Pa.	Term expires in 1908

[1] See Massachusetts.
[2] See Indiana.
[3] See Michigan.
[4] See Minnesota and California.
[5] See Louisiana and Virginia.
[6] See Nebraska.

*Died August 26, 1906.
†Died September 17, 1906.

OFFICERS, STANDING COMMITTEES, MEMBERS—*Continued*

COMMITTEE ON INVESTIGATIONS AND APPROPRIATIONS

James M. Greenwood, *chairman*	Kansas City, Mo.	Term expires in 1906
Frank A. Fitzpatrick	Boston, Mass.	Term expires in 1906
Elmer E. Brown	Berkeley, Cal.	Term expires in 1906
Edwin A. Alderman	Charlottesville, Va.	Term expires in 1907
Augustus S. Downing	Albany, N. Y.	Term expires in 1907
Lorenzo D. Harvey	Menomonie, Wis.	Term expires in 1907
Nicholas Murray Butler	New York, N. Y.	Term expires in 1908
†Newton C. Dougherty	Peoria, Ill.	Term expires in 1908
‡William R. Harper	Chicago, Ill.	Term expires in 1908

MEMBERS

Note.—The letter "A" following a name denotes that the member is of the class elected by the Association; the letter "C," by the Council.

	Term expires
Calvin N. Kendall, Indianapolis, Ind.	A 1906
*J. H. Phillips, Birmingham, Ala.	A 1906
*Livingston C. Lord, Charleston, Ill.	A 1906
James H. Baker, Boulder, Colo.	A 1906
C. C. Van Liew, Chico, Cal.	A 1906
*Lucia Stickney, Cleveland, Ohio	C 1906
*J. N. Wilkinson, Emporia, Kans.	C 1906
Aaron Gove, Denver, Colo.	C 1906
*J. W. Carr, Dayton, Ohio	C 1906
*George H. Martin, West Lynn, Mass.	C 1906
*James M. Green, Trenton, N. J.	A 1907
*Augustus S. Downing, Albany, N. Y.	A 1907
A. R. Taylor, Decatur, Ill.	A 1907
§*Chas. D. McIver, Greenboro, N. C.	A 1907
*E. H. Mark, Louisville, Ky.	A 1907
*William E. Hatch, New Bedford, Mass.	C 1907
*Bettie A. Dutton, Cleveland, Ohio	C 1907
*Charles H. Keyes, Hartford, Conn.	C 1907
*Andrew S. Draper, Albany, N. Y.	C 1907
Wm. K. Fowler, Lincoln, Neb.	C 1907
Charles F. Thwing, Cleveland, Ohio	A 1908
¶*Albert G. Lane, Chicago, Ill.	A 1908
John R. Kirk, Kirksville, Mo.	A 1908
William L. Bryan, Bloomington, Ind.	A 1908
J. F. Millspaugh, Los Angeles, Cal.	A 1908
*W. M. Davidson, Omaha, Neb.	C 1908
Martin G. Brumbaugh, Philadelphia, Pa.	C 1908
*L. E. Wolfe, San Antonio, Tex.	C 1908
*James E. Russell, New York, N. Y.	C 1908
*Oliver S. Westcott, Chicago, Ill.	C 1908
*W. T. Harris, Washington, D. C.	A 1909
‡*William R. Harper, Chicago, Ill.	A 1909
William H. Maxwell, New York, N. Y.	A 1909
E. G. Cooley, Chicago, Ill.	A 1909
*Howard J. Rogers, Albany, N. Y.	A 1909
N. Cropsey, Indianapolis, Ind.	C 1909
*Lewis H. Jones, Ypsilanti, Mich.	C 1909
Elmer E. Brown, Washington, D. C.	C 1909
*W. H. Black, Marshall, Mo.	C 1909
Nicholas Murray Butler, New York, N. Y.	C 1909
*John W. Cook, DeKalb, Ill.	A 1910
*F. Louis Soldan, St. Louis, Mo.	A 1910
*Lorenzo D. Harvey, Menomonie, Wis.	A 1910
*R. H. Halsey, Oshkosh, Wis.	A 1910
*Carroll G. Pearse, Milwaukee, Wis.	A 1910
*Anna Tolman Smith, Washington, D. C.	C 1910
*Josephine Heermans, Kansas City, Mo.	C 1910
James H. Van Sickle, Baltimore, Md.	C 1910
*Albert Ross Hill, Columbia, Mo.	C 1910
†*Newton C. Dougherty, Peoria, Ill.	C 1910
*W. H. Bartholomew, Louisville, Ky.	A 1911
*Frank A. Fitzpatrick, Boston, Mass.	A 1911
*I. C. McNeill, Memphis, Tenn.	A 1911
*E. Oram Lyte, Millersville, Pa.	A 1911
*J. M. Greenwood, Kansas City, Mo.	A 1911
Frank B. Cooper, Seattle, Wash.	C 1911
Joseph Swain, Swarthmore, Pa.	C 1911
*Nathan C. Schaeffer, Harrisburg, Pa.	C 1911
*Lewis C. Greenlee, Denver, Colo.	C 1911
*Z. X. Snyder, Greeley, Colo.	C 1911

HONORARY MEMBERS

Edwin A. Alderman, Charlottesville, Va.
Earl Barnes, Montclair, N. J.
Alexander Graham Bell, Washington, D. C.
D. Bemis, Spokane, Wash.
Thomas W. Bicknell, Providence, R. I.
Albert G. Boyden, Bridgewater, Mass.
Anna C. Brackett, New York, N. Y.
John E. Bradley, Randolph, Mass.
Edward Brooks, Philadelphia, Pa.
Richard G. Boone, Yonkers, N. Y.
George P. Brown, Bloomington, Ill.
John T. Buchanan, New York, N. Y.
Matthew H. Buckham, Burlington, Vt.
David N. Camp, New Britain, Conn.
James N. Canfield, New York, N. Y.
Oscar H. Cooper, Abilene, Tex.
Oscar T. Corson, Columbus, Ohio.
William J. Corthell, Gorham, Maine.
E. W. Coy, Cincinnati, Ohio.
Charles DeGarmo, Ithaca, N. Y.
Robert E. Denfeld, Duluth, Minn.
V. C. Dibble, Charleston, S. C.
John Dewey, New York, N.Y.
Charles W. Eliot, Cambridge, Mass.
William W. Folwell, Minneapolis, Minn.
James A. Foshay, Los Angeles, Cal.
H. B. Frissell, Hampton, Va.
R. B. Fulton, University, Miss.
Charles B. Gilbert, New York, N. Y.
Daniel C. Gilman, Baltimore, Md.
James C. Greenough, Westfield, Mass.
W. N. Hailmann, Chicago, Ill.
G. Stanley Hall, Worcester, Mass.
Paul H. Hanus, Cambridge, Mass.
Walter L. Hervey, New York, N. Y.
J. George Hodgins, Toronto, Can.
James H. Hoose, Pasadena, Cal.
George H. Howison, Berkeley, Cal.

* Present at the Council sessions at Asbury Park and Ocean Grove, N. J., 1905, total forty-one.
† Resigned September, 1905.
§ Died September 17, 1906.
‡ Died January 10, 1906.
¶ Died August 26, 1906.

OFFICERS, STANDING COMMITTEES, MEMBERS—*Continued*

James L. Hughes, Toronto, Can.
Thomas Hunter, New York, N. Y.
Ellen Hyde, Farmington, Mass.
Edmund J. James, Champaign, Ill.
Charles M. Jordan, Minneapolis, Minn.
Edward S. Joynes, Columbia, S. C.
David L. Kiehle, Minneapolis, Minn.
William F. King, Mt. Vernon, Iowa.
Henry M. Leipziger, New York, N. Y.
James MacAlister, Philadelphia, Pa.
Francis A. March, Easton, Pa.
Lillie J. Martin, Stanford Univ., Cal.
Charles A. McMurry, DeKalb, Ill.
William A. Mowry, Hyde Park, Mass.
Mary E. Nicholson, Indianapolis, Ind.
John M. Ordway, New Orleans, La.
Warren D. Parker, River Falls, Wis.
W. H. Payne, Ann Arbor, Mich.
John B. Peaslee, Cincinnati, Ohio.
William F. Phelps, St. Paul, Minn.
Josiah L. Pickard, Brunswick, Maine.
Edward T. Pierce, Los Angeles, Cal.
J. R. Preston, Jackson, Miss.
John T. Prince, West Newton, Mass.
George J. Ramsey, Lexington, Ky.
Frank Rigler, Portland, Oregon.
William H. Ruffner, Lexington, Va.
Ellen C. Sabin, Milwaukee, Wis.
Henry Sabin, Des Moines, Iowa.
J. G. Schurman, Ithaca, N. Y.
H. H. Seerley, Cedar Falls, Iowa.
H. E. Shepard, Baltimore, Md.
Irwin Shepard, Winona, Minn.
Edgar A. Singer, Philadelphia, Pa.
Charles R. Skinner, Watertown, N. Y.
Euler B. Smith, Athens, Ga.
J. L. Spalding, Peoria, Ill.
Homer B. Sprague, Newton, Mass.
J. W. Stearns, San Diego, Cal.
Grace Bibb Sudborough, Omaha, Neb.
John Swett, Martinez, Cal.
W. R. Thigpen, Savannah, Ga.
L. S. Thompson, Jersey City, N. J.
Julia S. Tutwiler, Livingstone, Ala.
Delia L. Williams, Delaware, Ohio.
J. Ormond Wilson, Washington, D. C.
Lightner Witmer, Philadelphia, Pa.
H. K. Wolfe, Lincoln, Neb.
C. M. Woodward, St. Louis, Mo.
Ella F. Young, Chicago, Ill.

DECEASED MEMBERS

Robert Allyn.....1894
Israel W. Andrews.....1888
Joseph Baldwin.....1899
Henry Barnard.....1900
William N. Barringer.....1807
Newton Bateman.....1897
Reuben S. Bingham.....1902
Norman A. Calkins.....1895
Aaron L. Chapin.....1892
Clara Conway.....1904
J. L. M. Curry.....1902
N. R. H. Dawson.....1895
John W. Dickinson.....1901
Larkin Dunton.....1899
John Eaton.....1906
W. R. Garrett.....1903
Samuel S. Greene.....1883
John M. Gregory.....1898
George T. Fairchild.....1901
Daniel B. Hagar.....1896
John Hancock.....1891
William R. Harper.....1896
William D. Henkle.....1882
Edwin C. Hewett.....1905
Elnathan E. Higbee.....1889
Frank A. Hill.....1903
Burke A. Hinsdale.....1900
Ira G. Hoitt.....1905
George Howland.....1892
John S. Irwin.....1901
Henry M. James.....1901
H. S. Jones.....1900
Thomas Kirkland.....1898
Albert G. Lane.....1906
Merrick Lyon.....1888
James McCosh.....1894
Charles D. McIver.....1906
Albert P. Marble.....1906
Thomas J. Morgan.....1902
Lemuel Moss.....1905
M. A. Newell.....1893
Birdsey G. Northrop.....1898
Edward Olney.....1886
Gustavus J. Orr.....1888
Francis W. Parker.....1902
S. S. Parr.....1900
Selim H. Peabody.....1902
John D. Philbrick.....1885
Matilda S. Cooper Poucher..1900
William B. Powell.....1904
Zalmon Richards.....1899
Andrew J. Rickoff.....1899
Charles C. Rounds.....1901
Edward R. Shaw.....1903
William E. Sheldon.....1900
James H. Smart.....1900
R. W. Stevenson.....1893
Thomas B. Stockwell.....1906
Eli T. Tappan.....1888
Horace S. Tarbell.....1904
Charles O. Thompson.....1885
H. S. Thompson.....1904
Arnold Tompkins.....1905
Emerson E. White.....1902
James P. Wickersham.....1891
S. G. Williams.....1900

TOPICS

1881 [1]Report on Industrial Education.—E. E. White, Ohio.

1882 [1]Report on Chairs of Pedagogy in Colleges and Universities.—W. T. Harris, Massachusetts.

The High School: Its Necessity and Right to Exist as a Part of a True System of Education.—J. L. Pickard, Iowa.

The High School: Its Relation to the Lower Grades of the Public Schools.—John Hancock, Ohio.

The High School: Its Relation to Business Life with a True Course of Studies.—William A. Mowry, Rhode Island.

The High School: Its Relation to Schools of Technology.—C. O. Thompson, Indiana.

Report on Educational Unity: the Harmonizing of Elementary, Secondary, and Collegiate Systems of Education.—Israel W. Andrews, Ohio, chairman.

Report on a Course of Study for Country Schools.—J. W. Dickinson, Massachusetts.

[1] The papers read before the National Council were printed only in pamphlet form until 1884.

1883 Report on Moral Education in Schools.—W. T. HARRIS, Massachusetts.
Report on Physical Exercises in Public Schools.—J. H. HOOSE, New York.
Coeducation.—H. S. TARBELL, Indiana.
Report on Academic and Professional Instruction in Normal Schools.—D. B. HAGAR, Massachusetts, chairman.
Report on Oral Teaching.—JOHN W. DICKINSON, Massachussets, chairman.

1884 Report on Recess or No Recess.—J. L. PICKARD, Iowa, chairman.
Report on Supervision of City Schools.—A. J. RICKOFF, Ohio, chairman.
Duties of City Superintendents.—AARON GOVE, Colorado.
Report on Preparation for College.—LEMUEL MOSS, Indiana.
Report on Pedagogics as a Science.—W. T. HARRIS, Massachusetts, chairman.
Is Pedagogics a Science?—F. LOUIS SOLDAN, Missouri.

1885 Report on Hygiene in Education—Recess or No Recess in Schools.—J. H. HOOSE, New York.
Report on Practice-Schools in Connection with Normal Schools.—C. C. ROUNDS, New Hampshire.
Report on State Supervision.—J. H. SMART, Indiana, chairman.
Report on the Place and Function of the Academy.—WM. A. MOWRY, Massachusetts, chairman.
Report on Educational Literature—School Reports.—JOHN D. PHILBRICK.
Report on Educational Statistics. Some Reports Needed.—THOS. W. BICKNELL, Massachusetts.
Report on Method of Pedagogical Inquiry.—W. T. HARRIS, Massachusetts; G. STANLEY HALL, Maryland.
Report on Education at the World's Cotton Centennial Exhibition at New Orleans.—THOS. W. BICKNELL, Massachusetts.
Report on Exhibit of the U. S. Bureau of Education at New Orleans.—JOHN HANCOCK, Ohio.
Report on Industrial Education.—J. M. ORDWAY, Louisiana.
Report on the Exhibit of the School of the Christian Brothers at New Orleans.—M. A. NEWELL, Maryland.
Report on the Education of the Colored People at New Orleans.
Reports on Exhibits at New Orleans.—A. D. Mayo, Massachustts; W. T. Harris, Massachusetts; W. N. Hilman, Indiana.

1886 Report on Textbooks in Elementary Schools.—ALBERT G. BOYDEN, Massachusetts.
Report on School Systems, Pupils, Classification, Examination and Promotion—H. S. JONES, Pennsylvania.
Report on Higher Institutions Required.—A. L. CHAPIN, Wisconsin.
Report on Technical Education for Girls.—H. M. JAMES, Nebraska.
Report on the Pedagogical Value of the School Workshop.—S. H. PEABODY, Illinois.
A Tribute to the Late John D. Philbrick.—LARKIN DUNTON, Massachusetts.

1887 Report on the Function of the Public School.—W. T. HARRIS, Massachusetts; W. H. PAYNE, Michigan; F. L. SOLDAN, Missouri; J. H. HOOSE, New York.
Report on the Relation of High Schools to Colleges.—E. W. COY, Ohio.
Report on Teachers' Institutes.—E. C. HEWETT, Illinois.
Report on Relation of Mental Labor to Health.—W. N. HAILMANN, Indiana.
Report on Teachers' Tenure of Office.—E. E. HIGBEE, Pennsylvania.
Report on Points for Constant Consideration in the Statistics of Education.—JOHN EATON, District of Columbia.

1888 *In Memoriam* Israel Ward Andrews.—JOHN EATON, Ohio.
Report on the Elective System in Colleges.—S. H. PEABODY, Illinois, chairman; W. T. HARRIS, Massachusetts.
Report on Books on Pedagogy.—NATHAN C. SCHAEFFER, Pennsylvania.
Report on Agricultural Schools: Their Objects, Their Methods, and Equipments.—GEO. T. FAIRCHILD, Kansas.
Report on Waste in Elementary Education.—J. W. STEARNS, Wisconsin, chairman.
Report on the Business Side of City-School Systems.—B. A. HINSDALE, Ohio.

1889 Licensure of Teachers—Discussion.
Report on the Opportunities of the Rural Population for Higher Education.—JAMES H. CANFIELD, Kansas.
Report on Professional and Academic Studies in Normal Schools.—ROBERT ALLYN, Illinois.
Report on Hygiene in Education, Harmonious Development.—W. N. HAILMANN, Indiana.

1889 Report on the Educational Value of Manual Training.—W. T. Harris, Massachusetts.
Report on What Statistics Should Be Collected by Superintendents?—J. M. Greenwood, Missouri.
City-School Systems.—W. T. Harris, Massachusetts.

1890 *In Memoriam* Elnathan Elisha Higbee.—Nathan C. Schaeffer, Pennsylvania.
Report on School Superintendence in Cities.—E. E. White, Ohio.
Report on Educational Literature.—W. E. Sheldon, Massachusetts, and Others.
Report on Coeducation of the Sexes.—John Hancock, Ohio, chairman.
Report on Essentials of Elementary Education.—N. A. Calkins, New York.
Supplementary Report of Committee on School Systems.—B. A. Hinsdale, Michigan.

1891 *In Memoriam* John Hancock, LL.D., Ohio.—E. E. White, Ohio.
Report on Compulsory Education.—D. L. Kiehle, Iowa, chairman.
Report on Uniformity in Requirements for Admission to College.—Jas. H. Baker, Colorado, chairman.
Report on City Normal Schools.—L. H. Jones, Indiana, chairman.
Report on the Education of the Will.—George P. Brown, Illinois, chairman.
Report on Hygiene—Physical Education.—Miss Clara Conway, Tennessee.
Report on Educational Statistics.—W. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
The Education of Girls.—Robert Allyn, Illinois.
Report on the Reorganization of the National Council.—W. E. Sheldon, chairman.

1892 Report on the Practical Culture of the Moral Virtues.—Joseph Baldwin, Texas.
Report on the Uses of Literature in Elementary Education.—L. H. Jones, Indiana, chairman.
Report on the Scope and Character of Pedagogical Work in Universities.—Charles DeGarmo, Pennsylvania, chairman.
Report on the Relation of the Normal School to Other Institutions of Learning.—C. C. Rounds, New Hampshire, chairman; N. C. Schaeffer, Pennsylvania.
Report on the Relation of Mnemonic Systems to the Cultivation of the Power of Thought.—W. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
Report on the Grading in Country Schools.—George A. Walton, Massachusetts.
Report on Round-Table Discussion on Promotions in City Schools.—N. C. Dougherty, Illinois.
Report of Round-Table Discussion on the Uses of Literature in Elementary Education.—L. H. Jones, Indiana.
Report of Round-Table Discussion on Apperception.—Charles DeGarmo, Pennsylvania.

1893 No meeting.

1894 Report on the Relation of Technical to Liberal Education.—C. M. Woodward, Missouri.
Report on Professional and Technical Instruction in the University.—Nicholas Murray Butler, New York.
The Dogma of Formal Discipline.—B. A. Hinsdale, Michigan.
Report on The Psychology of the Imitative Functions in Childhood as Related to the Process of Learning.—W. T. Harris, District of Columbia, chairman.
Review of the Report of the Committee of Ten.—James H. Baker, Colorado.
The Country-School Problem.—Emerson E. White, Ohio.

1895 Moral Instruction in the Elementary Schools.—James H. Baker, Colorado.
Report on Economy in Elementary Education.—Bettie A. Dutton, Ohio.
Report on Ungraded Schools.—Henry Sabin, Iowa, chairman.
Round-Table Report to the National Council of the Influence of Herbart's Doctrine on the Course of Study in the Common Schools.—Charles A. McMurry, Illinois.
Report on the Laws of Mental Congruence and Energy Applied to Some Pedagogical Problems.—B. A. Hinsdale, Michigan.
Report on the Kind and Amount of Practice-Work, and Its Place in the Normal-School Course.—John W. Cook, Illinois.

1896 Report on Moral Instruction in Elementary Schools.—Emerson E. White, Ohio.
The Ethical Value of History in Elementary Schools.—J. F. Millspaugh, Utah.
The Incidental Method of Moral Instruction.—Lucia Stickney, Ohio.
Report on the Preparation of Manual and Industrial-Training Teachers a Function of the Technical School.—Charles H. Keyes, California.

1896 Report on the Higher Life of the College.—JOHN E. BRADLEY, Illinois.
How the Will Combines with the Intellect in the Higher Orders of Knowing.—W. T. HARRIS, District of Columbia.
Report on Hygiene and Physical Training.—WILLIAM A. MOWRY, Massachusetts.
Report on the Business Side of City-School Systems.—AARON GOVE, Colorado.

1897 The Aesthetic Element in Education.—JOHN DEWEY, Illinois; W. T. HARRIS, District of Columbia; MARY E. NICHOLSON, Indiana.
University Ideals at Princeton.—A. T. ORMOND, New Jersey.
The State University.—JAMES H. BAKER, Colorado.
University Ideals at Stanford.—JOSEPH SWAIN, Indiana.
Election in General Education.—E. E. WHITE, Ohio.
Report of the Committee of Twelve on Rural Schools.—HENRY SABIN, Iowa, chairman.
Rural Schools—Report of the Subcommittee on School Maintenance.—B. A. HINSDALE, Michigan, chairman.
Rural Schools—Report of the Subcommittee on Supervision.—LAWTON B. EVANS, Georgia, chairman.
Rural Schools—Report of the Subcommittee on Supply of Teachers.—C. C. ROUNDS, New Hampshire, chairman.
Rural Schools—Report of the Subcommittee on Instruction and Discipline.—W. T. HARRIS, District of Columbia, chairman.
Rural Schools. Appendix A. Some Sociological Factors in Rural Education.—B. A. HINSDALE, Michigan.
Rural Schools. Appendix B. Permanent School Funds.
Rural Schools. Appendix C. The California System of School Maintenance.
Rural Schools. Appendix D. The County as the Unit of School Organization.
Rural Schools. Appendix E. Comparative Cost of the Township and District Systems.
Rural Schools. Appendix F. Transportation of Pupils.
Rural Schools. Appendix G. Enrichment of Rural-School Courses.
Rural Schools. Appendix H. The Farm as the Center of Interest.
Rural Schools. Appendix I. The Country-School Problem.
Rural Schools. Appendix J. Negro Teachers for Negro Schools.
Rural Schools. Appendix K. Teachers' Training School Established by J. W. Bradbury.
Rural Schools. Teachers' Seminary at Plymouth, New Hampshire.
Rural Schools. Appendix L. New York State School Library.
Rural Schools. Appendix M. Hygiene and Health in Public Schools.
Rural Schools. Appendix N. School Systems.
Rural Schools. Appendix O. Extension Work in Rural Schools.—L. H. BAILEY, New York.
Rural Schools. Appendix P. Institutes in Pennsylvania.—D. J. WALLER, Pennsylvania.
Rural Schools. Appendix Q. Thomas Arnold (1795–1842).—W. S. SUTTON, Texas.
Rural Schools. Appendix R. Intellectual and Moral Education.
Rural Schools. Appendix S. Continuous Sessions in Normal Schools.—IRWIN SHEPARD, Minnesota.

1898 School Hygiene—What It Is and Why We Need It.—EDWARD M. HARTWELL, Massachusetts.
Bibliography of School Hygiene.—WILLIAM H. BURNHAM, Massachusetts.
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School Furniture—Seats, Baths, Blackboards, Maps, etc.—C. B. GILBERT, New Jersey.
School Diseases and Medical Inspection.—DELOS FALL, Michigan.
Medical Inspection of School Children.—SEVERANCE BURRAGE, Indiana.
The Hygiene of Instruction in Primary Schools.—G. W. FITZ, Massachusetts.
Fatigue.—EDWARD R. SHAW, New York.
The New Psychology and the Consulting Psychologist.—JOSIAH ROYCE, Massachusetts.
Rational Psychology for Teachers.—W. T. HARRIS, District of Columbia.
Report on Rural Schools—School Maintenance.—A. S. DRAPER, Illinois.

1898 Rural Schools—School Supervision.—N. C. Dougherty, Illinois.
Rural Schools—Supply of Teachers.—John W. Cook, Illinois.
Rural Schools—Instruction and Discipline.—R. G. Boone, Michigan.

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The Future of the Normal School.—W. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
Preliminary Report on School Hygiene.—W. T. Harris, chairman, District of Columbia.
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Do We Need a University Trust?—L. D. Harvey, Wisconsin.
Psychology for the Teacher.—E. C. Hewett, Illinois.
Educational Progress of the Year.—Nicholas Murray Butler, New York.
Report of Committee on Relations of Public Libraries to Public Schools—J. C. Dana, Colorado, chairman.
Public Libraries and Public Schools. Prefatory Note.—James H. Van Sickle, Colorado.
Public Libraries and Public Schools. Reading Lists.
Public Libraries and Public Schools. Supplementary Reading.—Robert C. Metcalf, Massachusetts.
Public Libraries and Public Schools. The Relation of the School to Libraries.—C. A. McMurry, Illinois.
Public Libraries and Public Schools—Report of the Subcommittee on Relation of Libraries to Normal Schools.—M. Louise Jones.
Public Libraries and Public Schools. Establishing Libraries in Villages.—F. A. Hutchins.
Public Libraries and Public Schools. Securing Libraries for Rural Schools.—F. A. Hutchins.
Public Libraries and Public Schools—The Present Condition of School Libraries in Rural Schools and Villages of Less than 2,500 Inhabitants.—F. A. Hutchins.
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Public Libraries and Public Schools. By-Laws Suggested for a Board of Library Trustees.—W. R. Eastman, New York.
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Public Libraries and Public Schools. Aids and Guides in Library Work.—F. A. Hutchins.
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Public Libraries and Public Schools. Work in Certain Typical Libraries.—J. C. Dana, Colorado.
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1900 Education in the Colonies.—Aaron Gove, Colorado.
Educational Progress during the Year 1899–1900.—B. A. Hinsdale, Michigan.
Class Intervals in Graded Schools.—William T. Harris, District of Columbia.
Report on High-School Statistics.—James M. Greenwood, Missouri.
General Culture as an Element in Professional Training.—Richard G. Boone, Ohio.

1901 Isolation in the School—How It Hinders and How It Helps.—W. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
Educational Progress of the Year.—Elmer E. Brown, California.
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In Memoriam Dr. Henry Barnard.—Eliphalet Oram Lyte, Pennsylvania; and Others.
Educational Lessons of the Paris Exposition.—Anna Tolman Smith, District of Columbia.
Lessons of the Educational Exhibits at Paris in 1900.—Howard J. Rogers, New York.
Report of the Committee on a National University.—William R. Harper, Illinois. chairman.
The Ideal School as Based on Child-Study.—G. Stanley Hall, Massachusetts.
High-School Statistical Information.—James M. Greenwood, Missouri.

1902 Taxation for School Purposes.—Nathan C. Schaeffer, Pennsylvania.
Taxation and Teachers' Salaries.—A. G. Lane, Illinois.

1902 The Function of Knowledge in Education.—CHARLES B. GILBERT, New York.
The Differences between Efficient and Final Causes in Controlling Human Freedom.—W. T. HARRIS, District of Columbia.
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The School as Social Center.—JOHN DEWEY, Illinois.
The Recent Reaction in France against Rousseau's Negation of Society in Education.—ANNA TOLMAN SMITH, District of Columbia.
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The Saving of Time in Elementary and Secondary Education.—THOMAS M. BALLIET, Massachusetts; ELLA FLAGG YOUNG, Illinois.
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Contribution of Modern Education to Religion.—GEORGE A. COE, Illinois.
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The Swedish Educational Exhibit and Its Relation to the Schools of Sweden.—N. G. W. LAGERSTEDT.
The Japanese Exhibit and Its Relation to Education in Japan.—MOSUKE MATSUMURA, secretary of the Japanese Commission to the Exposition.
In Memoriam William Bramwell Powell.—JOHN W. COOK, Illinois.
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In Memoriam Reuben S. Bingham.—FRANK B. COOPER, Washington.
Preliminary Report of Committee on Salaries, Tenure, and Pensions of Teachers.—CARROLL D. WRIGHT, District of Columbia, chairman.

1905 *In Memoriam* Clara Conway.—W. T. HARRIS, District of Columbia.
In Memoriam Edwin C. Hewett.—JOHN W. COOK, Illinois.
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Report on the Educational Progress of the Year.—HOWARD J. ROGERS, New York.
Symposium: What Are at Present the Most Promising Subjects for Such Investigations as the National Council of Education Should Undertake?—GEORGE H. MARTIN, Massachusetts; JAMES M. GREENWOOD, Missouri.
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1906 No Meeting.

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Report on the Course of Study in Industrial Drawing for Public Schools.—James MacAlister, Pennsylvania.

1885 Art Education.—President Otto Fuchs, Maryland.
Drawing in Primary and Grammar Schools.—Mrs. E. F. Dimmock, Illinois.
Drawing in High Schools.—Walter S. Perry, Massachusetts.
Drawing in Normal Schools.—Miss Kate E. Shattuck, Missouri.
Industrial Drawing for Primary and Grammar Schools.—Chas. M. Carter, Massachusetts.
Evening Industrial Drawing-Schools.—Otto Fuchs, Maryland.

1886 President's Address—Industrial Drawing.—President W. S. Goodnough, Ohio.
Report on the Relation of Drawing to Other Studies, and How Its Use as a Means of Illustration Can Best Be Promoted.—Mrs. Mary D. Hicks, Massachusetts; Walter S. Perry, Massachusetts.
Manual Training thru Industrial Drawing.—Chas. M. Carter, Massachusetts.

1887 Drawing in Primary and Grammar Schools.—Miss Elizabeth F. Dimmock, Massachusetts.
Drawing in Ungraded Country Schools.—W. S. Goodnough, Ohio.
Drawing in High Schools.—W. S. Perry, Massachusetts.
Drawing in Normal Schools.—Miss M. L. Field, Massachusetts; Miss Harriet B. Magee, Wisconsin.
Report of Committee on Drawing in Normal Schools.—Miss J. C. Locke, Missouri, chairman.
Report of Committee on Drawing, Making and Color in Connection with Other Studies.—Mary D. Hicks; Walter S. Perry, New York.

1888 The Educational Value of the Construction of Objects in Our Schools Overestimated.—L. S. Thompson, Indiana.
Historic Ornament and Design in Grammar and High Schools.—H. T. Bailey, Massachusetts.
Free Industrial Drawing Schools.—G. H. Bartlett.
Importance of High Aim in Art Education.—Albert Munsell, Massachusetts.

1889 Systems of Drawing in the United States.—L. S. THOMPSON, New Jersey.
Art Education the True Industrial Education.—A Cultivation of Aesthetic Taste Is of Universal Utility.—W. T. HARRIS.
Form Study in All Grades below the High School with Applications.—JESSE H. BROWN, Indiana.

1890 High-School Work in Drawing.—Miss E. SELLECK, Indiana.
The Mission of Color.—J. C. LOCKE, Illinois.
Normal-School Work in Drawing.—Mrs. H. J. CARTER, New York.

1891 The Conditions Underlying Art Education in European and American Schools.—WALTER S. PERRY, New York.
Supervision of Form Study and Drawing in Public Schools.—WALTER S. GOODNOUGH, New York. Discussion.—SARA A. FAWCETT, New Jersey.
Color in Nature in Relation to Color in the Schoolroom.—W. A. SHERWOOD, Canada.
Should Instruction in Form Be Based upon Type Solids or upon Miscellaneous Objects?—Mrs. MARY DANA HICKS, Massachusetts.

1892 President's Address—Vocal Music as a Training in Art.—FRANK H. COLLINS, New York.
Art Instruction in Normal Schools.—ELIZABETH PERRY, Massachusetts.
The Study of Drawing as Common-School Work.—AARON GOVE, Colorado.
The Aim of Art Instruction.—CHRISTINE SULLIVAN, Ohio.

1894 Art Education—Its Influence: Industrial, Educational, Ethical.—CHRISTINE SULLIVAN, Ohio.
Art Education and Manual Training.—J. LIBERTY TADD, Pennsylvania.
Color in Public Schools.—Mrs. MARY DANA HICKS, Massachusetts.
Modeling in Public-School Work.—Mrs. E. M. KENT, Minnesota.

1895 President's Address—Extension of Art Education.—CHARLES M. CARTER, Colorado.
Art in Magazines.—J. C. DANA, Colorado.
Pictorial Drawing in Primary and Grammar Grades: Should Light and Shade Be Taught?—Miss WILHELMINA SEEGMILLER, Pennsylvania.
The Place of Art Education in General Education.—JOHN S. CLARK, Massachusetts.
The Round-Table Discussion—Methods of Teaching.—Mrs. MATILDA E. RILEY, Missouri.

1896 President's Address—Requisites for Success in Teaching Act.—WALTER S. GOODNOUGH, New York.
Art for the Eye.—Mr. Ross TURNER, Massachusetts.
Art in the Schoolroom, thru Decoration and Works of Art.—LANGDON S. THOMPSON, New Jersey; Miss STELLA SKINNER, Connecticut.
Art Education in Relation to Public Education.—WALTER S. PERRY, New York. chairman.
Art Not the Servant of Science but Its Complement.—Miss WILHELMINA SEEGMILLER, Indiana.

1897 Shall Art Be the Servant of Science or Its Complement.—M. V. O'SHEA, New York.
Drawing in Normal Schools—Problems Solved and Unsolved.—HARRIET CECIL MAGEE, Wisconsin.
The Expression of Lines.—D. R. AUGSBURG, Utah.
What Do the People Want in Drawing in the Public Schools?—LILLIE M. GODDEN, Illinois.

1898 President's Address.—HARRIET CECIL MAGEE, Wisconsin.
The Supervisor of Drawing in Public Schools.—FRED H. DANIELS, New York.
Some Educational Principles Which Should Govern the Teaching of Drawing.—M. V. O'SHEA, Wisconsin.
Report of the Committee on the Relation of the Library to Art Education.—W. M. R. FRENCH, Illinois.
The Function of Art in the Education of the American Citizen.—WILLIAM ORDWAY PARTRIDGE, Massachusetts.

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Problems in Artistic Rendering.—KATHERINE M. BALL, California.
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Art Education in High Schools and Normal Schools.—Miss JOSEPHINE A. GREENE, New York.

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Preliminary Report of the Committee of Ten on Elementary Art Education.—LANGDON S. THOMPSON, New Jersey, chairman.

1900 Presidential Address.—Miss FRANCES E. RANSOM, New York.
Art in Everything.—FRANCIS W. PARKER, Illinois.
Picture-Study—Its Relation to Culture and General Education.—FRED J. ORR, Georgia.
The Relative Value of Brush and Pencil as Mediums in Expression.—Miss BONNIE SNOW, Minnesota.
The Relation of Nature-Study to Drawing in the Public Schools.—JAMES M. STONE, Massachusetts.

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Rhythm as an Art Principle.—HARRIETTE RICE, Rhode Island.
The Study of Fine Art in American Colleges and Universities; Its Relation to the Study in Public Schools.—FRANK FOREST FREDERICK, Illinois.

1902 Art as an Educational Factor.—JAMES L. HUGHES, Canada.
Elementary Preparation in Drawing for Secondary Schools—What May Reasonably be Expected.—CLARENCE VALENTINE KIRBY, Colorado.
Report of the Committee of Ten on Elementary Art Education, with Dissenting Opinions.—LANGDON S. THOMPSON, New Jersey, chairman.

1903 The Teaching of Art.—DENMAN WALDO ROSS, Massachusetts.
Consideration for a Practical Study of Drawing in Public Schools—BONNIE E. SNOW, Minnesota.

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The Influence of the Art School and Art Museum on Civic Life.—EDMUND H. WUERPEL, Missouri.
The Republic of France—A Nation of Art.—JEAN MARDUEL, France.
Art Education for the People in Germany.—LEOPOLD BAHLSEN, Germany.
Art Education for the People.—Mrs. MATILDA EVANS RILEY, Missouri.
Organization for Art Education in England.—PERCY ATKIN, British Representative.
The Educational Influence of Public Outdoor Art.—GEORGE E. GAY, Missouri.
Education for Artistic Handicraft in Sweden.—Carl LIDMAN, Swedish Commission.
Art Education for the American People, as Shown at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition in Normal Schools, Art Schools, and Art Handicraft.—Miss ANNA VANDELAINE HENKEL, Missouri.

1905 The Educational Value of Drawing.—F. LOUIS SOLDAN, Missouri.
Lessons to Be Drawn from the International Drawing Teachers' Congress at Berne.—CHARLES M. CARTER, Colorado.
Round-Table Conferences.—Various Papers by Various Authors.

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The Kindergarten in the Mother's Work.—Mrs. E. P. Bond, Massachusetts.
Relation of the Kindergarten to the Primary School.—John W. Dickinson, Massachusetts.
Some Essentials of the Kindergarten.—Mrs. Eudora Hailmann, Indiana.

1886 Joint Sessions with the Elementary Department, Which See.

1887 President's Address—W. N. Hailmann, Indiana.
Value of Kindergarten Training in Normal Schools.—Miss Clara A. Burr, New York.
Application of Froebel's Principles to the Primary School.—Miss Kate L. Brown, Massachusetts.
The Kindergarten in the Education of the Blind.—Miss Eleanor Beebe, Kentucky.

1888 Brief Résumé of Kindergarten Growth.—Mrs. S. B. Cooper, California.
The Educational Value of the Beautiful.—N. C. Schaeffer Pennsylvania.
Professional Training-School for Kindergartens and Teachers.—C. H. McGrew, California.

1889 President's Opening Remarks.—Wm. E Sheldon, Massachusetts.
The Kindergarten Methods Contrasted with the Methods of the American Primary School.—W. T. Harris, Massachusetts.
Story Telling in the Kindergarten.—Miss Nora A. Smith, California.
The Principles and Methods of Educating Our Girls for Parenthood.—Mrs. Eudora L. Hailmann, Indiana.
The Kindergarten in Relation to Motherhood.—Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper, California.
Froebel's Message to Parents.—Mrs. A. H. Putnam, Illinois.
The Child.—F. A. Parker, Illinois.

1890 The Kindergarten Work and Mission from the Standpoint of an Outside Observer.—Miss Helen E. Starrett, Illinois.
The Effects of Kindergarten Training on the Primary School.—Irwin Shepard, Minnesota.
They Have Eyes and Ears.—Miss Lucy F. Wheelock, Massachusetts.
Schoolishness in the Kindergarten.—W. N. Hailmann, Indiana.
The Letter Killeth.—Miss Anna E. Bryan, Kentucky.

1891 Kindergarten and the Primary School.—W. T. HARRIS, District of Columbia.
Kindergarten Methods in Intellectual Training.—Mrs. J. L. HUGHES, Ontario.
The Organic Connection between the Kindergarten and the Primary School.—Miss N. CROPSEY, Indiana.
Theory Tested by Experience.—Miss ANNA E. FREDERICKSON, Indiana.
Magicians That Make a Child's Life Happy or Miserable.—Mrs. LOUISE POLLOCK, District of Columbia.
Some Things a Kindergartner Should Know.—WM. E. SHELDON, Massachusetts.

1892 President's Address—Kindergarten Unity in Diversity.—Mrs. J. L. HUGHES, Ontario.
Symbolic Education as Illustrated in the Mutterund Kose Lieder.—LAURA FISHER, Missouri.
Professional Training of Teachers.—Mrs. EUDORA L. HAILMANN, Indiana.
The Artistic Simplicity of Child-Work.—AMALIE HOFER, New York.
Practical Psychology in the Kindergarten.—CONSTANCE MACKENZIE, Pennsylvania.
Songs, Morning Talks, and Stories.—EMILIE POULSSON, Massachusetts.
Influence of Expression on Thought.—Miss GUDDINGS, Rhode Island.

1894 Letter of Greeting to Kindergartners Assembled at Asbury Park.—SUSAN E. BLOW, Missouri.
President's Address.—CONSTANCE MACKENZIE, Pennsylvania.
The Related Development of Morality and Intelligence in the Kindergarten Idea.—Mrs. LEONTINE T. NEWCOMB, Ontario.
What Can the Kindergarten Do for History and Literature in the Higher Grades?—SARA E. WILTSE, Massachusetts.
Essential Principles of the Kindergarten System.—ANGELINE BROOKS, Connecticut.
Ideal Relation of Kindergarten to Primary Schools.—LUCY WHEELOCK, Massachusetts.

1895 The Social Settlement and the Kindergarten.—AMALIE HOFER, Illinois.
The Work of the Pestalozzi-Froebel Haus.—Mrs. S. H. HARRIMAN, Rhode Island.
The Kindergarten and the Home.—Mrs. JAMES L. HUGHES, Canada.
Mothers' Meetings—How to Conduct Them.—MARY C. MCCULLOCH, Missouri.
Mothers' Meetings—How to Conduct Them among the Poor.—WILHELMINA T. CALDWELL, Colorado.
Comparison of the Educational Theories of Froebel and Herbart.—JAMES L. HUGHES, Canada.
The Faculty and Ministry of Song.—W. L. TOMLINS, Illinois.
A Knowledge of the Kindergarten Indispensable in Primary Instruction.—SARAH L. ARNOLD, Massachusetts.

1896 The Purpose of the Story in the Kindergarten.—SARA E. WILTSE, Massachusetts.
Child-Study for Fathers and Mothers.—M. V. O'SHEA, New York.
The Children of Our Cities.—MARY E. MCDOWELL, Illinois.
Psychology of Descriptive Gesture.—S. H. CLARK, Illinois.
The Allies of the Kindergarten.—CAROLINE T. HAVEN, New York.
The Problem of the City Kindergarten.—BERTHA PAYNE, Illinois.

1897 The Kindergarten and Child-Study.—JOHN DEWEY, Illinois.
Has Child-Study Any Help for the Kindergarten?—BERTHA PAYNE, Illinois.
Froebel's Use of Child-Study.—C. G. O'GRADY, Pennsylvania.
Methods of Child-Study in the Kindergarten.—JENNY B. MERRILL, New York.
The Kindergarten in the Public Schools.—C. B. GILBERT, New Jersey.
Kindergarten Work and Principles in the School.—KATHERINE BEEBE, Illinois.

1898 The Value of the Ideals Set Forth in the *Mother-Play Book*.—ELIZABETH HARRISON, Illinois.
Children's Gardens.—JENNY B. MERRILL, New York.
A Child's Song.—MARI RUEF HOFER, Illinois.
Ideal Play in the Kindergarten.—SUSAN PLESSNER POLLOCK, District of Columbia.
The Development of the Inner Life of the Child.—Mrs. MARIA KRAUS-BOELTE, New York.
A Kindergarten Message to Mothers.—Mrs. ADA MAREAN HUGHES, Canada.
The Influence of the Kindergarten upon the Schools.—F. LOUIS SOLDAN, Missouri.

1899 Some Criticisms of the Kindergarten.—NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER, New York.
Character-Study in the Kindergarten.—THOMAS P. BAILEY, JR., California.
Relation of Imitation to Originality and Consequent Freedom.—MARY F. LEDYARD, California.

1899 Mental and Moral Development of the Kindergarten Child.—C. C. Van Liew, Califorina.
Music in the Kindergarten.—Anna M. Stovall, California.
Naughty Children.—Elmer Ellsworth, California.
The Kindergarten Child Physically.—Frederic Burk, California.

1900 President's Address—How the Kindergarten Develops the Child's Power.—Mrs. Maria Kraus-Boelte, New York.
A Mother's Advice to Kindergartners.—Mrs. Clarence E. Meleney, New York.
The Need of Kindergartens in the South.—Philander P. Claxton, North Carolina.
The Kindergarten Gifts—A Fragment.—Harriet Neil, District of Columbia.
The Kindergarten and the Primary School in Their Relation to the Child and to Each Other.—Emma A. Newman, New York.
The Educational Use of Music for Children Under the Age of Seven Years.—Mari Ruef Hofer, Illinois.

1901 Work and Play in the Kindergarten.—Mrs. Alice H. Putnam, Illinois.
Work and Play in the Primary and Grammar Grades.—Charlotte M. Powe, South Carolina.
Work and Play in Youth.—M. V. O'Shea, Wisconsin.
President's Address—Kindergarten Department.—Evelyn Holmes, South Carolina.
Necessary Elements in Work and Play, and Some Practical Consequences.—C. Geraldine O'Grady, New York.
Rhythm in the Kindergarten.—Ethel Roe Lindgren, Illinois.

1902 Hindrances to the Development of Language.—Cecilia Adams, Colorado.
How Froebel Planned to Foster the Child's Powers in Language.—Mrs. Alice H. Putnam, Illinois.
The Need for English Study by Kindergarten Students.—Mary C. May, Utah.

1903 Kindergarten Principles in Social Work.—Joseph Lee, Massachusetts.
The Kindergarten: An Uplifting Social Influence in the Home and the District.—Richard Watson Gilder, New York.
The Power of the Kindergarten Training School in the Education of Young Women. Caroline M. C. Hart, Maryland.
The Scope and Results of Mothers' Classes.—Elizabeth Harrison, Illinois.
The International Kindergarten Union.—Stella L. Wood, Minnesota.

1904 The Kindergarten and the Elementary School as Illustrated in Their Exhibits—From the Kindergarten Standpoint.—Patty S. Hill, Kentucky.
The Kindergarten and the Elementary School as Illustrated in Their Exhibits—From the Standpoint of the School.—C. B. Gilbert, New York.
The Philippine Teacher and the Philippine Educational Exhibit.—Albert Ralph Hager, Philippine Exposition Board.
The Kindergarten in Japan.—Annie L. Howe, Illinois.
The French and German Elementary Schools.—Frederick Ernest Farrington, California.
The Kindergartens in the Southern States, and in Some of the Countries South of the United States.—Eveline A. Waldo, Louisiana.
Address.—Madame Ottilia Bondy, Austria.
The Hygiene of the Kindergarten Child.—William H. Burnham, Massachusetts.
The Individual Child.—Bertha Payne, Illinois.
What Is Kindergarten Discipline.—Mary Jean Miller, Iowa.
Value of Animal Pets in the Kindergarten.—Anne E. Harvey New York.

1905 The Recognition of the Physical Development of the Child in the Training of Kindergartners.—Nathan Oppenheim, New York.
How Does the Routine of the Kindergarten Develop the Child Physically?—Mrs. Ada Marean Hughes, Canada.
Methods of Supervision of Public-School Kindergartens.—Harriette Melissa Mills, New York.
Current Criticism of the Kindergarten.—M. V. O'Shea, Wisconsin.

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Sec., Miss HELEN W. TRASK, Minneapolis Minn.

1904 ST. LOUIS, MO.
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V.-Pres., W. A. WETZELL, Salt Lake City, Utah.
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1905 ASBURY PARK AND OCEAN GROVE, N. J.
Pres., WM. A. WETZELL, Salt Lake City, Utah
V.-Pres., Mrs. M. B. PARR, Cleveland, O.
Sec., P. C. Hayden, Keokuk, Iowa.

1906 No Meeting

1907 LOS ANGELES, CAL.
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TOPICS

1885 President's Address—Music as a Means of Mental Culture.—D. B. HAGAR, Massachusetts.
Vocal Music in the Public Schools.—T. H. BRAND, Wisconsin.
The Tonic-Sol-Fa System.—T. F. SEWARD, New York.
A Plea for the Elements of Music in Primary Grades.—B. JEPSON, Connecticut.
Methods of Teaching Vocal Music.—H. E. HOLT, Massachusetts.
The Relative Importance of Song-Singing and the Reading of Music.—O. BLACKMAN, Illinois.

1886 President's Address—Music in the Public High School.—O. S. WESTCOTT.
What the Average Teacher Can Do in Musical Instruction.—SARA L. DUNNING, New York.
What Music Instruction in Public Schools Should Be.—N. COE STEWART, Ohio.
Better Teaching or a New Notation—Which ?—H. E. HOLT, Massachusetts.
Tonic-Sol-Fa Notation as a Factor in Musical Education.—T. F. SEWARD, New Jersey.

1887 President's Address—What Has Been Done in the Public Schools for Music?—O. S. Westcott.
Shall the State Teach Music?—Thos. J. Morgan, Rhode Island.
Voice Training and Singing.—Frederick A. Root, Illinois.
Educational Value of the Tonic-Sol-Fa System.—Daniel Bachelor, Pennsylvania.
Fervent Voice: Its Nature and Reflex Influence.—Wm. L. Tomlins, Illinois.

1888 President's Address—Value of Training in Vocal Music.—N. Coe Stewart.
The Tonic-Sol-Fa System.—S. McBurney, California.
Aids in Elementary Music Teaching.—W. F. Heath, Indiana.
Some Healthful Things Learned by Teaching Music.—Mrs. M. E. Brand, Wisconsin.

1889 President's Address—Methods in Music Instruction.—N. Coe Stewart.
The Province of Music in Education.—Wm. A. Mowry, Massachusetts.
The Outside Musician's Views of Music in the Public Schools.—Wm. H. Dana, Ohio.
Special Report on the Condition of Music Instruction in Our Public Schools.—Edgar O. Silver, Massachusetts.
The Relation of Music Instruction to Our Educational Systems.—Rev. A. E. Winship, Massachusetts.
Music in Public Schools, from a Music Director's Standpoint.—O. E. McFadon, Minnesota.

1890 Music as a Factor in Education.—Miss Margaret Morris, Ohio.
Music as a Regular and Required Branch of Grade Work.—Aaron Gove, Colorado.
Value of the Tonic-Sol-Fa Notation.—Robert H. Beggs, California.

1891 Growth of Music among the People.—Edgar O. Silver, Massachusetts.
Methods in Teaching Music.—A. T. Cringan, Canada.
The Study of Music in Its Relation to Mental Development.—S. H. Preston, Canada.

1892 The Value of Music in Public Education as a Means of Discipline and Culture.—George C. Young, Kansas.
Music in the Public Schools—What It Is, and What It Ought to Be.—A. J. Gantvoort, Ohio.
Music in Public Education, and Some Elements Essential to Its Success.—Philip C. Hayden, Illinois.
Methods and Devices in Teaching Public-School Music.—B. Jepson, Connecticut.

1894 President's Address—Certification of Music Teachers.—N. L. Glover, Ohio.
Music in the New Education.—David M. Kelsey, New York.
Is as Much Time Devoted to Instruction in Vocal Music in Our Public Schools as Its Importance Demands.—Frederick E. Chapman, Massachusetts.
Pupils' Defective Hearing.—Ephraim Cutter, New York.
Some Helpful Things concerning Music in the Public Schools.—N. Coe Stewart, Ohio.

1895 The Purpose of Music Study in the Public Schools.—F. Treudley, Ohio.
How Pupils Learn to Know and Do in Music.—C. H. Congdon, Minnesota.
A Course of Music in Public Schools.—A. J. Gantvoort, Ohio.
Music in Relation to Other Studies.—Sarah L. Arnold, Massachusetts.
Children's Voices.—Linn Marie Hawn, Michigan.
Songs for Children.—Fannie Arnold, Nebraska.
Mind and Music.—Theo. H. Johnson, Ohio.
Vocal Harmony; or, A Plea for an Oral Language with Which to Express Our Thoughts in Music.—H. E. Holt, Massachusetts.

1896 Natural Methods in Teaching Music to Children.—F. E. Howard, Connecticut.
How Good Music Makes Good Citizens.—Frank Damrosch, New York.
Our Experience in Introducing Music as a Study in Our Public Schools.—Joseph Mischka, New York.
Music in Education.—Mrs. Emma A. Thomas, Michigan.
Thinking Sounds Directly or Indirectly.—Samuel W. Cole, Massachusetts.
The Development of Music Theory thru Practice.—O. E. McFadon, Minnesota.

1897 The Development of Rhythm.—S. Lillian Byington, Illinois.
Eye and Ear Training as Related to Sight Singing.—Frederic Allison Lyman, New York.

1897 The Child Voice.—F. E. Howard, Connecticut.
How to Establish Good Musical Standards in Public-School Music.—Anna Birchard, Indiana.

1898 What Is Music, and How Can We Help Children to Become Musical?—Mari Ruef Hofer, Illinois.
Individual Singing.—C. H. Congdon, Minnesota.
School Music in Character-Making.—A. E. Winship, Massachusetts.
The Next Step—What Shall It Be?—Mrs. Carrie B. Adams, Indiana.

1899 President's Address—The Ultimate Object of Music Study in the Schools.—P. C. Hayden, Illinois.
Content and Extent of Music in Public Schools.—Herbert Griggs, Colorado.
What Power Does the Child Gain thru Music-Study?—Thomas Tapper, Massachusetts.
Methods of Teaching Music.—W. B. Powell, District of Columbia.
The Necessary Education of the Supervisor.—Mrs. Constance Barlow Smith, Illinois.
What Should Constitute a Course of Music for County Institutes?—Kathryn E. Stone, California.

1900 Common-Sense as an Aid to the School-Music Supervisor.—Sterrie A. Weaver, Massachusetts.
Should Music in the Public Schools Be Taught from the Song to the Exercise?—C. H. Congdon, Illinois.

1901 President's Address.—Arnold J. Gantvoort, Ohio.
Music Teachers in Their Relation to the Schools.—Charles Haupert, Ohio.
The Supervisor from the Standpoint of the Regular Grade Teacher.—Nellie G. Pettigrew, Ohio.
Supervisors and Supervision.—Walter H. Aiken, Ohio.
The Rights of Boys and Girls in Music Education.—N. Coe Stewart, Ohio.

1902 An Anomalous Situation, with Suggestions for Improvement.—Hollis E. Dann, New York.
The Psychological and Ethical Value of Music.—Elizabeth K. Fairweather, Ohio.
High-School Music.—Mrs. Frances Elliott Clark, Iowa.
The Future Development of School Music.—Thomas Tapper, Massachusetts.
Musical Qualifications Necessary for a Teacher of Music in the Public Schools.—Frank L. Nagel, Iowa.

1903 The Training in Sight-Singing and Song Interpretation Which Normal-School Students Should Receive.—C. A. Fullerton, Iowa, and Others.
The Real Purpose of Teaching Music in the Public Schools.—Samuel W. Cole, Massachusetts, and Others.
School Music—Has It Made Music Readers?—George W. Wilmot, New Jersey, and Others.
Music as a Subject to Be Counted for Admission to College.—Eugene D. Russell, Massachusetts.
Music as Part of Life.—Frank Damrosch, New York.

1904 Primary-Music Methods.—Mrs. Marie Burt Parr, Ohio.
Rote-Singing and Its Proper Place in the Public Schools—Practice *versus* Theory.—W. A. Hodgson, Missouri.
Music in the Public Schools a Means of Culture in the Community.—Lucy Robinson, West Virginia.
Methods *versus* Results.—W. H. Pommer, Missouri.
The Public-School Music Supervisor in His Relation to the Professional Musicians and the Professional Educators.—Frank Nagel, Iowa.
Conferences on a High-School Music Course.—H. C. MacDougall, chairman.

1905 The Mission of Music in the Public Schools.—A. E. Winship, Massachusetts.
Some Questions Involved in Making Music a Major Study.—W. Scott, Massachusetts.
Correlation of Music with Other Branches of the School Curriculum.—Mrs. Elizabeth Casterton, Michigan.
Music as a Factor in Culture.—Charles Edward Locke, New York.
Relation of the Grade Teacher to Music Instruction in the Public Schools.—C. A. Fulmer, Nebraska.

1905 Some Features of Music Instruction in the Schools of New York City.—FRANK R. RIX, New York.
Some Type-Forms That Have Been Found Useful in the Teaching of Music in the Schools.—WALTER H. AIKEN, Ohio.
Report of Committee on What Results Should Be Obtained in the Study of Music in the Eight Grades of the Public Schools.—PHILIP C. HAYDEN, Iowa, chairman.

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1893 No meeting. See International Congresses of Education

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Sec., WILSON FARRAND, Newark, N. J.

1906 No Meeting

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TOPICS

1887 The Claims of the Classics.—A. F. NIGHTINGALE, Illinois.
The Ministration of Literature.—MINNIE C. CLARKE, Massachusetts.
The Order and Relation of Studies in the High School Course.—SAMUEL THURBER, Massachusetts.

1888 Teaching English in Secondary Schools.—J. B. MCCHESNEY, California.
Educating the Whole Boy.—J. W. MCDONALD, Massachusetts.
Relation of the High School to the Training-School.—OLIVE A. EVERS, Minnesota.

1889 President's Address—The High School.—A. F. NIGHTINGALE, Illinois.
The High School and the Citizen.—H. C. MESSIMER, Pennsylvania; Miss LAURA DONNAN, Indiana.
Methods of Study in English.—M. W. SMITH, Ohio.
Uniform Course of Studies for High Schools.—E. W. COY, Ohio.

1890 The High School as a Fitting-School.—A. F. Bechdolt, Minnesota.
Effect of the College Preparatory High School upon Attendance and Scholarship in the Lower Grades.—C. W. Bardeen, New York.
The Demands of the High School for Severance from the College and University.—J. W. Johnson, Mississippi.
The High School as a Finishing-School.—James H. Baker, Colorado.
Art Instruction in the High School: Its Utility and Value.—Miss Christine Sullivan, Ohio.
The High School as a Factor in Mass Education.—E. A. Steere, Montana.
The Purpose and Scope of History in the High School.—W. M. West, Minnesota.

1891 President's Address—The Future High School.—Frank E. Plummer, Iowa.
How English Is Taught in One High School.—Ray Greene Huling, Massachusetts.
A Plea for State and National Aid in Industrial Education.—B. F. Hood, South Dakota.
Geometry in Our Schools.—Miss Matilda T. Karnes, New York.
Aims in Teaching Civil Development.—Frank A. Hill, Massachusetts.
Necessity and Means of Developing Individuality.—Samuel B. Todd, Kansas.
Methods of Teaching General History.—Mrs. Mary Sheldon Barnes, Indiana.
The Province of the Western High School.—L. H. Austin, Nebraska.

1892 Discipline in High School.—R. E. Denfeld, Minnesota.
The Chief Aim in the Study of History.—Walter A. Edwards, Illinois.
What Should Secondary Schools Do to Promote Their Interests at the World's Fair?—J. L. Halloway, Arkansas.
High-School Extension or Supplementary Work.—Frank E. Plummer, Iowa.
Usage the Authority in Language.—Brainard Kellogg, New York.
Physical Education in Our Schools.—R. Anna Morris, Iowa.

1894 Is It True That the Most Defective Part of Education in This Country Is in the Secondary Schools?—Charles P. Lynch, Ohio.
Shall Latin Be a Required Study?—W. Wilberforce Smith, New Jersey.
How May a Professional Spirit Be Acquired by the Secondary Teachers of America.—Ida B. Haslup, Colorado.
Discipline as the Result of Self-Government.—A. V. Storm, Iowa.
The Relation and the Possibilities of High-School Training in Relation to Public Speaking.—Frank Sheldon Fosdick, New York.
The Training of the High-School Teacher.—Eoline Clark, Nebraska.
The Future of the American High School.—J. Remsen Bishop, Ohio.

1895 President's Address—Ideals for Students in Secondary Schools.—Wm. H. Smiley, Colorado.
Should Electives in the High Schools Be by Courses or by Subjects?—Oscar D. Robinson, New York.
The Prospects for a Federal Educational Union.—William Carey Jones, California.
Biology in the First Year of the Secondary Schools.—O. S. Westcott, Illinois.
Physical Geography—Its Possibilities and Difficulties.—Edward L. Harris, Ohio.
Ethical Instruction thru Sociology.—B. C. Mathews, New Jersey.
Address of the Committee of Twelve of the American Philological Association.—William W. Goodwin, chairman.

1896 Round Table—Ancient Languages and English:
Translation from the Greek and Latin Classics as a Training in the Use of English.—I. B. Burgess, Illinois; William C. Collar, Massachusetts; Frank A. Manny, Illinois.
Round Table—Modern Foreign Languages:
The Recent Changes in Methods of Teaching Foreign Languages.—Joseph Krug, Ohio.
Round Table—History.—Ray Greene Huling, Massachusetts.
Round Table—Mathematics:
Economy in Mathematical Instruction.—James L. Patterson, New York.
Principals' Round Table.—F. L. Bliss, Michigan.
Congressional Work for Youth.—W. H. Wickes, New York.
What Is a Secondary School?—E. W. Coy, Ohio.

1897 Report of the Chairman of the Joint Committee on College-Entrance Requirements.—A. F. NIGHTINGALE, Illinois.
Principals' Round Table:
Round Table in Latin and Greek.
Round Table in History.—C. W. FRENCH, Illinois, leader.
Round Table in English.—HARRIET L. KEELER, Ohio, leader.
Round Table on the High School as a Social Factor.—SAMUEL T. DUTTON, Massachusetts, leader.

1898 English the Core of a Secondary Course.—JOHN CALVIN HANNA, Ohio.
Some of the Main Principles of Secondary English Teaching.—SAMUEL THURBER, Massachusetts.
A Proposed Four-Years' Course in English for Secondary Schools.—CHARITY DYE, Indiana.
Syllabus of a Course in English, with a Defense of the Same.—W. F. WEBSTER, Minnesota.
The English Round Table—Essay-Correcting—Can It Be Made a Joy Forever?—F. N. SCOTT, Michigan.
What Proportion of Essay Subjects Shall Be Drawn from Literature?—F. V. N. PAINTER, Virginia.
Subjects for Compositions: Shall We Draw Them from Literature or from Life?—EDWIN L. MILLER, Illinois.

1899 Do Our High Schools Prepare for College and for Life, in Accordance with the Present Requirements of Both?—GILBERT B. MORRISON, Missouri.
Should Arithmetic, English Grammar, Geography, and the History of the United States Be Reviewed in the High School?—J. W. CRABTREE, Nebraska.
In Fundamental Civics, What Shall We Teach as the American Doctrine of Religion and the State?—SYLVESTER F. SCOVEL, Ohio.
Joint Session of Secondary and Higher Departments—Presentation of the Report of the Committee on College-Entrance Requirements.—A. F. NIGHTINGALE, Illinois, chairman.
Report of the Committee of Twelve of the American Philological Association on Courses of Study in Latin and Greek for Secondary Schools.—A. F. NIGHTINGALE, chairman.
Report of the Committee of Twelve of the Modern Language Association of America.—CALVIN THOMAS, New York, chairman.
Report of the Committee of Seven of the American Historical Association.—ANDREW C. MCLAUGHLIN, Michigan, chairman.
Report of the Committee of the Chicago Section of the American Mathematical Society.—J. W. A. YOUNG, Illinois, chairman.
Report of the Committee on Physical Geography.—WILLIAM NORTH RICE, acting chairman.
Special Report of the Committee on Chemistry.—ALEXANDER SMITH, Illinois, chairman.
Report of the Committee on Botany.—Committee.
Report of the Committee on Zoölogy.—Committee.
Report of Committee on Physics.—E. H. HALL, Massachusetts, chairman.

1900 To What Extent Should a Pupil in the High School be Allowed to Choose His Studies?—WILLIAM J. 'S. BRYAN, Missouri.
How Shall We Teach Our Pupils the Correct Use of the English Language?—OLIVER S. WESTCOTT, Illinois.
Discussion of the Report of the Committee on College Entrance Requirements in Joint Session of Secondary and Higher Departments.

1901 President's Address—Growth of Secondary Schools.—WILLIAM J. S. BRYAN, Missouri.
The Function of the High School of Today.—J. REMSEN BISHOP, Ohio.
Round-Table Conferences. The English Conference.—JAMES H. HARRIS, Michigan.
Round-Table Conference—Latin.—F. P. MOULTON, Connecticut.
Round Table—Commercial Conferences.—THOMAS H. H. KNIGHT, Massachusetts.
Round Table Conference—Botany Conference.—LEWIS MURBACH, Michigan.
Round Table—Zoölogy Conference.—FRANKLIN W. BARROWS, New York.
Round Table—Domestic Science Conference.—ABBY L. MARLATT, Rhode Island.
Round Table—Algebra Conference.—GEORGE W. EVANS, Massachusetts.
Round Table—Greek Conference.—ISAAC N. JUDSON, Missouri.

1901 Round Table—German Conference.—Joseph Krug, Ohio.
Round Table—Physics Conference.—Carl J. Ingerson, Missouri.
Round Table—Chemistry Conference.—C. E. Linebarger, Illinois.
Round Table—Geometry Conference.—Alan Sanders, Ohio.
Round Table—History Conference.—J. J. Sheppard, New York.
Round Table—Physiography Conference.—W. H. Snyder, Massachusetts.
Round Table—Physiology Conference.—Peter Cooper, New York.

1902 President's Address—Call Out the Leaders.—J. Remsen Bishop, Ohio.
The Social Side of High-School Life.—Reuben Post Halleck, Kentucky.
The Three Elements in the Cost of Education.—Charles D. McIver, North Carolina.
Round-Table Conferences—Ancient Classics.—Lafayette Bliss, Minnesota.
Round-Table Conference—Biological Conference.—J. Remsen Bishop, Ohio.
Round Table—Physical-Science Conference.—W. A. Fiske, Indiana.
Round Table—History Conference.—Charles R. Frazier, Minnesota.
Round Table—English Conference.—Thomas C. Trueblood, Michigan.
Round Table—Principals' Conference.—W. J. S. Bryan, Missouri.
Round Table—Mathematical Conference.—Charles W. Newhall, Minnesota.

1903 Opening Remarks—Problems of Secondary Education.—Charles F. Wheelock, New York.
Tendencies as to the Enlargement of the Seminary Field.—Reuben Post Halleck, Kentucky.
Co-education in the High School.—G. Stanley Hall, Massachusetts.
The Teaching of Argumentative Discourse in High Schools.—George P. Baker, Massachusetts; Charles S. Hartwell, New York.
Round-Table Conference—
I. Classical Conference.—Henry White Callahan, Colorado.
Round-Table Conference—
II. Principals' Conference—The Formation of a Federation of Secondary School Associations.—William J. S. Bryan, Missouri.
Round-Table Conference—
III. Mathematical Conference.—David Eugene Smith, New York.
Round-Table Conference—
IV. History Conference.—James Sullivan, New York.

1904 What May the Secondary Schools of the United States Learn from a Study of French Secondary Education?—E. W. Lyttle, New York.
What May the Secondary Schools of the United States Learn from a Study of German Secondary Education?—Frederick E. Bolton, Iowa.
Secret Fraternities in High Schools.—Gilbert B. Morrison, Missouri.
In What Respects Should the High School Be Modified to Meet Twentieth-Century Demands?—J. Stanley Brown, Illinois.
Round-Table Conferences—English Conference.—William Schuyler, Missouri.
Round-Table Conferences—Laboratory Method in English Composition.—Philo Melvyn Buck, Jr., Missouri.
Round-Table Conference—Mathematics.—John S. French, Maryland, and Others.
Round-Table Conference—Modern Language.—George Arthur Smith, New York, and Others.

1905 President's Address—The Schoolmaster.—William Schuyler, Missouri.
Should the Twelve-Year Course of Study Be Equally Divided between the Elementary School and the Secondary School?—E. W. Lyttle, New York.
Why Do So Many First-Year Pupils Leave the High School? How Can They Be Induced to Remain?—Reuben Post Halleck, Kentucky.
Report of the Committee on Secret Fraternities.—Gilbert B. Morrison, Missouri, chairman.
Round-Table Conference—A. Principals' Conference.—Walter B. Gunnison, New York.
Round-Table Conference—B. English Conference.—Philo M. Buck, Missouri.
Round-Table Conference—C. History Conference.—James Sullivan, New York, leader.
Round-Table Conference—D. Conference on Mathematics.—Franklin Turner, Jones, Ohio.
Round-Table Conference—E. Classics Conference.—John C. Kirtland, New Hampshire.
Round-Table Conference—F. The Modern-Languages Conference.—Ernest Wolf, Missouri.

DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS EDUCATION

OFFICERS

1894 ASBURY PARK, N. J.
Pres., R. E. GALLAGHER, Hamilton, Ont.
V.-Pres., F. GOODMAN, Nashville, Tenn.
Sec. and Treas., W. E. MCCORD, Peoria, Ill.

1895 DENVER, COLO.
Pres., J. M. MEHAN, DesMoines, Ia.
V.-Pres., A. S. OSBORN, Rochester, N. Y.
Sec. and Treas., W. E. MCCORD, New York, N. Y.

1896 BUFFALO, N. Y.
Pres., F. GOODMAN, Nashville, Tenn.
V.-Pres., D. W. SPRINGER, Ann Arbor, Mich.
Sec. and Treas., J. W. WARR, Moline, Ill.

1897 MILWAUKEE, WIS.
Pres., A. N. PALMER, Cedar Rapids, Ia.
V.-Pres., J. E. KING, Rochester, N. Y.
Sec., ALLAN DAVIS, Washington, D. C.

1898 WASHINGTON, D. C.
Pres., D. W. SPRINGER, Ann Arbor, Mich.
V.-Pres., A. N. PALMER, Cedar Rapids, Ia.
Sec., D. M. WILLIS, Morgantown, W. Va.

1899 LOS ANGELES, CAL.
Pres., ALLAN DAVIS, Washington, D. C.
V.-Pres., I. O. CRISSY, Albany, N. Y.
Sec., W. C. STEVENSON, Emporia, Kans.

1900 CHARLESTON, S. C.
Pres., C. C. MARSHALL, Battle Creek, Mich.
V.-Pres., M. B. WICKS, Philadelphia, Pa.
Sec., I. O. CRISSY, Albany, N. Y.

1901 DETROIT, MICH.
Pres., WILLIAM E. DOGGETT, Brooklyn, N. Y.
V.-Pres., W. J. WHEELER, Birmingham, Ala.
Sec., EDWARD W. STITT, New York, N. Y.

1902 MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.
Pres., I. O. CRISSY, Albany, N. Y.
V.-Pres., J. H. FRANCIS, Los Angeles, Cal.
Sec., TEMPLETON P. TWIGGS, Detroit, Mich.

1903 BOSTON, MASS.
Pres., J. H. FRANCIS, Los Angeles, Cal.
V.-Pres., T. P. TWIGGS, Detroit, Mich.
Sec., C. E. STEVENS, Cleveland, O.

1904 ST. LOUIS, MO.
Pres., C. A. HERRICK, Philadelphia, Pa.
V.-Pres., H. B. BROWN, Valparaiso, Ind.
Sec., THOS. H. H. KNIGHT, Boston, Mass.

1905 ASBURY PARK AND OCEAN GROVE, N. J.
Pres., W. C. STEVENSON, Decatur, Ill.
V.-Pres., H. B. BROWN, Valparaiso, Ind.
Sec., JOHN ALFRED WHITE, Moline, Ill.

1906 No Meeting

1907 LOS ANGELES, CAL.
Pres., H. M. ROWE, Baltimore, Md.
V.-Pres., J. T. YOUNG, Philadelphia, Pa.
Sec., H. G. HEALEY, Brooklyn, N. Y.

TOPICS

1894 President's Address—Work and Usefulness of the Business College.—R. E. GALLAGHER, Ontario.
The Religion of Morals as Applied to Business.—S. S. PACKARD, New York.
An Ideal Business College.—WM. J. AMOS, Connecticut.
Hand Writing of the Future.—D. T. AMES.
Business Training—Good and Bad.—J. M. MEHAN, Iowa.
The Teaching of Writing.—J. P. BYRNE, Pennsylvania.
The Disciplinary Value of the Business Course of Study.—A. S. OSBORN, New York.

1895 President's Address—The Training of Teachers for Business Courses.—J. M. MEHAN, Iowa.
The Exchangeable Value of the Alliance of the Business Educators' Association with the National Educational Association.—Mrs. SARA A. SPENCER, District of Columbia.
Guaranteeing Positions, or Fraudulent Advertising.—J. W. WARR, Illinois.
Shorthand and Typewriting.—W. A. WOODWORTH, Colorado.
Ethical Side of Business Training.—D. W. SPRINGER, Michigan.

1896 Correlation and Co-ordination of Business Branches.—J. M. MEHAN, Iowa.
A Course of Study for Business High Schools.—ALLAN DAVIS, District of Columbia.
Value of a Standard of Attainment.—W. T. HARRIS, District of Columbia.
Report of Subcommittee of Committee of Nine on Bookkeeping—Theory and Practice of Accounts and Intercommunication.—S. S. PACKARD, New York.
Practical Writing—A Course for Colleges and Public Schools to Answer the Needs of the People.—A. N. PALMER, Iowa.
High-Grade Business Schools a Public Demand.—MELVIL DEWEY, New York.

1897 President's Address—Efficiency of Training in Business Schools.—A. N. PALMER, Iowa.
English in Business Schools.—Mrs. SARA A. SPENCER, District of Columbia.
Shorthand.—ISAAC S. DEMENT.
Rapid Calculation, Business Practice, and Higher Accounting.—SAMUEL H. GOODYEAR.

1897 Is the Present High-School Course a Satisfactory Preparation for Business? If not, how Should It Be Modified?—Charles H. Thurber, Illinois.
Laws and Ethics of Business, Duties of Citizenship, and Science of Wealth.—H. M. Rowe, Maryland.

1898 Business Education.—Durand W. Springer, Michigan.
Reasonable Expectations concerning Business Education.—Lyman J. Gage, District of Columbia.
Business Education in the High School.—Emory R. Johnson, Pennsylvania.
The Administration and Bookkeeping of a National Bank.—George M. Coffin, District of Columbia.
The Bookkeeping and Accounting of the Periodical Publishing Business.—A. O. Kittredge, New York.
Business Education in the State of New York.—I. O. Crissy, New York.
The Duties and Qualifications of the Congressional Reporter.—David Wolfe Brown, District of Columbia.

1899 The Business-Course Problem.—Allan Davis, District of Columbia.
How I Conduct a Business-Community School.—C. E. Howard, California.
The Claims of Business Education to a Place in Our Public Schools.—J. H. Francis, California.
The Evolution of Business Education.—I. O. Crissy, New York.
The Advent of the Commercial High School.—W. C. Stevenson, Kansas.

1900 Content and Educational Value of the Curriculum for a Secondary School of Commerce.—Cheesman A. Herrick, Pennsylvania.
Should Our Colleges and Universities Educate Men Specially for Business?—Woodford D. Anderson, South Dakota.
The Commercial High-School Course.—William E. Doggett, New York.
The Advantages and Difficulties of Introducing the Commercial Branches in Grammar and High Schools.—H. M. Rowe, Maryland.
School and Business Arithmetic—Limitations and Improvements.—Edward W. Stitt, New York.
Profitable Publicity—A Study of Advertising as Applied to Business Colleges.—Willard J. Wheeler, Alabama.
Essentials of Modern Business Penmanship.—F. L. Haeberle, Minnesota.

1901 President's Address—The Policy of the Department of Business Education.—W. E. Doggett, New York.
What Constitutes a Business Education?—I. O. Crissy, New York.
The Education and Training of Commercial Teachers.—William A. Scott, Wisconsin.
The Duty of the Public-School System with Respect to Business Training.—Myron T. Scudder, New York.
Writing in the Grades below the High School When the Commercial Branches Are Taught in the High School.—J. F. Barnhart, Ohio.
The Phonograph as an Aid in Teaching Shorthand.—Theodore F. Lake, New York.

1902 President's Address—Concerning Report of Committee of Nine on Business-College Courses.—I. O. Crissy, New York.
Are Business Courses in Public Schools Inimical to Education?—A. E. Winship, Massachusetts.
What Shall the Public School Do for the Commercial Student and For the Business-Man Wanting Help in His Office?—H. M. Rowe, Maryland.
Length and Content of Commercial Courses.—William E. Doggett, New York.
The Preparation of Commercial Teachers for Work in the Public Schools.—B. H. Meyer, Wisconsin.
Requirements for Actual Business.—George A. Booth, Connecticut.
Business Education.—J. M. Anderson, Minnesota.
A Practical Commercial Course for a Massachusetts High School.—E. E. Gaylord, Massachusetts.
The Education of the Amanuensis.—Selby A. Moran, Michigan.
The Education of a Stenographer.—Mrs. M. L. Veenfliet, Michigan.

1903 History in the Curriculum of the Commercial High School.—Cheesman A. Herrick, Pennsylvania.
Mathematics in Commercial Work.—E. L. Thurston, District of Columbia.
Commercial Geography: The New Science.—F. O. Carpenter, Massachusetts.
Science in Commercial Work: Its Practical Value, Character, and Place in High-School Work.—Frank M. Gilley, Massachusetts.

1903 Disciplinary Value of Bookkeeping as a Study.—ENOS SPENCER, Kentucky.
The Disciplinary Value of Stenography and Typewriting as Studies.—W. H. WAGNER, California.
Report of Round-Table Conference.—D. W. SPRINGER, chairman.

1904 President's Address—Old Wine in New Bottles.—CHEESMAN A. HERRICK, Pennsylvania.
The Work of the Private Commercial Schools, as Illustrated in the Exhibits at the St. Louis Exposition.—CARL C. MARSHALL, Iowa.
The Resources of the United States as Illustrated by the Louisiana Purchase Exposition.—MINNIE BRONSON, Missouri.
Report of the Committee of Nine, Considered from the Standpoint of the Independent School of Commerce.—JAMES J. SHEPPARD, New York.
Report of the Committee of Nine, From the Standpoint of the General High School. BERTRAND D. PARKER, Illinois.
The Report of the Committee of Nine.—J. REMSEN BISHOP, Ohio.

1905 Qualifications of Commercial Teachers.—WILLIAM C. STEVENSON, Illinois.
What Should Be the Education of a Business Man?—JOHN BRISBEN WALKER, New York.
The Science Work of a Four-Year Commercial Course.—ALLAN DAVIS, District of Columbia.
The Study of Local Industry and Trade.—JOHN L. TILDSLEY, New York.
The Essential Elements of Study in a University Course in Commerce.—EDWARD D. JONES, Michigan, and Others.
Results of the Organization of Higher Courses in Commerce.—HARLOW S. PERSON, New Haven, and Others.

DEPARTMENT OF CHILD-STUDY

OFFICERS

1895 DENVER, COLO.
Pres., WM. L. BRYAN, Bloomington, Ind.
V.-Pres., THOMAS P. BAILEY, Berkeley, Cal
Sec., Miss SARA E. WILTSE, Boston, Mass.

1896 BUFFALO, N. Y.
Pres., EARL BARNES, Standford Univ., Cal.
V.-Pres., O. T. BRIGHT, Chicago, Ill.
Sec., E. R. SHAW, New York, N. Y.

1897 MILWAUKEE, WIS.
Pres., FRANCIS W. PARKER, Chicago, Ill.
V.-Pres., H. E. KRATZ, Sioux City, Ia.
Sec., MARGARET SCHALLENBERGER, Stanford Univ., Cal.

1898 WASHINGTON, D. C.
Pres., M. V. O'SHEA, Madison, Wis.
V.-Pres., Miss S. A. STEWART, Milwaukee, Wis.
Sec., G. W. A. LUCKEY, Lincoln, Neb.

1899 LOS ANGELES, CAL.
Pres., WILL S. MONROE, Westfield, Mass.
V.-Pres., REUBEN P. HALLECK, Louisville. Ky.
Sec., Mrs. A. W. COOLEY, Mpls., Minn.

1900 CHARLESTON, S. C.
Pres., F. L. BURK, Santa Barbara, Cal.
V.-Pres., T. P. BAILEY, JR., Berkeley, Cal.
Sec., Miss C. S. PARRISH, Lynchburg, Va.

1901 DETROIT, MICH.
Pres., T. P. BAILEY, JR., Chicago, Ill.
V.-Pres., Miss M. BROWN, New Orleans, La
Sec., MANFRED J. HOLMES, Normal, Ill.

1902 MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.
Pres., H. E. KRATZ. Sioux City, Ia.
V.-Pres., Miss J. W. PRENTISS, Cleveland, O.
Sec., Miss KATE A. HOPPER, Detroit, Mich.

1903 BOSTON, MASS.
Pres., G. W. A. LUCKEY, Lincoln, Neb.
V.-Pres., STUART H. ROWE, New Haven, Conn.
Sec., Miss S. F. CHASE, Buffalo, N. Y.

1904 ST. LOUIS, MO.
Pres., E. A. KIRKPATRICK, Fitchburg, Mass.
V.-Pres., Miss J. B. MERRILL, New York, N.Y.
Sec., A. H. YODER, Seattle, Wash.

1905 ASBURY PARK AND OCEAN GROVE, N. J.
Pres., E. G. LANCASTER, Olivet, Mich.
V.-Pres., D. P. MACMILLAN, Chicago, Ill.
Sec., Miss T. L. SMITH, Worcester, Mass.

1906 No Meeting

1907 LOS ANGELES, CAL.
Pres., EDWIN G. DEXTER, Urbana, Ill.
V.-Pres. H. H. GODDARD, West Chester, Pa.
Sec., CHARLES W. WADDLE, Austin, Tex.

TOPICS

1894 Report of the Committee on the Study of Child Development, of the Association of Collegiate Alumnae.—Mrs. ANNIE HOWSE BARUS, chairman.
Reports from Various Sections of the National Association for Child-Study.—Various Authors.
The Motor Ability of Children—A Preliminary Study.—JOHN A. HANCOCK, Massachusetts.
Children's Love of Nature.—W. A. HOYT, Massachusetts.

1894 Children's Expression thru Drawing.—M. V. O'Shea, Minnesota.
Report on Child-Study in Iowa.—H. E. Kratz, Iowa.
Report of the Work in Child-Study in Minnesota.—M. V. O'Shea, Minnesota.
Report of the Committee for New York State on Child-Study.
The Study of Children on the Pacific Coast.—Earl Barnes, California.
The Study of Children at the University of California.—Elmer E. Brown, California.
Report on Work in Child-Study in Indiana.—Wm. L. Bryan, Indiana.
Is Child-Study Practicable for the Teacher.—G. T. W. Patrick, Iowa.
Punishment as Seen by Children.—Earl Barnes, California.
Method and Scope of Child-Study for Teachers-in-Service.—M. V. O'Shea, Minnesota.
Child-Study with the Co-operation of the Parents.—C. C. Van Liew, Illinois.
Report on School Hygiene.—Edward M. Hartwell,
Report on the Ventilation and Heating of Schools.—D. F. Lincoln,

1896 Child-Study Up to Date.—Sara E. Wiltse, Massachusetts.
Work of the Illinois Society for Child-Study.—Francis W. Parker, Illinois.
Minnesota Child-Study Association.—L. H. Galbreath, Minnesota.
Child-Study in the Tompkins Observation School.—Elmer E. Brown, California; Thomas P. Bailey, California.
Scientific and Non-Scientific Methods of Child-Study.—William L. Bryan, Indiana.
Some of the Methods and Results of Child-Study Work at Clark University.—G. Stanley Hall, Massachusetts.
Child-Study a Part of the Teacher's Art.—C. C. Van Liew, Illinois.
Interests in Childhood.—M. V. O'Shea, New York.
Relation of Child-Study to the Work of a City Superintendent.—C. B. Gilbert, Minnesota.
What Children Want to Do When They Are Men and Women.—Charles H. Thurber, Illinois.
The Result of Child-Study in Country Schools.—Anna K. Eggleston, New York.
Some Musical Phases of Child-Study.—Florence Marsh, Michigan.

1897 Practical Lines of Child-Study for the Average Teacher.—G. W. A. Luckey, Nebraska.
The Bearings of the Laws of Cerebral Development and Modification on Child-Study.—Reuben Post Halleck, Kentucky.
The Psychology of Puberty and Adolescence.—Colin A. Scott, Illinois.
Mental Differences of School Children.—J. A. Hancock, Colorado.
Parents as Child Students.—Mary Codding Bourland, Illinois.
Criticisms Wise and Otherwise on Modern Child-Study.—John Dewey, Illinois.
A National Society for Child-Study.—C. C. Van Liew, Illinois.

1898 President's Address—The Status of Child-Study.—M. V. O'Shea, Wisconsin.
Some Cautions to Be Observed in Child-Study.—Ossian H. Lang, New York.
A Year's Study of the Entering Pupils of the Springfield, Massachusetts, High School.—Fred W. Atkinson, Massachusetts.
Heredity and Environment—A Study in Adolescence.—Edgar James Swift, Wisconsin.
Child-Study in the Training of Teachers.—John G. Thompson, Massachusetts.
Development of the Social Consciousness of Children.—Will S. Monroe, Massachusetts.

1899 Child-Study in Normal and Training Schools.—Gertrude Edmund, Massachusetts.
The Adolescent at Home and in School.—E. G. Lancaster, Colorado.
Children's Interests in Literature.—Isabel Lawrence, Minnesota.
A Curriculum of Applied Child-Study for the Kindergarten and the Primary School.—Frederic Burk, California.
Racial Traits in the Group Activity of Children.—C. C. Van Liew, California.

1900 Some Difficulties of Child-Study.—Thomas P. Bailey, California.
Is there a Nationality Problem in Our Schools?—Marian Brown, Iowa.
A Study in Musical Interpretation.—H. E. Kratz, Louisana.

1902 New Lines of Attack in Child-Study.—Frederick E. Bolton, Iowa.
The Child-Study Department of the Chicago Public Schools.—Angeline Loesch, Illinois.

What Our Schools Owe to Child-Study.—Theo. B. Noss, Pennsylvania.
The Physiology of Childhood as Applied to Education.—R. O. Beard, Minnesota.
How Far Does the Modern High School Fit the Nature and Needs of Adolescents?—Reuben Post Halleck, Kentucky.

1903 A Study Based on the Children of a State.—Earl Barnes, Pennsylvania.
The Teacher's Practical Application of the Results of Child-Study.—F. E. Spaulding, New Jersey.
Health and Growth of School Children.—William W. Hastings, Massachusetts.
School Hygiene in Its Bearing on Child-Life.—Thomas D. Wood, New York.
Sex Differentiation in Relation to Secondary Education.—A. H. Yoder, Washington.
The Percentage of Boys Who Leave the High School and the Reasons Therefor.—A. Caswell Ellis, Texas.
How to Increase the Attendance of Boys at the High School.—J. K. Stableton, Illinois, and Others.
Psychic Arrest in Adolescence.—G. Stanley Hall, Massachusetts.

1904 The Diagnosis of the Capabilities of School Children.—D. P. MacMillan, Illinois.
Some Laboratory Investigations of Subnormal Children.—Mary R. Campbell, Illinois.
To What Extent May Atypical Children Be Successfully Educated in Our Public Schools?—Maximillian P. E. Groszmann, New Jersey.
Typical Child-Study Methods at the St. Louis Exhibit.—Will S. Monroe, Massachusetts.
Questionnaire Methods of Child-Study.—Will Grant Chambers, Minnesota.
Laboratory Tests as a Means of Child-Study.—Mabel Clare Williams, Iowa.
The Contributions of Zoölogical Psychology to Child-Study.—Linus W. Kline, Minnesota.
Unsolved Problems of Child-Study and the Method of Their Attack.—G. Stanley Hall, Massachusetts.
Methods of Teaching Child-Study in Normal Schools.—Anna Buckbee, Pennsylvania.
Round-Table Conferences—Round-Table Conference on Child-Study in Kindergarten and Primary Grades.—Miss Myra H. Winchester, Texas, chairman.
Round-Table Conference on Child-Study in Grammar and Secondary Grades.—Charles W. Waddle, Massachusetts, and Others.

1905 President's Address—Review of Progress in Child-Study.—E. G. Lancaster Michigan.
Child-Study in the University and College.—G. Stanley Hall, Massachusetts.
Child-Study in Normal Schools.—Frank Webster Smith, Nebraska.
Child-Study in Special Clubs.—Harriet A. Marsh, Michigan.
A Problem for Women's Clubs.—Isabel Lawrence, Minnesota.
Education from the Genetic Point of View.—William H. Burnham, Massachusetts.
Relation of the Child's Development to Control of Him.—Amy E. Tanner, Pennsylvania.
The School and the Child's Physical Development.—Stuart H. Rowe, New York.
Notes on a Few Books in Child-Study.—Louis N. Wilson, Massachusetts.

DEPARTMENT OF PHYSICAL TRAINING

OFFICERS

1896 BUFFALO, N. Y.
Pres., Miss R. A. Morris, Cleveland, O.
V.-Pres., Ed. F. Hermanns, Denver, Colo.
Sec., Miss N. D. Kimberlin, Detroit, Mich.

1897 MILWAUKEE, WIS.
Pres., Miss R. A. Morris, Cleveland, O.
V.-Pres., J. N. Wilkinson, Emporia, Kans.
Sec., H. B. Boice. Trenton, N. J.

1898 WASHINGTON. D. C.
Pres., C. E. Ehinger, West Chester, Pa.
V.-Pres., Miss R. A. Morris, Cleveland, O.
Sec., H. B. Boice, Trenton, N. J.

1899 LOS ANGELES, CAL.
Pres., Geo. W. Fitz, Cambridge, Mass.
V.-Pres., W. O. Krohn, Hospital, Ill.
Sec., Miss R. Stoneroad, Washington, D. C.

1900 CHARLESTON, S. C.
Pres., Geo. W. Fitz, Cambridge, Mass.
V.-Pres., W. O. Krohn, Hospital, Ill.
Sec., Miss Mabel L. Pray, Toledo, O.

1901 DETROIT, MICH.
Pres., W. O. Krohn, Chicago, Ill.
V.-Pres., Miss Rebecca Stoneroad, Washington, D. C.
Sec., Miss Mabel L. Pray, Toledo, O

1902 MINNEAPOLIS. MINN.
Pres., W. O. KROHN, Chicago, Ill.
V.-Pres., THEODORE TOEPEL, Atlanta, Ga.
Sec., Miss MABEL L. PRAY, Toledo, O.

1903 BOSTON, MASS.
Pres., W. O. KROHN, Chicago, Ill.
V.-Pres., Baroness ROSE POSSE, Boston, Mass.
Sec., Miss ALTA WIGGINS, Buffalo, N. Y.

1904 ST. LOUIS, MO.
Pres., E. H. ARNOLD, New Haven, Conn
V.-Pres., Miss REBECCA STONEROAD, Washington, D. C.
Sec., Baroness ROSE POSSE, Boston, Mass.

1905 ASBURY PARK AND OCEAN GROVE, N. J.
Pres., E. H. ARNOLD, New Haven, Conn.
V.-Pres., REBECCA STONEROAD, Washington D. C.
Sec., G. B. AFFLECK, Cedar Falls, Ia.

1906 No Meeting

1907 LOS ANGELES, CAL.
Pres., E. Herman ARNOLD, New Haven, Conn.
V.-Pres., Miss REBECCA STONEROAD, Washington, D. C.
Sec., Miss MAY G. LONG, Mason City, Ia.

TOPICS

1895 The Object of the New Department.—R. ANNA MORRIS, Ohio.
Physical Training in Public Schools.—N. D. KIMBERLIN, Michigan.
The New Department.—FRANCIS W. PARKER, Illinois.
Voice and Body.—Mrs. GASTON BOYD, Canada.

1896 President's Address—The Purpose of the Department and the Status of Physical Training.—R. ANNA MORRIS, Ohio.
Physical Deterioration Resulting from School Life; Cause; Remedy.—J. H. KELLOGG, Michigan.
Physical Training as a Factor in Character-Building.—JAMES L. HUGHES, Toronto.
Should We Have Military Training in the Schools?—D. A. SARGENT, Massachusetts.
The Nervous Force of the Teacher.—MARA L. PRATT, Massachusetts.

1897 The Appreciation and Development of the Individual.—R. ANNA MORRIS, Ohio.
The Development of the Will thru Physical Training.—WILLIAM O. KROHN, Illinois.
Delsarte and His Contribution to Physical Education.—Mrs. ANNA P. TUCKER, Ohio.
The German System of Gymnastics.—CARL KROH, Illinois.
Elementary Principles of School Hygiene.—AARON GOVE, Colorado.
The Normal Method of Introducing Physical Training.—J. M. GREEN, New Jersey.
Symposium on Physical Training in the Public Schools.—N. D. KIMBERLIN, Michigan.
Physical Training in the Colleges.—FRED E. LEONARD, Ohio.

1898 The Effect of Exercise on the Vital Organs.—WM. T. HARRIS, District of Columbia.
Exercise and Vigor.—HENRY LING TAYLOR, New York.
Influence of School Life on Curvature of the Spine.—R. TAIT MCKENZIE, McGill University.
Play in Physical Education.—GEORGE E. JOHNSON, Massachusetts.

1899 President's Address—The Condition and Needs of Physical Education of Today.—G. W. FITZ, Massachusetts.
The Influence of Exercise upon Growth.—FREDERIC L. BURK, California.
Anthropometric Studies in Nebraska.—WILLIAM W. HASTINGS, Nebraska.
Play Interests of Children.—WILL S. MONROE, Massachusetts.
How May Fatigue in the Schoolroom Be Reduced to a Minimum?—H. E. KRATZ, Iowa.

1900 How Can Advanced Science in the College and University and Nature Work in the Graded Schools Be Rendered More Mutually Helpful?—CHARLES B. WILSON, Massachusetts.
Nature-Study for the Graded Schools.—KATHERINE E. DOLBEAR, Massachusetts.

1901 President's Address—Physical Training as Corrective of Brain-Disorderliness.—WILLIAM O. KROHN, Illinois.
Physical Education Legislation—Its Needs.—Mrs. FRANCES W. LEITER, Ohio.
The Ethical, Physiological, and Psychological Aspect of Physical Training.—HANS BALLIN, Arkansas.

1902 President's Address—"Educative" Physical Education.—WILLIAM O. KROHN, Illinois.
Requirements for Physical Education in Our Public Schools.—HENRY HARTUNG Illinois.

1903 Physical Education and Brain-Building.—WILLIAM O. KROHN, Illinois.
Place of Physical Education in the Curriculum—Should It Be Fundamental or Incidental?—E. W. LYTTLE, New York.
How to Improve Public-School Gymnastics.—THOMMAS D. WOOD, New York.
Tests of the Efficiency of a Normal School of Gymnastics.—BARONESS ROSE POSSE, Massachusetts.
Physical Training for the Mass of Students.—WILLIAM G. ANDERSON, Connecticut.

1904 The Importance of Walking as a School Exercise.—E. HERMANN ARNOLD, Connecticut.
The Objects and Methods of Physical Training in Primary and Grammar Schools—From the Standpoint of the General Teacher.—W. W. CHALMERS, Ohio.
The Objects and Methods of Physical Training in Primary and Grammar Schools—From the Standpoint of the Physical Training Teacher.—WILLIAM A. STECHER, Indiana.
Objects and Methods of Physical Training in Normal Schools.—G. B. AFFLECK, Iowa.
Objects and Methods of Physical Training in Colleges and Universities.—R. H. JESSE, Missouri.
Objects and Methods of Physical Training in High Schools—From the Standpoint of the Specialist —Mrs. MARY H. LUDLUM, Missouri.
Physical Training Exhibits in the Physical Training Department of the Exposition.—ELSA POHL, Missouri.
Physical Training Exhibits in the Education Building of the Exposition.—MARY IDA MANN, Missouri.

1905 President's Address—The Importance of the School Yard for the Physical Well-Being of School Children.—E. H. ARNOLD, Connecticut.
Some Simple Methods of Recognizing Physical Fitness and Unfitness of School Children for School Work.—E. A. KIRKPATRICK, Massachusetts.
How Far Should Physical Training Be Educational and How Far Recreative in Grammar Schools?—REBECCA STONEROAD, District of Columbia.
How Far Should Physical Training Be Educational and How Far Recreative in High Schools?—CLARENCE F. CARROLL, New York.
How Far Should Physical Training Be Educational and How Far Recreative in Colleges and Universities?—CAROLINE CRAWFORD, New York; R. TAIT MCKENZIE, Pennsylvania.

DEPARTMENT OF SCIENCE INSTRUCTION

OFFICERS

1896 BUFFALO, N. Y.
Pres., CHAS. E. BESSEY, Lincoln, Neb.
V.-Pres., W. S. JACKMAN, Englewood, Ill.
Sec., CHAS. S. PALMER, Boulder, Colo.

1897 MILWAUKEE, WIS.
Pres., CHARLES S. PALMER, Boulder, Colo.
V.-Pres., A. H. TUTTLE, Charlottesville, Va.
Sec., IRWEN LEVISTON, Omaha, Neb.

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Pres., P. C. FREER, Ann Arbor, Mich.
V.-Pres., C. N. COBB, Albany, N. Y.
Sec., C. J. LING, Denver, Colo.

1899 LOS ANGELES, CAL.
Pres., CHARLES N. COBB, Albany, N. Y.
V.-Pres., A. H. TUTTLE, Charlottesville, Va.
Sec., CHARLES J. LING, Denver, Colo.

1900 CHARLESTON, S. C.
Pres., G. M. RICHARDSON, Stanford Univ., Cal.
V.-Pres., C. W. DABNEY, Knoxville, Tenn.
Sec., and Treas., CHARLES B. WILSON, Westfield, Mass.

1901 DETROIT, MICH.
Pres., N. A. HARVEY, Chicago, Ill.
V.-Pres., C. B. WILSON, Westfield, Mass.
Sec., CHARLES N. COBB, Albany, N. Y.

1902 MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.
Pres., W. H. NORTON, Mt. Vernon, Ia.
V.-Pres., vacant
Sec., EDWARD M. LEHNERTS, Winona, Minn.

1903 BOSTON, MASS.
Pres., C. W. HALL, Minneapolis, Minn.
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1904 ST. LOUIS, MO.
Pres., W. A. FISKE, Richmond, Ind.
V.-Pres., FRANK M. GILLEY, Chelsea, Mass.
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1905 ASBURY PARK AND OCEAN GROVE, N. J.
Pres., FRANK M. GILLEY, Chelsea, Mass.
V.-Pres., A. G. CLEMENT, Albany, N. Y.
Sec., H. A. SENTER, Omaha, Neb.

1906 No meeting

1907 LOS ANGELES, CAL.
Pres., H. A. SENTER, Omaha, Neb.
V.-Pres., I. O. PALMER, Newtonville, Mass.
Sec., E. R. WHITNEY, Binghamton, N. Y.

TOPICS

1896 President's Address—Science and Culture.—CHARLES E. BESSEY, Nebraska.
The Humanistic Element in Science.—HENRY S. CARHART, Michigan.
The Teaching of Beginning Chemistry.—PAUL C. FREER, Michigan.
Zoölogy as a Factor in Mental Culture.—SIMON H. GAGE, New York.

1897 President's Address—The Preparatory Natural Science Curriculum.—CHARLES SKEELE PALMER, Colorado.
Physical Geography in Secondary Schools.—ALBERT PERRY BRIGHAM, Colgate College.
Laboratory Work in Elementary Physiography.—R. H. CORNISH, Illinois.
The Microscope in the Public Schools.—W. H. SKINNER, Nebraska.
Physics as a Requirement for Admission to College.—EDWIN H. HALL, Massachusetts.
The Value of Chemistry as Part of a School or College Course.—ALEXANDER SMITH, Illinois.
Zoölogy in the High-School Curriculum.—HENRY BALDWIN WARD, Nebraska.

1898 The Teaching of Biology in the High School.—W. P. HAY, District of Columbia.
Memorandum concerning Report of Committee of Sixty.
Report of Subcommittee on Outline of Elementary Chemistry.—ALEXANDER SMITH, Illinois.
Report of the Subcommittee on Botany in Secondary Schools.—JOHN M. COULTER, Illinois.
The Leaf a Light-Related Organ.—B. D. HALSTED, New Jersey.
Preliminary Report of the Subcommittee on Physical Geography.—ALBERT PERRY BRIGHAM, New York.

1899 President's Address—Thirty Years' Progress in Science Teaching.—CHARLES NEWELL COBB, New York.
The Relation of Physics to Other Subjects in the High-School Curriculum.—S. P. MEADS, California.
The Pedagogical Content of Zoölogy.—N. A. HARVEY, Wisconsin.
Science in the High School.—GEORGE MANN RICHARDSON, California.

1900 How Can Advanced Science in the College and University and Nature-Work in the Graded Schools Be Rendered More Mutually Helpful?—CHARLES B. WILSON, Massachusetts.
Nature-Study for the Graded Schools.—KATHERINE E. DOLBEAR, Massachusetts.

1901 President's Address—A Plea for the Study of Educational Philosophy by Teachers of Science.—N. A. HARVEY, Illinois.
What the Teacher of Science Can Do to Make the Teaching of Science in Secondary Schools More Popular.—W. S. BLATCHLEY, Indiana.
Agriculture as a Science for the Elementary Schools.—JOSEPH CARTER, Illinois.
The Status of Science Instruction in the State of New York.—S. DWIGHT ARMS, New York.
The Relation of Physical Geography to Geology.—WILLIAM HARMON NORTON Iowa.

1902 President's Address—The Teaching of Science.—WILLIAM HARMON NORTON, Iowa.
The Educational Value of Museums.—OLIVER CUMMINGS FARRINGTON, Illinois.
The Projection Microscope—Its Possibilities and Value in Teaching Biology.—AARON H. COLE, Illinois.
High-School Instruction in Physics.—F. M. GILLEY, Massachusetts.
Physiography in the Secondary Schools.—J. A. MERRILL, Wisconsin.

1903 Practical Methods of Teaching Geology.—N. S. SHALER, Massachusetts.
The Proper Scope of Geological Teaching in the High School and Academy.—WILLIAM NORTH RICE, Connecticut.
Out-of-Door Class Work in Geography.—F. P. GULLIVER, Massachusetts.
The Teaching of Biology in High Schools.—A. S. PEARSE, Nebraska.
A New Method of Teaching Physiology.—WILLIAM TOWNSEND PORTER, Massachusetts.
Laboratory Work in High-School Physiology.—JAMES E. PEABODY, New York.
College Chemistry, and Its Relation to Work Preparatory to It.—IRA REMSEN, Maryland.
High-School Chemistry in Its Relation to the Work of a College Course.—RUFUS PHILLIPS WILLIAMS, Massachusetts.
Discussions of High-School Chemistry, by Various Authors.

1903 Physics for the Boys and Girls: An Introductory Course.—JOHN C. PACKARD, Massachusetts.
Physics in the Secondary School.—IRVING O. PALMER, Massachusetts.
The High-School Phase of Physics Teaching: Aims and Methods.—GEORGE R. TWISS, Ohio.
A Course on Physics for Technical High Schools.—CHARLES F. WARNER, Massachusetts.

1904 A Comparative Study of the Methods of Science Instruction of the Various Countries as Shown by Their Exhibits.—W. J. S. BRYAN, Missouri.
The Nature and Educational Value of the Scientific Exhibits of High Schools and Colleges of the United States.—GEORGE PLATT KNOX, Missouri.
Applied Geography, Illustrated from the Louisiana Purchase.—ARTHUR G. CLEMENT, New York.
The Microscope in the Biological Laboratory of the High School.—JOHN F. THOMPSON, Indiana.
The Subject-Matter of High-School Physics.—ARTHUR L. FOLEY, Indiana.
The Value of Chemistry in Secondary Education.—WILLIAM M. BLANCHARD, Indiana.
The Teaching of the Scientific Method.—S. A. FORBES, Illinois.
Nature-Study as an Aid to Advanced Work in Science.—E. R. WHITNEY, New York.

1905 President's Address—Needs in Science Instruction in Secondary Schools.—FRANK M. GILLEY, Massachusetts.
Correlation of Mathematics and Science.—CLARENCE E. COMSTOCK, Illinois.
Science Teaching in Elementary Schools.—HUGO NEWMAN, New York.
Some of the Common Insects, and How the Children Can Study Them.—JOHN B. SMITH, New Jersey.
Teaching Biology from Living Plants and Animals with a Projection Microscope.—AARON HODGMAN COLE, Illinois.
Report of Department Committee on Physics Courses.—FRANK M. GILLEY, Massachusetts, chairman.

DEPARTMENT OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

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V.-Pres., Mrs. JOSEPHINE A. GOSS, Grand Rapids, Mich.
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V.-Pres., J. F. FORCE, Minneapolis, Minn.
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1906 No meeting

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TOPICS

1896 The School-Board Convention Idea.—WILLIAM GEORGE BRUCE, Wisconsin.
School Boards, What and Why?—R. I. YEAGER, Missouri.
The Relation of a Board to Its Superintendent.—WILLIAM S. MACK, Illinois.
Shall Teachers Be Pensioned?—JOHN E. CLARK, Michigan.

1897 Hints on School Administration.—H. L. Getz, Iowa.
Reform in School Administration.—J. W. Errant, Illinois.
Relation of the School Board to the People.—Mrs. Alice Bradford Wiles, Illinois.
The True Function of the Public School.—R. E. Sears, Iowa.
Selection of School Boards—A Comparison of Methods in Operation.—T. H. Watkins, Kentucky.
Schoolhouse Construction—The Important Ends to Be Attained in the Planning and Building of Schoolhouses.—A. H. Kirchner, Missouri.

1898 What Kind of Centralization, if Any, Will Strengthen our Local School System?—Harvey H. Hubbert, Pennsylvania.
Manual Training—Its Purpose and Value.—Job Barnard, District of Columbia.
The Tenure of Office of the Teachers.—B. W. Wright, Michigan.
The Professional and Non-Professional Bodies in Our School System, and the Proper Function of Each.—A. Lawrence Lowell, Massachusetts.

1899 Employment and Dismissal of Teachers.—Eric Edward Rosling, Washington.
Quo Vadis, School Board?—William George Bruce, Wisconsin.
The School Board and the Public Press.—Ella J. Fifield, Washington.

1900 Schoolhouse Architecture.—C. H. Parsons, Iowa.
School Administration Problems in the South.—Israel H. Peres, Tennessee.
The Relations of the School Board and the Teachers.—W. A. Hunt, Minnesota.
School-Board Organization.—W. S. Ellis, Indiana.

1901 The Centralization of Rural Schools.—Lewis D. Bonebrake, Ohio.
Schoolroom Temperature and Humidity.—William George Bruce, Wisconsin.
Relation of State Legislation to Modern School Building.—C. H. Parsons, Iowa.
The Value of Truant Schools.—Mrs. Josephine Ahnefeldt Goss, Michigan.
What Constitutes an Efficient Superintendent?—Israel H. Peres, Tennessee.

1902 President's Address.—Israel H. Peres, Tennessee.
Progress in Consolidation of Rural Schools.—J. W. Olson, Minnesota.

1903 School Boards—Number of Members, Terms of Service, and Mode of Selection.—Calvin W. Edwards, New York, and Others.
School Boards—Their Functions: Legislative, Executive, and Judicial.—B. F. Hunsicker, Pennsylvania.
New Departures in School Administration.—Charles Holden, Michigan.
Consolidation of Rural Schools.—William K. Fowler, Nebraska, and Others.

1904 Retrospective and Prospective School Administrations.—B. F. Hunsicker, Pennsylvania.
The School Architecture of St. Louis.—William B. Ittner, Missouri.
Lessons in School Administration to Be Gained at the Fair.—Calvin M. Woodward, Missouri.

1905 Recent Progress in School Administration.—Wm. George Bruce, Wisconsin.
Shall the State Regulate Teachers' Salaries?—Frank H. Sommer, New Jersey.
Recent Progress in School Architecture.—Seymour Davis, Pennsylvania.
Needed Legislation in School Architecture.—C. B. J. Snyder, New York.

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Pres., L. D. Harvey, Milwaukee, Wis.
V.-Pres., J. H. Van Sickle, Denver, Colo.
Sec., Myrtilla Avery, Albany, N. Y.

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Pres., L. D. Harvey, Milwaukee, Wis.
V.-Pres., J. H. Van Sickle, Denver, Colo.
Sec., Myrtilla Avery, Albany, N. Y.

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Sec., Mary Eileen Ahern, Chicago, Ill.

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Pres., J. H. Canfield, New York, N. Y.
V.-Pres., R. P. Halleck, Louisville, Ky.
Sec., Mary Eileen Ahern, Chicago, Ill.

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Pres., N. C. Schaeffer, Harrisburg, Pa.
V.-Pres., R. P. Halleck, Louisville, Ky.
Sec., Mary Eileen Ahern, Chicago, Ill.

1905 ASBURY PARK AND OCEAN GROVE, N.J.
Pres., C. P. CARY, Madison, Wis.
V.-Pres., J. N. WILKINSON, Emporia, Kans.
Sec., MARY EILEEN AHERN, Chicago, Ill.

1906 No meeting

1907 LOS ANGELES, CAL.
Pres., J. N. WILKINSON, Emporia, Kans.
V.-Pres., E. W. GAILLARD, New York, N. Y.
Sec., GRACE SALISBURY, Whitewater, Wis

TOPICS

1897 Children and Literature.—J. H. VAN SICKLE, Colorado.
The Training of Teachers so That They May Co-operate with Librarians.—MAE E. SCHREIBER, Wisconsin.
Some Observations on Children's Reading.—ROYAL W. BULLOCK, Colorado.
Room Libraries.—MILLICENT KALTENBACH, Colorado.
The Moral and Literary Responsibility of Librarians in Selecting Books for a Public Library.—RICHARD JONES, New York.
How to Make Sure of Good Books in Our Libraries.—W. R. EASTMAN, New York.
The Relation of the Library to Art Education in the Schools.—WM. H. SMILEY, Colorado.

1898 The Use of the School Library.—RICHARD HARDY, Michigan.
Connection between Libraries and Schools.—S. S. GREENE, Massachusetts.
Choice of Reading for the Early Adolescent Years.—SUSAN F. CHASE, New York.
Report of Committee on Lists of Books for Reading and Reference in the Lower Grades of Public Schools.—F. A. HUTCHINS, chairman.
Reading Lists for Public Schools—How Prepared, How Used Effectively.—SHERMAN WILLIAMS, New York.

1899 The Function of School Superintendents in Procuring Libraries and Their Proper Use in the Public Schools.—ALFRED BAYLISS, Illinois.
School Reading thru the Public Library.—MARY L. JONES, California.
How to Acquire a Taste for Good Reading.—ELIZABETH SKINNER, Colorado.
The Use of the Library.—C. C. YOUNG, California.

1900 How to Direct Children in Their Reading.—MAE E. SCHREIBER, Wisconsin.
The Greater School; or, the School Plus the Library Greater than Either.—H. L. ELMENDORF, New York.
The Free Traveling Library: An Aid to Education and a Factor in the National Life.—Mrs. EUGENE B. HEARD, Georgia.

1901 President's Address—The Library Movement—What It Means and What It Should Include.—R. C. METCALF, Massachusetts.
Public Libraries and the Public Schools.—JAMES H. CANFIELD, New York.
What the Normal Schools Can Do for Teachers on the Library Side.—IRENE WARREN, Illinois.
The A B C of Reference Work.—W. I. FLETCHER, Massachusetts.
How Shall Children Be Led to Love Good Books?—ISABEL LAWRENCE, Minnesota.
The Place of the Library in Education.—MELVIL DEWEY, New York.
The Library and the School as Co-ordinate Forces in Education.—LIVINGSTONE MCCARTNEY, Kentucky.

1902 The Library as an Educator.—W. A. MILLIS, Indiana.
Libraries and Schools: A Two-Faced Problem.—EMMA J. FORDYCE, Iowa.
Greeting from the American Library Association.—ANDERSON H. HOPKINS, Illinois.
What the School May Properly Demand of the Library.—J. M. GREENWOOD, Missouri.
School Libraries in the Rural Districts.—AGNES ROBERTSON, Iowa.

1903 Some Co-operative Suggestions.—ALFRED BAYLISS, Illinois.
Public-Library Work for Public Schools.—ELECTRA COLLINS DOREN, Ohio.
The Public Library and the Public School.—CHARLES B. GILBERT, New York.
The Mission of the Class Library.—C. G. LELAND, New York.
Is the Public Library a Promptuary for the Public Schools?—N. D. C. HODGES, Ohio.
The Library as an Adjunct to the Secondary School.—E. O. HOLLAND, Kentucky.
Some Library Experiments in Nebraska.—CLARA B. MASON, Nebraska.
Library Instruction in the Normal School.—WILLIAM M. BRETT, Ohio, and Others.

1904 Library Work in Normal Schools.—THEODORE N. NOSS, Pennsylvania.
The Duty of the Normal School in Relation to District School Libraries.—JASPER N. WILKINSON, Kansas.
The Place of the Library in School Instruction.—CLARENCE E. MELENEY, New York.

1905 Libraries and Library Privileges for Villages and Rural Communities.—C. P. CARY, Wisconsin.
Methods of Instruction in the Use of High-School Libraries.—FLORENCE M. HOPKINS, Michigan.
How to Make the Library Useful to High-School Pupils.—ROBERT H. WRIGHT, Maryland.
What Children Do Read and What They Ought to Read.—G. STANLEY HALL, Massachusetts.
The Value and Place of Fairy Stories in the Education of Children.—PERCIVAL CHUBB, New York.

THE DEPARTMENT OF SPECIAL EDUCATION

This department was organized at the meeting in Milwaukee, Wis., in 1897, as the Department for the Education of the Deaf, Blind, and Feeble-minded. This title was not entirely satisfactory to those who were instrumental in organizing the department, since the petition had suggested the name, Department for the Education of Classes Requiring Special Methods of Instruction. The Department was, therefore, more commonly known as Department Sixteen, that being the number of the department in the order of organization.

At the Minneapolis meeting in 1902, on the application of the department thru its president Dr. Alexander Graham Bell, the Board of Directors voted unanimously to change the name to the Department of Special Education.

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Pres., J. C. GORDON, Washington, D. C.
V.-Pres., SARAH FULLER, Boston, Mass.
Sec. and Treas., MARY MCCOWEN, Chicago, Ill.

1899 LOS ANGELES, CAL.
Pres., J. C. GORDON, Jacksonville, Ill.
V.-Pres., Deaf, Mrs. JENNIE B. HOLDEN, San Francisco, Cal.
V-P., Blind, F. H. HALL, Jacksonville, Ill.
V.-P., Deaf, A. E. OSBORNE, Glen Ellen, Cal.
Sec., MARY MCCOWEN, Chicago, Ill.

1900 CHARLESTOWN, S. C.
Pres., WARRING WILKINSON, Berkeley, Cal.
V.-P., Deaf, MARY MCCOWEN, Chicago, Ill.
V.-P., Blind, E. E. ALLEN, Overbrook, Pa.
V.-P., Deaf, MARGARET BANCROFT, Haddonfield, N. J.
Sec., EDWARD A. FAY, Washington, D. C.

1901 DETROIT, MICH.
Pres., MARY MCCOWEN, Chicago, Ill.
V.-Pres., E. R. JOHNSTONE, Vineland, N. J.
Sec., E. A. GRUVER, New York, N. Y.

1902 MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.
Pres., A. G. BELL, Washington, D. C.
V.-Pres., EDWARD E. ALLEN, Overbrook, Pa.
Sec., E. A. GRUVER, New York, N. Y.

1903 BOSTON, MASS.
(Special Education)
Pres., EDWARD E. ALLEN, Overbrook, Pa.
V.-Pres., MARY MCCOWEN, Chicago, Ill.
Sec., SARAH FULLER, Boston, Mass.

1904 ST. LOUIS, MO.
(Special)
Pres., J. W. JONES, Columbus, O.
V.-Pres., F. W. BOOTH, Philadelphia, Pa.
Sec., ELIZABETH VANADESTINE, Detroit, Mich.

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Pres., Miss M. BANCROFT, Haddonfield, N. J.
V.-Pres., J. H. FREEMAN, Jacksonville, Ill.
Sec., ANNA E. SCHAFFER, Madison, Wis.

1906 No Meeting

1907 LOS ANGELES, CAL.
Pres., ANNA E. SCHAFFER, Madison, Wis.
V.-Pres., S. M. GREEN, St. Louis, Mo.
Sec., E. R. JOHNSTONE, Vineland, N. J.

TOPICS

1898 The Duty of the Hour to Young Deaf Children.—MARY S. GARRETT, Pennsylvania.
Pedagogical Lessons from a Study of the Blind.—FRANK H. HALL, Illinois.
The Relation of the Deaf to the Hearing World.—ISAAC GARDNER, Arkansas.
The Trend in the Training of Backward and Mentally Deficient Children.—MARGARET BANCROFT, New Jersey.
The Relation of Language Teaching to Mental Development.—S. G. DAVIDSON, Pennsylvania.

1898 The How and the Why, of the Training of Feeble-minded Children.—MARTIN W. BARR, Pennsylvania.
Brain-Building and Mind-Building, with Special Reference to Sense-training of the Eye and Ear, and Teaching Mentally Defective Children.—ELMER GATES, Maryland.
The Wisconsin Public Day Schools for the Deaf.—ROBERT C. SPENCER, Wisconsin.
Progress in the Training of Deaf Children.—ALEXANDER GRAHAM BELL, District of Columbia.

1899 Time Allowed for the Public Schooling of Deaf as Compared with Hearing Children, and How to Make the Most of It.—CHARLES S. PERRY, California.
The Importance of Right Beginning.—HELEN TAYLOR, California.
All Along the Line.—Mrs. KATHERINE T. BINGHAM, California.
In What Respects Should the Education and Training of the Blind Differ from the Education and Training of Normal Pupils?—WARRING WILKINSON, California.

1900 The Growth and Development of Southern Schools for the Deaf.—J. R. DOBYNS, Mississippi.
The State of the Case.—MARY S. GARRETT, Pennsylvania.
Changes of Method in the Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf and Dumb.—A. L. E. CROUTER, Pennsylvania.
Statistics of Speech-Teaching in Schools for the Deaf in the U. S.—FRANK W. BOOTH, Pennsylvania.
The Higher Education of the Blind.—JOHN E. SWEARINGEN, South Carolina.
The Claims of the Feeble-minded.—MARGARET BANCROFT, New Jersey.
On the Training of the Feeble-minded.—E. R. JOHNSTONE, New Jersey.

1901 The Law and the Day School for the Deaf.—S. WESSELIUS, Michigan.
The State in Its Relation to the Defective Child.—FRANCIS BURKE BRANDT, Pennsylvania.
Some Results of Hearing Tests of Chicago School Children.—D. P. MACMILLAN, Illinois.
The Public School as a Social Center.—CORA STANTON BROWN, Indiana.

1902 President's Address—Education of Special Classes.—ALEXANDER GRAHAM BELL, District of Columbia.
Response to the Address of Welcome at the Opening Session.—W. T. HARRIS, District of Columbia.
Lessons to be Learned by the General Teacher from Teaching Language to the Deaf.—F. W. BOOTH, Pennsylvania.
What Is Minnesota Doing for Her Deaf Children?—J. N. TATE, Minnesota.
What Is Minnesota Doing for Her Blind Children?—B. P. CHAPPLE, Minnesota.
Whas Is Minnesota Doing for Her Feeble-minded and Epileptics.—A. C. ROGERS, Minnesota.
Schools for the Deaf in America Compared with Those in Italy.—G. FERRERI, Italy.
The Organization of Associations of Parents of Deaf Children as an Aid to Schools.—Mrs. HELEN M. HEFFERAN, Illinois,
Necessary Evils.—JAMES J. DOW, Minnesota.

1903 Influence of the Study of the Unusual Child upon the Teaching of the Usual.—FRANK H. HALL, Illinois, and Others.
Should the Scope of the Public-School System Be Broadened so as to Take in All Children of Capable Education?—If So, How Should This Be Done?—MARY C. GREENE, England.
How Can the Term "Charitable" Be Justly Applied to the Education of Any Children?—EDWARD ALLEN FAY, District of Columbia.
What Teachers Need to Know about Sense Defects and Impediments.—CLARENCE JOHN BLAKE, Massachusetts, and Others.

1904 Presidential Address—The Education of Special Classes.—J. W. JONES, Ohio.
What Teachers May Learn from the Model School for the Deaf and Blind, and Their Exhibits.—S. M. GREEN, Missouri.
Sight and Hearing in Relation to Education.—OSCAR CHRISMAN, Ohio.
Report of the Committee on Statistics of Defective Sight and Hearing of Public School Children.—F. W. BOOTH, chairman.
The Chicago Hospital School for Nervous and Delicate Children—Its Educational and Scientific Methods.—MARY R. CAMPBELL, Illinois.

1905 President's Address—Scientific Methods in Education of Special Classes.—Margaret Bancroft, New Jersey.
The Physical Betterment of the Mentally Deficient.—J. H. McKee, Pennsylvania.
Concerning Our Limitations in Educating Mentally Deficient Children.—Mary E. Pogue, Wisconsin.
What Has Been Done with One Deaf Child in His Own Home.—Anna C. Reinhardt, Pennsylvania.
The Schools for the Feeble-minded.—E. R. Johnstone, New Jersey.
Extracts from a Recent Investigation in Sociology.—Mary R. Campbell, Maryland.
All Crime Is Disease.—Arthur B. Linsley, Pennsylvania.

DEPARTMENT OF INDIAN EDUCATION

OFFICERS

1900 CHARLESTON, S. C.
Pres., Major R. H. Pratt, Carlisle, Pa.
V.-Pres., M. E. Gates, Washington, D. C.
Sec., Edgar A. Allen, Albuquerque, N. M.

1901 DETROIT, MICH.
Pres., H. B. Frissell, Hampton, Va.
V.-Pres., Estelle Reel, Washington, D. C.
Sec., F. F. Avery, Miles, Wash.

1902 MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.
Pres., S. M. McCowan, Phoenix, Ariz.
V.-Pres., H. B. Frissell, Hampton, Va.
Sec., Estelle Reel, Washington, D. C.

1903 BOSTON, MASS.
Pres., H. B. Peairs, Lawrence, Kans.
V.-Pres., S. M. McCowan, Chilocco, Okla.
Sec., Estelle Reel, Washington, D. C.

1904 ST. LOUIS, MO.
Pres., R. A. Cochran, Talklai, Ariz.
V.-Pres., H. B. Peairs, Lawrence, Kans.
Sec., Estelle Reel, Washington, D. C.

1905 ASBURY PARK and OCEAN GROVE, N. J.
Pres., W. A. Mercer, Carlisle, Pa.
V.-Pres., R. A. Cochran, Talklai, Ariz.
Sec., Estelle Reel, Washington, D. C.

1906 No Meeting

1907 LOS ANGELES, CAL.
Pres., Harwood Hall, Riverside, Cal.
V.-Pres., R. A. Cochran, Mt. Pleasant, Mich.
Sec., Estelle Reel, Washington, D. C.

TOPICS

1900 The Indian Problem.—H. B. Frissell, Virginia.
The Proper Relation between Literary and Industrial Education in Indian Schools.—A. J. Standing, Pennsylvania.
The Health of the Indian.—C. C. Wainwright, California.
The Training of Teachers for Indian Schools.—Charles Bartlett Dyke, Virginia.
The Teaching of Trades to the Indian.—F. K. Rogers, Virginia.
The Training of the Indian Girl as the Uplifter of the Home.—Josephine E. Richards, Virginia.
Kindergarten Work among the Indians.—Blanche Finley, Virginia.
Sanitary Conditions among the Indians.—J. G. Bulloch, South Dakota.
Practical Methods in Indian Education.—John Seger, Oklahoma.

1901 President's Address—Learning by Doing in Indian Education.—H. B. Frissell, Virginia.
Civilization and Higher Education.—W. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
The Reservation Day School Should Be the Prime Factor in Indian Education.—C. C. Covey, South Dakota.
The Unification of Industrial and Academic Features of the Indian Schools.—O. H. Bakeless, Pennsylvania.
What Shall Be Taught in an Indian School?—Calvin W. Woodward, Missouri.
An All-round Mechanical Training for Indians.—Frank K. Rogers, Virginia.
Character-Building among Indian Children.—Cora M. Folsom, Virginia.
The Indian Day School the Gradual Uplifter of the Tribe.—Sister Macaria Murphy, Wisconsin.
Introspection: A Study of Indian Schools.—E. A. Allen, Indian Territory.
Discussion: What Should Be the Percentage of Indian Blood to Entitle Pupils to the Rights of Government Schools?—H. B. Peairs, Kansas.
Discussion: How Can We Secure the Systematic Transfer of Pupils from Day to Reservation Schools, and from Reservation to Non-Reservation Schools?—J. C. Hart, Wisconsin.
Discussion: Children Should at Least Be Able to Speak, Read, and Write the English Language, before Being Placed in a Non-Reservation School.—C. F. Pierce, South Dakota.

1901 Discussion: The Indian Employee.—C. J. CRANDALL, New Mexico.
Discussion: The Necessity of Teaching the Boy to Improve the Allotment the Government Has Given Him.—F. F. AVERY, Washington.
Discussion: Practical Methods in Indian Education.—S. M. MCCOWAN, New Mexico.
Discussion: The Future of the Pueblo Indian.—MARY DISSETTE, New Mexico.
Discussion: The Necessity for a Large Agricultural School in the Indian Service.—C. W. GOODMAN, Oklahoma.
Discussion: Compulsory Education.—H. B. PEAIRS, Kansas.

1902 The Teaching of Agriculture with Reference to Future Employment.—L. M. COMPTON, Wisconsin.
Drawbacks to Civilization and Citizenship.—H. G. WILSON, Arizona.
How to Teach the Indian Boys and Girls to Become Homemakers, especially from an Agricultural Standpoint.—R. D. SHUTT, Washington.
The Value of the Outing System for Girls.—LAURA JACKSON, Pennsylvania.
The Need of Home Societies for the Encouragement and Protection of Indian Young Men and Women.—JOSEPH C. HART, Wisconsin.
Tuberculosis—How Caused and How Prevented.—JAMES S. PERKINS, Arizona.
Opportunity and Judicious Direction for the Indian.—C. W. CROUSE, Arizona.
The Advantages to the Pupil of Classroom Work as Outlined in the Course of Study.—Mrs. LUCY P. HART, Wisconsin.
The Education of the Indian Should Be Adapted to His Needs.—ALICE ROBERTSON, Indian Territory.
The Value of a Large Agricultural School in the Indian Service.—S. M. MCCOWAN, Oklahoma.
Correlation of the Schoolroom and Farm Work.—E. C. NARDIN, Michigan.
What Is Our Aim?—E. A. ALLEN, Pennsylvania.
The Advisability of Having Schools of Moderate Size in Order That Pupils May Receive More Individual Training.—H. M. NOBLE, North Dakota.
Needed Changes in Indian Schools.—A. C. WRIGHT, District of Columbia.
Best Method of Effecting Transfers of Pupils.—A. J. STANDING, Pennsylvania.

To What Extent Do Agents and Superintendents Read the Rules and Regulations?—THOMAS W. POTTER, Oregon.
The Value of Day Schools.—JAMES J. DUNCAN, South Dakota.
The Necessity for Books, Especially Those Adapted to Indian Children.—CLAUDE C. COVEY, South Dakota.
Newspapers in Indian Schools.—W. T. HARRIS, District of Columbia.

1903 Résumé of Progress in Indian Education.—CURTIS GUILD, JR., Massachusetts.
President's Address—Our Work: Its Progress and Needs.—H. B. PEAIRS, Kansas.
To What Degree Has the Present System of Indian Schools Been Successful in Qualifying for Citizenship?—H. B. FRISSELL, Virginia.
Alaska's Start toward Citizenship.—SHELDON JACKSON, District of Columbia.
The White Man's Burden *versus* Indigenous Development for the Lower Races.—G. STANLEY HALL, Massachusetts.
Heart Culture in Indian Education.—CHARLES F. MESERVE, North Carolina.
Tenure in the Civil Service.—JOHN T. DOYLE, District of Columbia.

1904 Efficiency in the Indian Service.—JOHN T. DOYLE, District of Columbia.
Indian Music and Indian Education.—NATALIE CURTIS, New York.

1905 Résumé of Work in Indian Schools.—JOHN J. FITZGERALD and Others.
Music of the American Indian.—NATALIE CURTIS, New York.
Ethnological Study of Our Indians in the Southwest.—MABELLE BIGGART, New York.
Teaching Indian Pupils to Speak English.—REUBEN PERRY, Arizona.
Indian Characteristics.—MARY C. JUDD, Minnesota.
The Work of the Bureau of Plant Industry, in Its Relation to Agricultural Instruction in Indian Schools.—SUSAN B. SIPE, District of Columbia.
Indian Education and Methods of Instruction.—Mrs. AMELIA S. QUINTON, New York.
The Advisability of Conducting Normal Schools to Train Teachers for Indian Schools.—JOHN D. BENEDICT, Indian Territory.
The Necessity for More and Better-Equipped Day Schools.—J. J. DUNCAN, South Dakota.

SPECIAL TOPICS

PAPERS READ BEFORE THE INTERNATIONAL CONGRESSES OF EDUCATION HELD UNDER THE AUSPICES OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION AT CHICAGO, ILL., JULY, 1893[1]

GENERAL SESSION

1893 The Relation between Educational Methods and Educational Ends.—Rt. Rev. JOHN J. KEANE, District of Columbia.
Legal Education in the United States.—L. DIMSCHA, Russia.
The Present Situation of Education in France.—GABRIEL COMPAYRÉ, France.
A Perfect Physical Education Is Indispensable in Order to Produce an Ideal Education.—L. M. TORNGREN, Sweden.
Joseph Peter Varela and the Progress of Education in Uruguay.—ALBERTO GOMEZ RUANO, Uruguay.
Present Condition of the Public Schools of Uruguay.—ALBERTO GOMEZ RUANO, Uruguay.
Training of Teachers in High Schools in Sweden.—EDWARD OSTERBERG, Sweden.

CONGRESS OF SCHOOL SUPERVISION

How to Improve the Work of Inefficient Teachers.—FRANK A. FITZPATRICK, Nebraska.
Who Shall Appoint Teachers, and on Whose Nomination?—H. S. TARBELL, Rhode Island.
Grading and Classification of Pupils.—Mrs. ELLA F. YOUNG, Illinois.

THE CONGRESS OF HIGHER EDUCATION

Opening Address—The Organization and Functions of the American University.—DANIEL C. GILMAN, Maryland.
How Far Is It Desirable that Universities Should Be of One Type?—MARTIN KELLOGG, California.
The Division of Labor in the University.—GIUSEPPE ALLIEVO, Italy.
Should an Antecedent Liberal Education Be Required of Students in Law, Medicine, and Theology?—WOODROW WILSON, New Jersey.
Should Greek Be Required for the Degree of Bachelor of Arts?—W. G. HALE, Illinois.
What Signs of Improvement Are Visible in the Undergraduate Life of American Students?—BRADFORD PAUL RAYMOND, Connecticut.
Relation of Professional Schools to the University.—SETH LOW, New York.
The Evolution of Liberal Education.—ANDREW F. WEST, New Jersey.
On What Conditions Should the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy Be Given?—WILLIAM O. SPROULL, Ohio.
The Relation of Our Colleges and Universities to the Advancement of Our Civilization.—Rt. Rev. JOHN J. KEANE, District of Columbia.
The Study of English Literature in French Universities.—ANDRE L. CHEVRILLON, France.

THE CONGRESS OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

Supervision of Private Schools by the State or Municipal Authorities.—JAMES C. MACKENZIE, New Jersey.
The Course of Study in Secondary Schools.—G. N. CARMAN, Illinois.
Should the Amount of Time Given to Languages in Our Secondary Schools Be Diminished in Order to Make Room for a More Extended Course in Physics, Botany, and Chemistry?—CECIL F. P. BANCROFT, Massachusetts.
Should Language Studies Be Limited in Secondary Schools in the Interests of the Sciences?—D. W. ABERCROMBIE, Massachusetts.
The Secondary Education of Girls in France, —Mlle. MARIE DUGARD, France.
The Professional Training of Teachers for Secondary Schools.—Miss E. P. HUGHES, England.
High School for Girls in England.—MARY GURNEY; ROSE KINGSLEY, England.
Which Should Come First, Latin, or Some Modern Language?—W. WILBERFORCE SMITH, New Jersey.

[1] These papers were all printed in the volume of *Proceedings* for 1893, and are indexed in the General Index.

THE CONGRESS OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

1893 Opening Address—The Importance of Elementary Education.—JOHN EATON, District of Columbia.
Essentials in a Course of Study for Children.—JOSEPH L. PICKARD, Iowa.
What Should Be the Curriculum in Public Schools?—Some Aspects of the Question in France.—M. B. BUISSON, France.
What Should Be Added to the Essential Branches of the Elementary Course of Study to Meet the Industrial Needs of the Localities?—C. M. WOODWARD, Missouri.
What Should Be Added to the Elementary Branches?—ALBERT P. MARBLE, Massachusetts.
What Special Work Should Be Undertaken in the Elementary School to Prepare the Pupils for the Duties of Citizenship?—WM. A. MOWRY, Massachusetts.
The Value of the Elementary School for the Social Virtues and for Training for the Right Exercise of the Duties of Citizens.—CATHARINE H. SPENCE, South Australia.
Methods of Teaching History to Children.—Mrs. MARY H. PEABODY, New York.
School Savings Banks in the United States.—J. H. THIRY, New York.
School Savings Banks in France.—GUSTAVE SERRURIER, France.
The Public Educational System of Sweden.—N. G. W. LAGERSTEDT, Sweden.
Religion in the School.—EMERSON E. WHITE, Ohio.
Adaptation of Methods of Instruction to Special Conditions of the Child.—ALEXANDER GRAHAM BELL, District of Columbia.
Should Rural Schools Introduce Agriculture, Chemistry, Agricultural Botany or Arboriculture?—ERGRAFF DE KOVALEVSKY, Russia.
Confucius and His Educational Ideas.—HIDESABURO EUDO, Japan.
The Use of Magic Lanterns in Schools.—GUSTAVE SERRURIER, France.
Schools for Neglected Children.—JAMES STORMONT SMALL, New Zealand.

CONGRESS OF KINDERGARTEN EDUCATION

1893 Shall Reading and Writing Be Taught in the Kindergarten?—Mrs. ALICE H. PUTNAM, Illinois.
Changes in Kindergarten Plays and Games.—SARAH A. STEWART, Pennsylvania.
The Song in the Kindergarten—Its Place, Value, and the Dramatic Element.—CONSTANCE MACKENZIE, Pennsylvania.
The Organic Union of Kindergarten and Primary School.—Mrs. SARAH B. COOPER, California.
Modification in the Primary School—Discussion.—B. PICKMAN MANN, District of Columbia.
Preparation of the Kindergarten.—Mrs. LOUISA PARSONS HOPKINS, Massachusetts.
Kindergarten as a Basis for Life.—FRAU HENRIETTA SCHRADER, Berlin.
Story-Telling in the Kindergarten.—MARY T. HOTCHKISS, Wisconsin.
To What Extent Is the Use of Symbolism Justifiable in the Kindergarten?—EARL BARNES, California; Mrs. EUDORA L. HAILMANN, Indiana.
Froebel's Educational Principles in England.—EMILY A. E. SHIRREFF, London.
The Kindergarten in Austria.—Mrs. OTTILIA BONDY, Vienna.
The Real Nature of Education.—HERMANN POESCHE, Berlin.
Prevention of Criminal Idleness.—EMMA MARWEDEL, California.

CONGRESS OF PROFESSIONAL TRAINING OF TEACHERS

1893 Opening Address—Distinctive Characteristics of Training-Schools.—E. A. SHELDON, New York.
The Value of Practice Work in Model and Training-Schools.—Miss FANNIE S. GUPTILL, Minnesota.
How Should Normal-School Pupils Acquire Methods of Teaching?—GIACOMO ODDO ROMAFÉDE, Italy.
Methods of Training Teachers at the Westminster Training College, England.—JOSEPH H. COWHAM, England.
Important Necessities in Present Normal Schools.—GEORGE A. WALTON, Massachusetts.
Gradation of Normal and Training-Schools.—THOMAS KIRKLAND, Ontario.
Historical Development of Normal and Training-Schools in France.—EUGENE MARTIN, France.
Normal Schools in the State of New York.—FRANCIS J. CHENEY, New York.

1893 A Sociological Ideal View of Normal Schools.—Daniel Fulcomer, Michigan.
Should the Course of Study in Normal Schools Be Wholly Professional?—Francis B. Palmer, New York.
How Normal-School Work Differs from the Work in Secondary and in Higher Education.—Malcom MacVicar, New York.
What Should Be Required of and upon Whom Is to Be Conferred the Degree of Doctor of Pedagogy?—Jerome Allen, New York.
What Should Be Required of a Candidate for the Degree of Doctor of Pedagogy?—Edward R. Shaw, New York.
Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Pedagogy.—Charles A. McMurry, Illinois.
Higher Academic Degrees in Pedagogy.—S. G. Williams, New York.
The Candidate for the Degree of Doctor of Pedagogy Should Be Able to Make Original Investigations in Experimental Psychology.—Edgar Dubs Shimer, New York.
Should Original Investigation Be Required in Some Branch of Child-Study for the Doctor of Pedagogy Degree?—Earl Barnes, California.
Child-Study in Connection with Professional Training of Teachers.—Margaret K. Smith, New York.
The Ideal Normal School.—Edward Brooks, Pennsylvania.

CONGRESS OF ART EDUCATION

1893 Drawing from the Flat to Learn the Technique of Representation.—Henry T. Bailey, Massachusetts.
Importance of the Aesthetic Aim in Elementary Instruction in Drawing.—L. W. Miller, Pennsylvania.
Development of Art Instinct.—J. Ward Stimson, New York.
How Pupils Should Study and Analyze Works from the Great Masters.—Alfred Emerson, New York.
Methods of Art Education for the Cultivation of Artistic Taste.—J. M. Hoppin, Massachusetts.
Does Art Study Concern the Public Schools?—Mrs. Mary Dana Hicks, Massachusetts.
With What Should Drawing Begin?—Josephine C. Locke, Illinois; Mrs. Hannah Johnson Carter, Pennsylvania.
Painting and Sculpture—Discussion.—W. M. R. French, Illinois.
The Self-correcting System of Drawing.—Annie R. Osborne Moore, England.
Should Pupils Draw from the Flat?—Helen Bondy, Austria.

CONGRESS OF MUSIC EDUCATION

1893 Learning to Read Musical Notation.—Charles H. Greene, Illinois.
Physiology and Hygiene of the Vocal Organs.—John Howard, New York.
The Functions of Teachers of Vocal Music.—J. E. Lightner, Pennsylvania.

CONGRESS OF TECHNOLOGICAL INSTRUCTION

1893 Opening Address—Organization and Aims of Technological Instruction.—Francis A. Walker, Massachusetts.
Technological Schools: Their Purpose and Its Accomplishment.—Robert H. Thurston, New York.
Training for Scientific Professions.—John M. Ordway, Louisiana.
Educational Value of Exact Measurement.—M. Mayer, New Jersey.
The Educational Value of Applied Mathematics, Including Engineering.—F. R. Hutton, New York.
Shop-Work and Drawing as Means of Developing Slow Pupils.—R. H. Richards, Massachusetts.
The Educational Process of Training an Engineer.—G. Lanza, Massachusetts.
Educational Value of Applied Mathematics and Engineering.—Henry T. Eddy, Indiana.

CONGRESS OF INDUSTRIAL AND MANUAL INSTRUCTION

1893 Introductory Address—Modern Demands on Education.—John D. Runkle, Massachusetts.
New Demands upon Schools by the World's Industries.—C. M. Woodward, Missouri.

1893 Sloyd for Elementary Schools Contrasted with the Russian System of Manual Training.—Gustaf Larsson, Massachusetts.
Manual Training in Russia.—E. Kovalevsky, Russia.
Industrial and Manual Training in the School Course.—W. B. Powell, District of Columbia.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION

1893 Opening Address—The Physical Education Movement.—Edward M. Hartwell, Massachusetts.
Some Unsolved Problems in Physical Education.—T. D. Wood, California.
Training of the Human Body.—Angelo Mosso, Italy.
Psychological Aspect of Exercises with and without Apparatus.—G. W. Fitz, Massachusetts.
Physical Exercises for School Purposes—How Selected and Graded.—J. Gardner Smith, New York.
The Regulation of Athletic Sports in Colleges.—R. Tait McKenzie, Montreal.
English Experience in Providing the Poor of Cities with Parks, Gardens, Gymnasia, and Playgrounds.—The Earl of Meath, London.
Physical Training of Criminals.—Hamilton D. Wey, New York.
The North American Turner-Bund—Its History, Aims, and Achievements.—Hugo Muench, Missouri.
The Royal Central Institute of Gymnastics in Stockholm.—L. M. Torngren, Sweden.
History of Physical Education in Denmark.—Joakim Larson, Copenhagen.
Gymnastics in the Kingdom of Saxony—A Historical Review.—Moritz Zettler, Saxony.
Physical Education of the Deaf and Dumb.—Albert Gutzman, Prussia.

CONGRESS OF RATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

1893 Reality—What Place It Should Hold in Philosophy.—James McCosh, New Jersey.
Can Psychology Be Founded upon the Study of Consciousness Alone, or Is Physiology Needed for the Purpose?—Josiah Royce, Massachusetts.
The Soul as the Basal Concept of Rational Psychology.—G. T. Ormond, New Jersey.
The Theory of the First Principle in the Eleventh Book of Aristotle's Metaphysics.—Augustine F. Hewit, District of Columbia.
Self-Activity in Education.—J. G. Schurman, New York.
Wundt's Psychology of the Will.—E. B. Titchener, New York.

CONGRESS OF EXPERIMENTAL PSYCHOLOGY

1893 Child-Study as a Basis for Psychology and Psychological Teaching.—G. Stanley Hall, Massachusetts.
Child-Study as the Basis of Pedagogy.—William H. Burnham, Massachusetts.
The Dominant Seventh in Education.—Hattie E. Hunt, Connecticut.
Mental Waste and Economy.—G. T. W. Patrick, Iowa.
Dreaming and Poetic Invention.—James Sully, England.
The Language of Children.—F. Tracy, Massachusetts.
Application of the Laws of Physical Training for the Prevention and Cure of Stuttering.—Edward Mussey Hartwell, Massachusetts.
Observation and Study of Movement and Mental Status.—Francis Warner, England.
Some Association Tracks Involved in Reading and Spelling.—Thomas M. Balliet, Massachusetts.
Constitutional Bad Spellers.—Adelaide E. Wyckoff, New York.
The Theological Life of a California Child.—Earl Barnes, California.
The First Two Years of the Child.—Millicent W. Shinn, Ohio.
A Plea for Special Child-Study.—W. L. Bryan, Indiana.
Eye and Ear Mindedness.—W. L. Bryan, Indiana.
The New Psychology in Normal Schools.—Lillie A. Williams, New Jersey.

CONGRESS OF BUSINESS EDUCATION

1893 The Evolution of Business Colleges.—S. S. Packard.
Practical Advantages of a Commercial College Training.—George Soulé, Louisiana.

1893 The Relation of Business Instruction to Industrial, Commercial, and Financial Interests.—A. D. Wilt, Ohio.
The Higher Aspects of Business Education.—R. E. Gallagher, Ontario.
Stenography and Typewriting as Branches of Business Education.—Isaac S. Dement, Illinois.
The World's Need of Business Women.—Mrs. Sara A. Spencer, District of Columbia.
Reciprocal Relations and Benefits of Business and Other Departments of Education.—Ira Mayhew, Michigan.
A Business Man's Education—James MacAlister, Pennsylvania.

CONGRESS OF EDUCATIONAL JOURNALISM

1893 Present Ideals in Educational Journalism.—C. C. Rounds, New Hampshire.
Educational Journalism in New England.—W. A. Mowry, Massachusetts.
Dr. Barnard's American Journal of Education.—Will S. Monroe, California.
The Purpose and Reward of Educational Journals.—Amos M. Kellogg, New York.
Educational Journals in New York.—C. W. Bardeen, New York.
Educational Journalism in Ohio.—Samuel Findley, Ohio.
Educational Journalism in Indiana.—George F. Bass, Indiana.
School Journalism in Michigan.—Henry A. Ford, Michigan.
Educational Journals in Illinois.—John W. Cook, Illinois.
Educational Journalism in Iowa.—Henry Sabin.
The Educational Papers in Missouri.—H. A. Gass, Missouri.
Educational Journalism in Utah, Colorado, and Kansas.—John MacDonald, Kansas.
Educational Journalism in France.—Gabriel Compayré, France.

APPENDIX

1893 University Education for Women in England.—Mrs. Henry Fawcett, England.
A Few Words of Retrospect and Forecast.—Dorothea Beale, England.
University Association of Women Teachers.—Constance Elder, England.
Elementary Education in England.—Rosamond Davenport Hill, England.
National Education in Scotland.—Flora C. Stevenson, Scotland.
Women Students in the Scottish Universities.—Louisa Stevenson, England.
Convent Education.—F. M. L., Principal of a Training College, England.
Women's Education in New Zealand.—Mrs. Steadman Aldis, England.
Educational Work for Women in Australia, Chiefly New South Wales.—Louisa MacDonald, Australia.
Recent Developments of Education for the Women and Girls of India.—E. A. Manning, India.
English Orphanage and Training School in Bosnia, 1869–1892.—Miss A. T. Irby.
Elementary and Secondary Education in Cape Colony, Africa.—Miss May Bengough, South Africa.
Public Instruction in Italy.—Egisto Rossi, Rome.
Needlework in the Public Schools of Stockholm.—Mrs. Hulda Lundin, Sweden.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE OF TEN ON SECONDARY STUDIES[1]

1893 Report of Committee of Ten with Membership of Committee and of Nine Conferences.—Chas. W. Eliot, president.
Report of Conference on Latin.—Wm. Gardner Hale, Illinois, chairman.
Report of Conference on Greek.—Martin L. D'Ooge, Michigan, chairman.
Report of Conference on English.—Samuel Thurber, Massachusetts, chairman.
Report of Conference on Other Modern Languages.—Chas. Grandgent, Massachusetts, chairman.
Report of the Conference on Mathematics.—Simon Newcomb, Maryland, chairman.
Report of Conference on Physics, Chemistry, and Astronomy.—Ira Remson, Maryland, chairman.
Report of Conference on Natural History.—W. B. Powell, District of Columbia, chairman.

[1] The following papers and reports were printed only in pamphlet form, and do not appear in any volume of *Proceedings;* they are included in the General Index.

1893 Report of Conference on History, Civil Government, and Political Economy.—Chas. Kendall Adams, Wisconsin, chairman.
Report of Conference on Geography.—T. C. Chamberlin, Illinois, Chairman.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON SALARIES, TENURE OF OFFICE AND PENSIONS OF TEACHERS[1]

1905 Report of Committee on Salaries, Tenure of Office, and Pensions of Teachers.—Carroll D. Wright, chairman.
Percentage of Families Living on Farms in the United States in 1900 by States.
Salaries of Teachers in Cities and Towns of 8,000 Population or Over.
Table A. Number and Average Yearly Salaries of Principals and Teachers, and of Principals and Teachers Combined, in High and Elementary Schools, by Groups of Cities.
Table B. Number of High-School Teachers (not Including Principals) in Receipt of Each Classified Salary, by Groups of Cities.
Table C. Per Cent. of High-School Teachers (not Including Principals) in Receipt of Each Classified Salary.
Table D. Number of Principals of Elementary Schools in Receipt of Each Classified Salary.
Table E. Per cent. of Principals of Elementary Schools in Receipt of Each Classified Salary.
Table F. Number of Elementary-School Teachers (not Including Principals) in Receipt of Each Classified Salary.
Table G. Per cent. of Elementary-School Teachers (not Including Principals) in Receipt of Each Classified Salary.
Summary and Analysis of Salary Tables of Cities Classified by Size.
Salaries Summarized by States, with Various Tables.
The Sex of Teachers in High and Elementary Schools.
Salaries of Supervisors and Special Teachers.
Salary Schedules in Cities and Towns of 8,000 Population or Over.
Salaries of Teachers in Typical Towns of Less than 8,000 Population
Salaries of Teachers in Typical Ungraded Rural Schools.
Funds for Payment of Teachers' Salaries.
Minimum Salary Laws.
Earnings in Teaching and in Other Occupations Compared.
Purchasing Power of Salaries in Different Localities.
Tenure of Office of Teachers.
Pensions of Teachers.
General Tables of Salaries of Teachers in Cities and Towns of 8,000 Population or Over.
Table I. Number and Minimum, Maximum, and Average Yearly Salaries of Principals and Teachers in High and Elementary Schools and Kindergartens.
Table II. Classified Yearly Salaries of Teachers (not Including Principals) in High Schools.
Table III. Classified Yearly Salaries of Principals of Elementary Schools.
Classified Yearly Salaries of Teachers (not Including Principals) in Elementary Schools.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION IN SCHOOLS FOR RURAL COMMUNITIES[2]

1905 Report of Committee of Industrial Education in Rural Communities.—L. D. Harvey, Wisconsin, chairman.
Arguments for Industrial Education in Schools for Rural Communities.
What Industrial Education Should Be Undertaken in Rural Schools.
Industrial Education in the One-Room Rural School; Courses of Study in Zoölogy and Botany.
Agriculture in School Years 6 to 8.
Industrial Education in the Consolidated School.
Secondary Schools of Agriculture and Domestic Economy in Rural Communities.

[1] The following topics of this report are not included in any volume of *Proceedings*, but were published in a separate pamphlet. They are included in the General Index.

[2] The following papers and reports are not included in any volume of *Proceedings*, but were published in a separate pamphlet. They are included in the General Index.

1905 Preparation of Teachers for Domestic Instruction in Rural Schools.
Agencies Available for Co-operation with the Schools in the Development of Industrial Education.
Dunn County School of Agriculture and Domestic Economy.—Appendix A.
The Minnesota Agricultural High School.—Appendix B.
Industrial Courses in the Consolidated Rural School.
The Agricultural High School and the Agricultural College Articulated.—WILLET M. HAYS, Minnesota.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON TAXATION AS RELATED TO PUBLIC EDUCATION[1]

1905 Report of Committee of Taxation as Related to Public Education.—JAMES M. GREENWOOD, Missouri, chairman.
Table I. School Expenditures Classified.
Table II. Cost of Instruction as Compared with Other Expenditures.
Table III. Relation of Maintenance of Schools to Total City Operating Expenses.
Table IV. Classification of School Expenses in Cities by Groups.
Methods of School Taxation in New York City.—WM. H. MAXWELL, New York.
Taxation for School Purposes.—NATHAN C. SCHAEFFER, Pennsylvania.
Twenty-five Years' Progress of Public Education in North Carolina, with Various Tables.—CHARLES D. MCIVER, North Carolina; CHARLES L. COON, North Carolina.
Taxation for School Purposes in Pennsylvania.—N. C. SCHAEFFER, Pennsylvania.
Method of Taxation for School Purposes in Indiana.—JOHN W. CARR, Indiana.
Table V. Cost of Maintenance of Schools Compared with Each of the Other Municipal Departments in the 137 Cities of Largest Population.—Arranged by W. T. HARRIS, District of Columbia.
Table VI. Value of Property, Comparative Cost of Schools, and Wages Earned in the 137 Cities of Largest Population.

SPELLING-REFORM ASSOCIATION

1879 The Present State of the Spelling Reform in America.—F. A. MARCH.
Spelling Reform in England.—E. JONES.
The Etymologic Objection to Spelling Reform.—S. S. HALDEMANN.
Spelling Reform in Journalism.—S. N. D. NORTH.
The Potency of Caprice (Abstract).—W. T. HARRIS.
Remarks.—J. M. GREGORY.
The Duty of Our Colleges Toward the Spelling Reform.—W. G. BALLANTINE.
Opening Remarks.—F. A. MARCH.
Remarks by TOBIAS WITMER.

[1] The following papers and reports are not included in any volume of *Proceedings*, but were published in a separate pamphlet. They are included in the General Index.

BIBLIOGRAPHY OF TOPICS FROM 1857 TO 1907

CLASSIFICATION

1. AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION.
2. AMERICAN PUBLIC EDUCATION.
3. ARCHITECTURE.
   ARITHMETIC, *see* Mathematics as a Subject of Study.
4. ART EDUCATION.
   ATHLETICS, *see* Physical Education.
5. BIOGRAPHY.
6. BIOLOGICAL SCIENCES, *see also* Science Teaching.
7. BLIND, EDUCATION OF THE.
   BUILDINGS, *see* Architecture.
   BUSINESS EDUCATION, *see* Commercial Education.
8. CHILD-STUDY.
9. CITY-SCHOOL SYSTEMS.
10. CLASSICAL EDUCATION.
11. COEDUCATION.
12. COLLEGE ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS, *see also* Examinations.
    COLLEGES, *see* Higher Education.
13. COMMERCIAL EDUCATION.
14. COMPULSORY EDUCATION.
    CORPORAL PUNISHMENT, *see* Government and Discipline of Schools.
    COUNTRY SCHOOLS, *see* Rural Schools.
15. CURRICULUM, *see also* Elective Studies; Names of Separate Studies.
16. DEFECTIVES AND DELINQUENTS (other than blind), EDUCATION OF.
    DRAWING, *see* Art Education.
17. EDUCATIONAL LITERATURE.
18. EDUCATION; THEORY, PHILOSOPHY, NATURE, AND MEANING, *see also* Psychology and Education.
19. ELECTIVE STUDIES.
20. ELEMENTARY EDUCATION, *see also* Kindergarten.
21. ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE AS SUBJECTS OF STUDY, *see also* Spelling.
22. EXAMINATIONS, *see also* College Entrance Requirements.
23. EXHIBITIONS AND MUSEUMS.
24. FINANCES AND TAXATION, *see also* Pensions for Teachers; Salaries of Teachers; Supervision, Organization, and Administration.
25. GEOGRAPHY AS A SUBJECT OF STUDY.
26. GOVERNMENT AND DISCIPLINE OF SCHOOLS.
    GRADING, *see* Supervision, Organization, and Administration.
    GRAMMAR, *see* English Language and Literature.
    GREEK, *see* Classical Education.
    GYMNASTICS, *see* Physical Education.
    HIGH SCHOOLS, *see* City-School Systems; Secondary Education.
27. HIGHER EDUCATION—COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES, *see also* College Entrance Requirements.
28. HISTORY OF EDUCATION.
29. HISTORY TEACHING.
    HYGIENE, *see* School Hygiene.
30. INDIAN EDUCATION; AND OTHER MINOR ALIEN RACES.
31. INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION, *see also* Agricultural Education; Manual Training; Technical Education.

32. KINDERGARTEN.
LATIN, *see* Classical Education.
LAWS, *see* School Laws.
33. LIBRARY AND SCHOOL.
34. MANUAL TRAINING, *see also* Industrial Education.
35. MATHEMATICS AS A SUBJECT OF STUDY, *see also* Science Teaching.
MODERN LANGUAGES, *see* Curriculum.
MORAL EDUCATION, *see* Religious and moral Education.
36. MUSIC IN SCHOOLS.
37. NATURE-STUDY, *see also* Science Teaching.
NECROLOGY, *see* Biography.
38. NEGRO EDUCATION.
39. NORMAL SCHOOLS AND TRAINING OF TEACHERS.
PEDAGOGY, *see* Child-Study; Education—Theory, Philosophy, Nature, and Meaning; Psychology and Education; Teaching—Principles and Methods.
40. PENSIONS FOR TEACHERS.
41. PHYSICAL EDUCATION.
42. PHYSICAL SCIENCES, *see also* Science Teaching.
PRIMARY EDUCATION, *see* Elementary Education.
PROMOTIONS, *see* Supervision, Organization and Administration.
43. PSYCHOLOGY AND EDUCATION, *see also* Child-Study; Education—Theory, Philosophy, Nature, and Meaning.
PUBLIC SCHOOLS, *see* American Public Education; City-School Systems; Rural Schools; Secondary Education—High Schools.
PUNISHMENT, *see* Government and Discipline of Schools.
RACE EDUCATION, *see* Indian Education; Negro Education.
READING, *see* English Language and Literature.
44. RELIGIOUS AND MORAL EDUCATION.
45. RURAL SCHOOLS.
46. SALARIES OF TEACHERS, *see also* Pensions for Teachers.
SCHOOL GARDENS, *see* Agricultural Education.
SCHOOL HOUSES, *see* Architecture.
47. SCHOOL HYGIENE.
48. SCHOOL LAWS.
49. SCIENCE TEACHING, *see also* Biological Sciences; Mathematics; Nature-Study; Physical Sciences.
50. SECONDARY EDUCATION—HIGH SCHOOLS, *see also* City-School Systems.
51. SPELLING.
52. STATE AND EDUCATION.
STATISTICS, *see* Supervision.
SUNDAY SCHOOLS, *see* Religious and Moral Education.
SUPERINTENDENT, *see* City-School Systems; Supervision, Organization and Administration.
53. SUPERVISION, ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION, *see also* City-School Systems; Finances and Taxation; Rural Schools.
54. TEACHERS, *see also* Normal Schools and Training of Teachers; Pensions for Teachers; Salaries of Teachers.
55. TEACHING—PRINCIPLES AND METHODS, *see also* Education—Theory, Philosophy, and Nature; Psychology and Education; and names of separate studies.
56. TECHNICAL EDUCATION, *see also* Industrial Education; Manual Training.
57. TEXTBOOKS.
TRADE SCHOOLS, *see* Technical Education.
TRAINING OF TEACHERS, *see* Normal Schools.
TRUANCY, *see* Compulsory Education.
UNIVERSITIES, *see* Higher Education.
58. WOMAN'S EDUCATION AND WORK, *see also* Coeducation.
59. WRITING.

CLASSIFIED LISTS OF SUBJECTS

1. AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION

1876 What are the Legitimate Duties of an Agricultural Professor?—E. M. PENDLETON, Georgia.
1884 Arbor Day in the Public Schools.—B. G. NORTHROP, Connecticut.
Arbor Day in the Public Schools.—J. B. PEASLEE, Ohio.
1886 Forestry in Education.—WARREN HIGLEY, Ohio.
1890 The Place and Function of the Agricultural College.—LEWIS MCLOUTH, South Dakota.
The Place and Function of the Agricultural College.—D. L. KIEHLE, Minnesota.
1893 Should Rural Schools Introduce Agriculture, Chemistry, Agricultural Botany, or Arboriculture?—ERGRAFF DE KOVALEVSKY, Russia.
1901 Agriculture as a Science for the Elementary Schools.—JOSEPH CARTER, Illinois.
1902 The Value of a Large Agricultural School in the Indian Service.—S. M. MCCOWAN, Oklahoma.
Correlation of the Schoolroom and Farm Work.—E. C. NARDIN, Michigan.
The Education of the American Farmer.—JAMES WILSON, District of Columbia.
The Practical Value of Teaching Agriculture in the Public Schools.—JOSEPH CARTER, Illinois.
The Teaching of Agriculture with Reference to Future Employment.—L. M. COMPTON, Wisconsin.
1903 School Gardens, City-School Yards, and the Surroundings of Rural Schools.—ORVILLE T. BRIGHT, Illinois.
School Gardens.—HENRY LINCOLN CLAPP, Massachusetts.
1905 Report of Committee of Industrial Education in Rural Communities.—L. D. HARVEY, Wisconsin, Chairman.
Arguments for Industrial Education in Schools for Rural Communities.
What Industrial Education Should Be Undertaken in Rural Schools.
Industrial Education in the One-Room Rural School; Courses of Study in Zoölogy and Botany.
Agriculture in School Years 6 to 8.
Industrial Education in the Consolidated School.
Secondary Schools of Agriculture and Domestic Economy in Rural Communities.
Preparation of Teachers for Domestic Instruction in Rural Schools.
Agencies Available for Co-operation with the Schools in the Development of Industrial Education.
Dunn County School of Agriculture and Domestic Economy. Appendix A.
The Minnesota Agricultural High School. Appendix B.
Industrial Courses in the Consolidated Rural School.
The Agricultural High School and the Agricultural College Articulated.—WILLET M. HAYS, Minnesota.
1906 Agricultural Instruction in the Kingdom of Hungary.—BÉLA DE TORMAY, Hungary.
What Form of Industrial Training is Most Practical and Best Suited to the Country Child?—O. J. KERN, Illinois.

2. AMERICAN PUBLIC EDUCATION

1859 Suggestions on Popular Education.—H. L. STUART, New York.
1863 The Bearings of Popular Education on Civilization.—T. D. ADAMS, Massachusetts.
1864 Educational Advancement—President's Address.
Liberal Education.—S. P. BATES, Pennsylvania.
1866 The Condition of the South as Respects Education.—WM. WINES, Tennessee.
American Education for the American People—President's Address.
1869 The Criterion of School Education.—E. E. WHITE, Ohio.
1870 Theory of American Education.—W. T. HARRIS, Missouri.
1873 How Much Culture Shall Be Imparted in Our Free Schools.—RICHARD EDWARDS, Illinois.
Western University Education.—W. G. ELIOT, Missouri.
What Should Be the Leading Object of American Free Schools?—H. F. HARRINGTON, Massachusetts.
1876 Demands of the Coming Century on the American Common School.—A. D. MAYO, Massachusetts.

1876 What Is a School, etc.—J. H. Hoose, New York.
1879 The New Teacher in New America.—A. D. Mayo, Massachusetts.
1880 The Importance of Harmonizing the Primary, Secondary, and Collegiate Systems of Education.—James McCosh, New Jersey.
The Unattainable in Public-School Education.—A. P. Marble, Massachusetts.
1881 Lines of Advance.—C. C. Rounds, New Hampshire.
Some Essentials in the Development of a School System.—D. F. De Wolf, Ohio.
The Leading Characteristics of American Systems of Public Education.—J. P. Wickersham, Pennsylvania.
1882 The University—Its Place and Work in the American System of Education.—Eli T. Tappan, Ohio.
1883 The Educational Lessons of the Census.—Wm. T. Harris, Massachusetts.
1884 How a State Superintendent Can Best Advance Popular Education.—E. E. Higbee, Pennsylvania.
Needs in American Education.—Mrs. Eva D. Kellogg, Massachusetts.
1886 Necessary External Conditions.—Vinna Warr, Iowa.
What Shall Education Do for the Future of the Country?—President's Address.—N. A. Calkins, New York.
1887 Educational Influences and Results of the Ordinance of 1887. Its Adoption.
Opening Address by the President.—W. E. Sheldon, Massachusetts.
History of the Ordinance.—Israel W. Andrews, Ohio.
Lessons Taught by the Ordinance in Regard to the Future Educational Policy of Our Government.—J. L. Pickard, Iowa.
The Educational Influence and Results.—B. A. Hinsdale, Ohio.
The Influence of Its Operations.—Thos. A. Banning, Illinois.
Evening Schools.—A. P. Marble, Massachusetts.
Report on The Function of the Public School.—W. H. Payne, Michigan; W. T. Harris, Massachusetts; F. Louis Soldan, Missouri.
1888 The Schools Fail to Give a Reasonable Mastery of the Subjects Studied.—Lillie J. Martin, Indiana.
The Schools Fail to Give a Proper Preparation for Active Life.—John P. Irish, California.
The True American Idea of Labor.—W. N. Ackley, Rhode Island.
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Where Should General Education End and Special Education Begin?—J. M. Greenwood, Missouri.
1889 The Legal Status of the Public Schools.—A. S. Draper, New York.
The Problem of the Hour for Schools.—Alex. Hogg, Texas.
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The General Government and Public Education Throughout the Country.—W. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
1891 Historical Sketch of the National Educational Association.—Z. Richards, District of Columbia.
National Educational Association: Its Organization and Functions.—Wm. T. Harris.
1892 Americanism in the Public Schools.—Francis Bellamy, Massachusetts.
The Organization of American Education.—William DeWitt Hyde, Maine.
Undesirable and Desirable Uniformity in Schools.—Charles W. Eliot, Massachusetts.
1894 The Future of the American High School.—J. Remsen Bishop, Ohio.
1895 The Prospects for a Federal Educational Union.—Wm. Carey Jones, California.
1896 Presidential Address—Do Our Public Schools Meet Reasonable Expectations?—Newton C. Dougherty, Illinois.
The American Public School.—Stewart L. Woodford, New York.
The Children of Our Cities.—Mary E. McDowell, Illinois.
1897 Presidential Address—The Best Education for the Masses.—Charles R. Skinner, New York.
Some Tendencies of Modern Education.—James A. Foshay, California.
Has the Heart of This People Changed Towards Its Schools?—Carroll G. Pearse, Nebraska.
Educational Extremes.—O. T. Corson, Ohio.
What Not to Do.—Estelle Reel, Wyoming.
The Educational Outlook.—William B. Powell, District of Columbia.
The Democracy of Learning.—Lyman Abbott, New York.
The True Function of the Public School.—R. E. Sears, Iowa.

1898 President's Address—Our Educational Vitality: Some Suggested Applications.—J. M. GREENWOOD, Missouri.
The Proper Education of an American Citizen.—G. N. GRISHAM, Missouri.
Vacation Schools.—RICHARD WATERMAN, Illinois.
American Universities and the National Life.—ANDREW S. DRAPER, Illinois.
Lessons from American Educational History.—A. D. MAYO, Massachusetts.
1899 President's Address—Some Unsolved Problems in Elementary Education.—ELIPHALET ORAM LYTE, Pennsylvania.
Quo Vadium?—Mrs. HELEN L. GRENFELL, Colorado.
Some Neglected Factors and Forgotten Facts.—T. C. MENDENHALL, Massachusetts.
The Differentiation of the American Secondary School.—CHARLES H. KEYES, Massachusetts.
The Outlook in Education.—NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER, New York.
The Progress in Public Education.—F. LOUIS SOLDAN, Missouri.
Usurpation of Home by School.—AARON GOVE, Colorado.
1900 Is There a Nationality Problem in Our Schools?—MARION BROWN, Louisiana.
President's Address—Responsibilities of Educational Leadership.—OSCAR T. CORSON, Ohio.
What Manner of Child Shall This Be?—G. R. GLENN, Georgia.
1901 President's Address—The Duty of the National Educational Association in Shaping Public Educational Opinion.—JAMES M. GREEN, New Jersey.
The Public School as a Social Center.—CORA STANTON BROWN, Indiana.
1902 How the School Strengthens the Individuality of the Pupils.—W. T. HARRIS, District of Columbia.
Some Pressing Problems.—NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER, New York.
The Common-School Community.—OSSIAN H. LANG, New York.
President's Address—The Intrinsic Value of Education.—ISRAEL H. PERES, Tennessee.
1903 The Beginning and Aims of the General Education Board.—WALLACE BUTTRICK, New York.
1904 The Relation of the Church to Higher Education in the United States.—EDMUND J. JAMES, Illinois.
Vacation Schools, Playgrounds, and Recreation Centers.—EVANGELINE E. WHITNEY, New York.
The Organization of a System of Evening Schools.—THOMAS M. BALLIET, Massachusetts.
Adult Education.—HENRY M. LEIPZIGER, New York.
1905 Address by President THEODORE ROOSEVELT and Responses.
The Immigrant Child.—JULIA RICHMAN, New York.
The Nation's Educational Purpose.—ANDREW S. DRAPER, New York.
1906 Fifty Years of American Education.—ELMER ELLSWORTH BROWN.

3. ARCHITECTURE

1869 School Architecture.—WM. F. PHELPS, Minnesota.
1873 Schoolhouse Plans.—A. J. RICKOFF, Ohio.
1882 The Chemical Examination of Air as Applied to Questions of Ventilation.—CHARLES SMART, U. S. A.
Determining the Merits of the Heating and Ventilation of a School Building.—JOHN S. BILLINGS, U. S. A.
1892 The Health of School Children as Affected by School Buildings.—G. STANLEY HALL, Massachusetts.
1895 Report on the Ventilation and Heating of Schools.—D. F. LINCOLN.
1897 The Proper Use of Schoolhouses.—AARON GOVE, Colorado.
Round Table of State Superintendents.
School Architecture.—JASON E. HAMMOND, Michigan.
Schoolhouse Construction.—A. H. KIRCHNER, Missouri.
1898 The Lighting and Seating of Schoolrooms.—W. A. MOWRY, Massachusetts.
Ventilation of Schoolrooms.—A. P. MARBLE, New York.
1900 Schoolhouse Architecture.—C. H. PARSONS, Iowa.
1901 Relation of State Legislation to Modern School-Building.—C. H. PARSONS, Iowa.
1903 School Surroundings.—W. W. STETSON, Maine.
1904 The School Architecture of St. Louis.—WILLIAM B. ITTNER, Missouri.
1905 Recent Progress in School Architecture.—SEYMOUR DAVIS, Pennsylvania.
Needed Legislation in School Architecture.—C. B. J. SNYDER, New York.
1906 Rural School Architecture.—J. W. Olsen, Minnesota.

4. ART EDUCATION

1869 Drawing as a Branch of Elementary Education.—Woodman, New Hampshire.
1871 Learning to Draw.—Henry C. Harden, Massachusetts.
1872 Drawing in Graded Public Schools—What, and How to Teach It.—Walter Smith, Massachusetts.
1875 The Relation of Art to Education.—Grace C. Bibb, Missouri.
Industrial Drawing in Public Schools.—Walter Smith, Massachusetts.
1876 Drawing as an Element in Advanced Industrial Education.—C. B. Stetson, Massachusetts.
Required Adjustments in Scientific Education.—S. Edward Warren, New York.
1877 Some Reasons Why Drawing Should Be Taught in Our Public Schools.—L. S. Thompson, Indiana.
1879 Art and Drawing in Education.—Walter Smith, Massachusetts.
1883 The Teaching of Drawing in Grammar Schools.—Walter S. Perry.
1884 Technical and Art Education in Public Schools as Elements of Culture.—Felix Adler, New York.
Education of the Normal Color Sense.—B. Joy Jeffries, Massachusetts.
1885 Industrial Drawing for Primary Schools.—Chas. M. Carter.
Evening Industrial Drawing Schools.—Otto Fuchs, Maryland.
Art Education.—Otto Fuchs, Maryland.
Drawing in Primary and Grammar Schools.—Mrs. E. F. Dimmock, Illinois.
Drawing in High Schools.—Walter S. Perry.
1886 President's Address—Industrial Drawing.—W. S. Goodnough, Massachusetts.
Relations of Drawing to Other Studies.—Mrs. Mary D. Hicks, Massachusetts; W. S. Perry, Anson R. Cross.
1887 President's Address—Drawing as a Mode of Expression.—Walter S. Perry, Massachusetts.
Drawing in Primary and Grammar Schools.—Elizabeth F. Dimmock, Illinois.
Drawing in Country and Village Schools.—Walter S. Goodnough, Ohio.
Drawing in High Schools.—W. S. Perry, Massachusetts.
Drawing in the Normal Schools.—M. Louise Field, Massachusetts.
Drawing in Normal Schools.—Harriet Cecil Magee, Wisconsin.
Drawing in Ungraded or Village Schools.—Miss E. A. Hills, Minnesota.
Drawing in Normal Schools.—Report of Miss J. C. Locke, Missouri.
Drawing, Making, and Color, in Connection with Other Studies.—Mrs. Mary Dana Hicks, Massachusetts; Walter S. Perry, Massachusetts.
1888 Educational Value of Object Work.—L. S. Thompson, Indiana.
Historic Ornament and Design in Grammar and High Schools.—Henry T. Bailey, Massachusetts.
Free Industrial Evening Drawing-Schools.—G. H. Bartlett, Massachusetts.
Importance of High Aim in Art Education.—Albert H. Munsell, Massachusetts.
1889 Evolutions of Systems of Drawing in the United States.—L. S. Thompson, New Jersey.
Art Education the True Industrial Education.—Wm. T. Harris, Massachusetts.
Form-Study, and Its Applications in the Grades.—Jesse H. Brown, Indiana.
1890 Art Instruction in the High School: Its Utility and Value.—Christine Sullivan, Ohio.
High-School Work in Drawing.—Rhoda E. Selleck, Indiana.
Normal-School Work in Drawing.—Mrs. Hannah J. Carter, New York.
The Mission of Color.—Josephine C. Locke, Illinois.
The Moral Value of Art Education.—Ada M. McLaughlin, Minnesota.
Drawing—a New Method.—Frank Aborn, Ohio.
1891 Art Education in the Public Schools.—James MacAlister, Pennsylvania.
The Highest Office of Drawing.—Frank Aborn, Ohio.
Address of the President of the Art Department.—Mrs. Hannah Johnson Carter, New York.
Supervision of Form-Study and Drawing in Public Schools.—Walter S. Goodnough, New York. (Discussion.)
Color in Nature in Relation to Color in the Schoolroom.—W. A. Sherwood, Ontario.
Should Instruction in Form Be Based upon Type Solids?—Mrs. Mary Dana Hicks, Massachusetts.
The Conditions Underlying Art Education in Europe and America.—Walter S. Perry, New York.

1892 Art Instruction in Normal Schools.—ELIZABETH PERRY, Massachusetts.
President's Address—General Training Derived from Art Education.—FRANK H. COLLINS, New York.
The Aim of Art Instruction.—CHRISTINE SULLIVAN, Ohio.
The Study of Drawing as Common-School Work.—AARON GOVE, Colorado.
1893 Development of Art Instinct.—J. WARD STIMSON, New York.
Drawing from the Flat to Learn the Technique of Representation.—HENRY T. BAILEY, Massachusetts.
Does Art-Study Concern the Public Schools?—Mrs. MARY DANA HICKS, Massachusetts.
With What Should Drawing Begin?—JOSEPHINE C. LOCKE, Illinois.
Painting and Sculpture—Discussion.—W. M. R. FRENCH, Illinois.
The Self-correcting System of Drawing.—ANNIE R. OSBORNE MOORE, England.
Should Pupils Draw from the Flat?—HELEN BONDY, Austria.
How Pupils Should Analyze Works from the Great Masters.—ALFRED EMERSON, New York.
Importance of the Aesthetic Aim in Elementary Art Instruction.—L. W. MILLER, Pennsylvania.
The Cultivation of Artistic Taste.—J. M. HOPPIN, Massachusetts.
1894 Art Education—Its Influence: Industrial, Educational, Ethical.—CHRISTINE SULLIVAN, Ohio.
Art Education and Manual Training.—J. LIBERTY TADD, Pennsylvania.
Color in Public Schools.—Mrs. MARY DANA HICKS, Massachusetts.
Modeling in Public-School Work.—Mrs. E. M. KENT, Minnesota.
Drawing—Its Relation to Manual Training and the Industrial Arts.—JOHN C. MILLER, Illinois.
1895 President's Address—Extension of Art Education.—CHARLES M. CARTER, Colorado.
Art in Magazines.—J. C. DANA, Colorado.
Pictorial Drawing in Primary and Grammar Grades.—WILHELMINA SEEGMILLER, Pennsylvania.
The Place of Art Education in General Education.—JOHN S. CLARK, Massachusetts.
Methods of Teaching Drawing.—Round-Table Discussion—Mrs. MATILDA E. RILEY, Missouri.
1896 President's Address—The Training of Art Teachers.—WALTER S. GOODNOUGH, New York.
Art for the Eye.—ROSS TURNER, Massachusetts.
Art in the Schoolroom.—LANGDON S. THOMPSON, New Jersey; STELLA SKINNER, Connecticut.
Art Education in Relation to Public Education.—WALTER S. PERRY, New York.
Art Not the Servant of Science but Its Complement.—WILHELMINA SEEGMILLER, Indiana.
Shall Art Be the Servant of Science or Its Complement?—M. V. O'SHEA, New York.
1897 Problems in Drawing in Normal Schools.—HARRIET CECIL MAGEE, Wisconsin.
The Expression of Lines.—D. R. AUGSBURG, Utah.
What Do the People Want in Drawing in the Public Schools?—LILLIE M. DODDEN, Illinois.
Why Art and Literature Ought to Be Studied in Our Schools.—W. T. HARRIS, District of Columbia.
Art-Teaching in Schools.—WILLIAM H. MAXWELL, New York.
1988 President's Address—Nationality in Art.—HARRIET CECIL MAGEE, Wisconsin.
The Supervisor of Drawing in Public Schools.—FRED H. DANIELS, New York.
Some Educational Principles for the Teaching of Drawing.—M. V. O'SHEA, Wisconsin.
Report of the Committee on the Relation of the Library to Art Education.—W. M. R. FRENCH.
The Function of Art in the Education of the American Citizen.—WILLIAM ORDWAY PARTRIDGE, Massachusetts.
1899 Art in Education.—ELMER E. BROWN, California.
President's Address—Methods of Procedure in the Teaching of Art.—WILLIAM A. MASON, Pennsylvania.
Problems in Artistic Rendering.—KATHERINE M. BALL, California.
Drawing in the Early Years.—HERMAN T. LUKENS, Pennsylvania.

1899 Art Education in High Schools and Normal Schools.—Miss JOSEPHINE A. GREENE, New York.
Art Instruction in the University.—HENRY T. ARDLEY, California.
Preliminary Report of the Committee of Ten on Elementary Art Education.—LANGDON S. THOMPSON, New Jersey, Chairman.
1900 Presidential Address—FRANCES E. RANSOM, New York.
Art in Everything.—FRANCIS W. PARKER, Illinois.
Picture-Study—Its Relation to Culture and General Education.—FRED J. ORR, Georgia.
The Relative Value of Brush and Pencil as Mediums in Expression.—BONNIE SNOW, Minnesota.
The Relation of Nature-Study to Drawing in the Public Schools.—JAMES M. STONE, Massachusetts.
1901 The Economic Basis of Art.—CHARLES DEGARMO, New York.
President's Address.—BONNIE E. SNOW, Minnesota.
The Economic Value of Art Education.—FREDERICK W. COBURN, New York.
Rhythm as an Art Principle.—HARRIETTE RICE, Rhode Island.
The Study of Fine Art in American Colleges and Universities. FRANK FOREST FREDERICK, Illinois.
1902 Education in the Appreciation of Art.—WILLIAM BAYARD CRAIG, Iowa.
Possibilities of Art Education in Relation to Manual Training.—ERNEST F. FENOLLOSA, Alabama.
Practical Co-operation between Art and Manual Training.—HAROLD PEYSER, New York.
Art as an Educational Factor.—JAMES L. HUGHES, Canada.
Elementary Preparation in Drawing for Secondary Schools.—CLARENCE VALENTINE KIRBY, Colorado.
Report of the Committee of Ten on Elementary Art Education.—LANGDON S. THOMPSON, New Jersey, chairman.
1903 The Teaching of Art.—DENMAN WALDO ROSS, Massachusetts.
Consideration for a Practical Study of Drawing in Public Schools.—BONNIE E. SNOW, Minnesota.
1904 Art Education for the American People.—ANNA VANDALAINE HENKEL, Missouri.
The Influence of the Art School and Art Museum on Civic Life.—EDMUND H. WUERPEL, Missouri.
The Republic of France—A Nation of Art.—JEAN MARDUEL, France.
Art Education for the People in Germany.—LEOPOLD BAHLSEN, Germany.
Art Education for the People.—Mrs. MATILDA EVANS RILEY, Missouri.
Organization for Art Education in England.—PERCY ATKIN, British representative.
1905 The Educational Value of Drawing.—F. LOUIS SOLDAN, Missouri.
Lessons from the International Drawing Teachers' Congress at Berne.—CHARLES M. CARTER, Colorado.
Round-Table Conferences.—Various papers by Various Authors.
1906 Art as Related to Manual Training.—JAMES EDWIN ADDICOTT, Louisiana.

5. BIOGRAPHY

1892 *In Memoriam*—Thomas W. Harvey.—W. L. DAY, Ohio.
In Memoriam—John Hancock.—W. E. SHELDON, Massachusetts.
John Amos Comenius—
1. His Private Life and Personal Characteristics.—JOHN MAX HARK, Pennsylvania.
2. The Textbooks of Comenius.—WILLIAM H. MAXWELL, New York.
3. The Place of Comenius in the History of Education.—NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER, New York.

In Memoriam—Dr. John Wickersham.—EDWARD BROOKS, Pennsylvania.
1893 Confucius and His Educational Ideas.—HIDESABURO EUDO, Japan.
Joseph Peter Varela and the Progress of Education in Uruguay.—ALBERTO GOMEZ RUANO, Uruguay.
Memorial Address—Elizabeth Palmer Peabody.—WM. E. SHELDON, Massachusetts.
Memorial Address—M. Alexander Newell.—SARAH E. RICHMOND, Maryland.
Memorial Address—Leland Stanford.—WILL S. MONROE, California.
Memorial Address—Emily Marwedel.—ELIZABETH HARRISON, Illinois.
Memorial Address—John S. Crombie.—JOHN E. BRADLEY, Massachusetts; RAY GREENE HULING, Massachusetts.

1893 Memorial Address—George Howland.—ALBERT G. LANE, Illinois; J. L. PICKARD, California; JOHN W. COOK, Illinois.
Memorial Address—Robert Allyn.—EDWIN C. HEWETT, Illinois.
Memorial Address—Robert Wallace Stevenson.—E. E. WHITE, Ohio.
1895 Report of the Committee on Necrology.—C. W. BARDEEN, chairman.
1896 Horace Mann.—WM. T. HARRIS, District of Columbia.
Horace Mann at Antioch College.—W. A. BELL, Indiana.
Memorial Addresses—Constituting the Report of the Committee on Necrology for 1896—
Norman A. Calkins.—HORACE H. TARBELL, Rhode Island; EDWIN C. HEWETT, Illinois.
Daniel B. Hagar.—WILLIAM E. SHELDON, Massachusetts.
John Kraus.—HORACE S. TARBELL, Rhode Island.
1897 Thomas Arnold (1795–1842). Rural Schools. Appendix Q.—W. S. SUTTON, Texas.
1898 Life and Character of Edward Austin Sheldon.—CHARLES R. SKINNER, New York.
Memorial Addresses (Constituting the Report of the Committee on Necrology for 1898).—HENRY SABIN, chairman.
Dr. Edward A. Sheldon.—W. E. SHELDON, Massachusetts.
Rev. Birdsey Grant Northrop.—E. E. WHITE, Ohio.
Mrs. Rebecca D. Rickoff.—BETTIE A. DUTTON, Ohio.
Samuel M. Inglis.—EDWIN C. HEWETT, Illinois.
J. C. Gilchrist.—HENRY SABIN, Iowa.
Mrs. Susan G. Patterson.—W. H. BOWERS, Indiana.
C. P. Rogers.—HENRY SABIN, Iowa.
1899 Report of the Committee on Necrology.—EDWIN C. HEWETT, Illinois, chairman.
1900 Report of the Committee on Necrology.
1901 Report of the Committee on Necrology.
In Memoriam—Burke Aaron Hinsdale.—JAMES B. ANGELL, Michigan.
In Memoriam—Henry Barnard.—ELIPHALET ORAM LYTE, Pennsylvania; NEWTON C. DOUGHERTY, Illinois; CHARLES H. KEYES, Connecticut; FRANCIS W. PARKER, Illinois; W. T. HARRIS, District of Columbia.
1902 Memorial Address—Dr. Charles Collins Rounds.—HENRY SABIN, Iowa.
In Memoriam—Col. Francis Wayland Parker.—WILBUR S. JACKMAN, Illinois.
1903 Memorial Address—J. L. M. Curry.—EDWIN A. ALDERMAN, Virginia.
Memorial Address—William Miller Beardshear.—H. H. SEERLEY, Iowa.
Memorial Address—Emerson E. White.—E. W. COY, Ohio.
Memorial Address—Edward R. Shaw.—J. F. REIGART, Ohio.
1904 Memorial Address—William Bramwell Powell.—JOHN W. COOK, Illinois.
Memorial Address—Frank Alpine Hill.—WILLIAM EDWIN HATCH, Massachusetts.
Memorial Address—Reuben S. Bingham.—FRANK B. COOPER, Washington.
Herbert Spencer and His Influence on Education.—W. T. HARRIS, District of Columbia.
Herbert Spencer's Four Famous Essays.—JOHN W. COOK, Illinois.
Herbert Spencer's Individuality as Manifested in His Educational Thinking.—W. S. SUTTON, Texas.
Herbert Spencer as an Educational Force.—A. E. WINSHIP, Massachusetts.
Herbert Spencer as a Philosopher.—W. ROSE, Tennessee.
Memorial Address—Clara Conway.—W. T. HARRIS, District of Columbia.
1905 Memorial Address—Edwin C. Hewett.—JOHN W. COOK, Illinois.
Memorial Address—Newton Bateman.—NEWTON C. DOUGHERTY, Illinois.
Memorial Address—Ira G. Hoitt.—CHARLES C. VAN LIEW, California.
Memorial Address—Horace Sumner Tarbell.—WALTER BALLOU JACOBS, Rhode Island.

6. BIOLOGICAL SCIENCES

(*See also* Science Teaching)

1870 The Human Body, a Subject of Study for the Teacher.—J. L. PICKARD, Illinois.
1886 Effects of Alcohol on the Human System.—A. C. BOYDEN, Massachusetts.
1895 Biology in the First Year of the Secondary Schools.—O. S. WESTCOTT, Illinois.
1896 Zoölogy as a Factor in Mental Culture.—SIMON H. GAGE, New York.
1897 The Microscope in the Public Schools.—W. H. SKINNER, Nebraska.
Zoölogy in the High-School Curriculum.—HENRY BALDWIN WARD, Nebraska.
1898 Report of the Subcommittee on Botany in Secondary Schools.—JOHN M. COULTER, Illinois.

1898 The Leaf a Light-Related Organ.—B. D. Halsted, New Jersey.
The Teaching of Biology in the High School.—W. P. Hay, District of Columbia.
1899 The Pedagogical Content of Zoölogy.—N. A. Harvey, Wisconsin.
College-Entrance Requirements: Report of the Committee on Botany.—By a Committee.
College-Entrance Requirements: Report of the Committee on Zoölogy.—By a Committee.
1900 Alcohol Physiology and Superintendence.—W. O. Atwater, Connecticut.
1901 Round-Table Conference—Botany Conference.—Lewis Murbach, Michigan.
Round Table—Physiology Conference.—Peter Cooper, New York.
Round Table—Zoölogy Conference.—Franklin W. Barrows, New York.
1902 Round Table—Biological Conference.—J. Remsen Bishop, Ohio.
The Projection Microscope—Its Possibilities and Value in Teaching Biology.—Aaron H. Cole, Illinois.
1903 The Teaching of Biology in High Schools.—A. S. Pearse, Nebraska.
A New Method of Teaching Physiology.—William Townsend Porter, Massachusetts.
Laboratory Work in High-School Physiology.—James E. Peabody, New York.
1904 The Microscope in the Biological Laboratory of the High School.—John F. Thompson, Indiana.
1905 Teaching Biology from Living Plants and Animals.—Aaron Hodgman Cole, Illinois.

7. EDUCATION OF THE BLIND

1898 Pedagogical Lessons from a Study of the Blind.—Frank H. Hall, Illinois.
1899 In What Respects Should the Education and Training of the Blind Differ from That of Normal Pupils?—Warring Wilkinson, California.
1900 The Higher Education of the Blind.—John E. Swearingen, South Carolina.
1902 What is Minnesota Doing for Her Blind Children?—B. P. Chapple, Minnesota.
Necessary Evils.—James J. Dow, Minnesota.
1906 The Examination of the Eyes of School Children.—John C. Eberhardt, Ohio.

8. CHILD-STUDY

1884 What Children Know.—J. M. Greenwood, Missouri.
1891 The Study of Children.—G. Stanley Hall, Massachusetts.
1893 Child-Study as a Basis for Psychology and Psychological Teaching.—G. Stanley Hall, Massachusetts.
Child-Study as the Basis of Pedagogy.—William H. Burnham, Massachusetts.
Dreaming and Poetic Invention.—James Sully, England.
The Language of Children.—F. Tracy, Massachusetts.
The Theological Life of a California Child.—Earl Barnes, California.
The First Two Years of the Child.—Millicent W. Shinn, Ohio.
A Plea for Special Child-Study.—W. L. Bryan, Indiana.
Child-Study in Connection with the Professional Training of Teachers.—Margaret K. Smith, New York.
1894 Report of Committee on Psychological Inquiry—The Psychology of the Imitative Functions in Childhood as Related to the Process of Learning.—W. T. Harris, District of Columbia, chairman.
Report of the Committee on the Study of Child Development, of the Association of Collegiate Alumnae.—Mrs. Annie Howse Barus, chairman.
Reports from Various Sections of the National Association for Child-Study.—Various Authors.
The Motor Ability of Children—A Preliminary Study.—John A. Hancock, Mass.
Children's Love of Nature.—W. A. Hoyt, Massachusetts.
Children's Expression thru Drawing.—M. V. O'Shea, Minnesota.
Child-Study.—G. Stanley Hall, Massachusetts.
1895 Child-Study—Systematic and Unsystematic.—Wm. L. Bryan, Indiana.
Application of Child-Study in the School.—Francis W. Parker, Illinois.
Report on Child-Study in Iowa.—H. E. Kratz, Iowa.
Report of the Work in Child-Study in Minnesota.—M. V. O'Shea, Minnesota.
Report of the Committee for New York State on Child-Study.—By the Committee.
The Study of Children on the Pacific Coast.—Earl Barnes, California.
The Study of Children at the University of California.—Elmer E. Brown, California.

1895 Report on Work in Child-Study in Indiana.—Wm. L. Bryan, Indiana.
Is Child-Study Practicable for the Teacher?—G. T. W. Patrick, Iowa.
Method and Scope of Child-Study for Teachers-in-Service.—M. V. O'Shea, Minnesota.
Child-Study with the Co-operation of the Parents.—C. C. Van Liew, Illinois.
1896 Some Practical Results of Child-Study.—A. S. Whitney, Michigan.
The Pupil as a Social Factor.—Earl Barnes, California.
Child-Study for Fathers and Mothers.—M. V. O'Shea, New York.
Child-Study Up to Date.—Sara E. Wiltse, Massachusetts.
Work of the Illinois Society for Child-Study.—Francis W. Parker, Illinois.
Minnesota Child-Study Association.—L. H. Galbreath, Minnesota.
Child-Study in the Tompkins Observation School.—Elmer E. Brown, California; Thomas P. Bailey, California.
Scientific and Non-Scientific Methods of Child-Study.—William L. Bryan, Indiana.
Child-Study Work at Clark University.—G. Stanley Hall, Massachusetts.
Some Musical Phases of Child-Study.—Florence Marsh, Michigan.
Child-Study a Part of the Teacher's Art.—C. C. Van Liew, Illinois.
Interests in Childhood.—M. V. O'Shea, New York.
Relation of Child-Study to the Work of a City Superintendent.—C. B. Gilbert, Minnesota.
What Children Want to Do When They Are Men and Women.—Charles H. Thurber, Illinois.
The Result of Child-Study in Country Schools.—Anna K. Eggleston, New York.
1897 Has Child-Study Any Help for the Kindergarten?—Bertha Payne, Illinois.
Froebel's Use of Child-Study.—C. G. O'Grady, Pennsylvania.
Methods of Child-Study in the Kindergarten.—Jenny B. Merrill, New York.
Round Table on Child-Study—
Hygiene of Motor Development.—Wm. L. Bryan, Indiana.
Fatigue and Sense Defects.—H. E. Kratz, Iowa.
Practical Results Obtained thru the Study of Children's Interests.—G. W. A. Luckey, Nebraska.
How May the Results of Child-Study Be Best Embodied in Methods of Teaching in Elementary Schools?—James L. Hughes, Ontario.
The Still Hunt.—Sarah C. Brooks, Minnesota.
Child-Study in Class Work.—L. H. Galbreath, Illinois.
Child-Study with the Co-operation of Parents.—C. C. Van Liew, Illinois.
Should Teachers in Preparation Have Instruction in Theoretical and Practical Child-Study?—Mary E. Laing, New York.
Practical Lines of Child-Study for the Average Teacher.—G. W. A. Luckey, Nebraska.
The Bearings of the Laws of Cerebral Development and Modification on Child-Study.—Reuben Post Halleck, Kentucky.
The Psychology of Puberty and Adolescence.—Colin A. Scott, Illinois.
Mental Differences of School Children.—J. A. Hancock, Colorado.
Parents as Child Students.—Mary Codding Bourland, Illinois.
Criticisms Wise and Otherwise on Modern Child-Study.—John Dewey, Illinois.
A National Society for Child-Study.—C. C. Van Liew, Illinois.
1898 President's Address.—M. V. O'Shea, Wisconsin.
Some Cautions to Be Observed in Child-Study.—Ossian H. Lang, New York.
A Year's Study of the Entering Pupils of the Springfield, Mass., High School.—Fred W. Atkinson, Massachusetts.
Heredity and Environment—A Study in Adolescence.—Edgar James Swift, Wisconsin.
Child-Study in the Training of Teachers.—John G. Thompson, Massachusetts.
Development of the Social Consciousness of Children.—Will S. Monroe, Massachusetts.
What Can Child-Study Contribute to the Science of Education?—J. P. Gordy, Ohio.
Some Contributions of Child-Study to the Science of Education.—Reuben Post Halleck, Kentucky.
Minor Mental Abnormalities Occasioned by Certain Erroneous School Methods.—W. O. Krohn, Illinois.
1899 Vices of Childhood and Youth.—J. W. Dinsmore, Nebraska.
Naughty Children.—Elmer Ellsworth Brown, California.
Relation of Imitation to Originality.—Mary F. Ledyard, California.

1899 Child-Study in Normal and Training Schools.—GERTRUDE EDMUND, Massachusetts.
The Adolescent at Home and in School.—E. G. LANCASTER, Colorado.
Children's Interests in Literature.—ISABEL LAWRENCE, Minnesota.
Applied Child-Study for the Kindergarten and the Primary School.—FREDERIC BURK, California.
Racial Traits in the Group Activity of Children.—C. C. VAN LIEW, California.
Play Interests of Children.—WILL S. MONROE, Massachusetts.
1900 A Study in Musical Interpretation.—H. E. KRATZ, Iowa.
Some Difficulties of Child-Study.—THOMAS P. BAILEY, California.
1901 The Ideal School as Based on Child-Study.—G. STANLEY HALL, Massachusetts.
1902 New Lines of Attack in Child-Study.—FREDERICK E. BOLTON, Iowa.
The Child-Study Department of the Chicago Public Schools.—ANGELINE LOESCH, Illinois.
What Our Schools Owe to Child-Study.—THEO. B. NOSS, Pennsylvania.
The Physiology of Childhood as Applied to Education.—R. O. BEARD, Minnesota.
The Psychology and Ethics of Fun.—WALTER B. HILL, Georgia.
1903 A Study Based on the Children of a State.—EARL BARNES, Pennsylvania.
The Teacher's Practical Application of the Results of Child-Study.—F. E. SPAULDING, New Jersey.
Sex Differentiation in Relation to Secondary Education.—A. H. YODER, Washington.
Psychic Arrest in Adolescence.—G. STANLEY HALL, Massachusetts.
Influence of the Study of the Unusual Child upon the Teaching of the Usual.—FRANK H. HALL, Illinois, and Others.
1904 In How Far May Child Psychology Take the Place of Adult Psychology in the Training of Teachers?—G. STANLEY HALL, Massachusetts.
The Educational Influence of Public Outdoor Art.—GEORGE E. GAY, Missouri.
Education for Artistic Handicraft in Sweden.—CARL LIDMAN, Swedish Commission.
Round-Table Conference on Child-Study in Grammar and Secondary Grades.—CHARLES W. WADDLE, Massachusetts, and Others.
The Diagnosis of the Capabilities of School Children.—D. P. MACMILLAN, Illinois.
Some Laboratory Investigations of Subnormal Children.—MARY R. CAMPBELL, Illinois.
To What Extent May Atypical Children Be Successfully Educated in Our Public Schools?—MAXIMILLIAN P. E. GROSZMANN, New Jersey.
Typical Child-Study Methods at the St. Louis Exhibit.—WILL S. MONROE, Massachusetts.
Questionnaire Methods of Child-Study.—WILL GRANT CHAMBERS, Minnesota.
Laboratory Tests as a Means of Child-Study.—MABEL CLARE WILLIAMS, Iowa.
The Contributions of Zoölogical Psychology to Child-Study.—LINUS W. KLINE, Minnesota.
Unsolved Problems of Child-Study.—G. STANLEY HALL, Massachusetts.
Methods of Teaching Child-Study in Normal Schools.—ANNA BUCKBEE, Pennsylvania.
Round-Table Conference on Child-Study in Kindergarten and Primary Grades.—MYRA H. WINCHESTER, Texas, chairman, and Others.
1905 The Group Morality of Children.—GEORGE E. VINCENT, Illinois.
President's Address.—E. G. LANCASTER, Michigan.
Child-Study in the University and College.—G. STANLEY HALL, Massachusetts.
Child-Study in Normal Schools.—FRANK WEBSTER SMITH, Nebraska.
Child-Study in Special Clubs.—HARRIET A. MARSH, Michigan.
A Problem for Women's Clubs.—ISABEL LAWRENCE, Minnesota.
Education from the Genetic Point of View.—WILLIAM H. BURNHAM, Massachusetts.
Relation of the Child's Development to Control of Him.—AMY E. TANNER, Pennsylvania.
The School and the Child's Physical Development.—STUART H. ROWE, New York.
Notes on a Few Books in Child-Study.—LOUIS N. WILSON, Massachusetts.
1906 Recent International Congress at Liege.—WILL S. MONROE, Massachusetts.

9. CITY-SCHOOL SYSTEM

1874 Several Problems in Graded School Management.—E. E. WHITE, Ohio.
1883 The City Systems of Management in Public Schools.—J. L. PICKARD, Iowa.

1886 City-School Systems—Pupils, Classification, Examination, and Promotion.—Report of a Council Committee on City Schools.
1889 The School Principal.—George Howland, Illinois.
The Work of the City Superintendent.—T. M. Balliet, Massachusetts.
1890 City-School Systems.—W. H. Maxwell, New York.
School Superintendence in Cities.—E. E. White, Ohio.
1891 Qualifications and Supply of Teachers for City Public Schools.—Wm. E. Anderson, Wisconsin.
1892 Report of Round-Table Discussion on "Promotions in City Schools."—N. C. Dougherty, Ill.
1894 Supervision of City Schools.—W. H. Maxwell, New York.
Sources of Supply of Teachers in City Schools.—Aaron Gove, Colorado.
Improvement of City-School Systems.—Henry P. Emerson, New York.
Plans of Organization for School Purposes in Large Cities.—Andrew S. Draper, Ohio.
1895 Report of the Subcommittee on the Organization of City-School Systems.—Andrew S. Draper, Chairman.
1896 Report of the Committee on City-School Systems.—Aaron Gove, Colorado, chairman.
1899 The Homes of Our Down-Town Children.—Lucia Stickney, Ohio.
Round Table of City Superintendents.—J. P. Sharkey, Ohio.
Promotions and Grading.—W. W. Chalmers, Ohio.
Paper by Paul A. Cowgill, Michigan.
Paper by H. E. Kratz, Iowa.
Course of Study for Pupils Who Cannot Complete High-School Work.—J. M. Berkey, Pennsylvania; J. W. Carr, Indiana.
1901 Round Tables—Round Table of Superintendents of Large Cities.—Leader, F. Louis Soldan, Missouri.
Round Tables of Superintendents of Small Cities—
Section A. Leader, L. E. Wolfe, Kansas.
Section B. Leader, William J. Shearer, New Jersey.
Section C. Leader, T. A. Mott, Indiana.
Section D. Leader, Augustus S. Downing, New York.
1905 Charter Provisions as Related to the Organization of School Systems.—William H. Maxwell, New York.
Charter Provisions as Related to the Reorganization of School Systems.—F. Louis Soldan, Missouri.

10. CLASSICAL EDUCATION

1865 The Best Method of Teaching the Classics.—Albert Harkness, Rhode Island.
1866 Is There Too Much Time Spent in the Study of the Classics at Our Colleges?—W. P. Atkinson, Massachusetts, and many others.
Classical Studies in American Education.—I. W. Andrews, Ohio.
The Place of Classical Studies in an American System of Education.—W. P. Atkinson, Massachusetts.
1871 Pronunciation of Latin and Greek.—H. M. Tyler, Illinois.
Classical Study, and the Means of Securing It in the West.—H. K. Edson, Iowa.
1873 Classical Studies.—Edward S. Joynes, Virginia.
1874 The Defense of Classical Studies.—J. D. Butler, Wisconsin.
1887 The Claims of the Classics.—A. F. Nightingale, Illinois.
1893 Report of Conference on Latin.—Wm. Gardner Hale, Illinois, chairman.
Report of Conference on Greek.—Martin L. D'Ooge, Michigan, chairman.
Should Greek Be Required for the Degree of Bachelor of Arts?—W. G. Hale, Illinois.
Which Should Come First, Latin or Some Modern Language?—W. Wilberforce Smith, New Jersey.
1894 Discussion of Reports of Committee of Ten—
Latin.—John T. Buchanan, Missouri.
Shall Latin Be a Required Study?—W. Wilberforce Smith, New Jersey.
1895 Address of the Committee of Twelve of the American Philological Association.—William W. Goodwin, Massachusetts, chairman.
1897 Round Table in Latin and Greek.
1899 The Spirit of the Classics.—Mrs. Josephine Heermans, Missouri.
Report of the Committee of Twelve of the American Philological Association on Courses of Study in Latin and Greek for Secondary Schools.—A. F. Nightingale, Illinois, chairman.

1901 Round-Table Conference—Latin.—F. P. Moulton, Connecticut.
1902 Round-Table Conferences—
Ancient Classics.—Lafayette Bliss, Minnesota.
The Future of Greek Studies.—J. Irving Manatt, Rhode Island.
Round Table—Greek Conference.—Isaac N. Judson, Missouri.
1903 Round-Table Conferences—
Classical Conference.—Henry White Callahan, Colorado.
1905 Round-Table Conference—E. Classics Conference.—John C. Kirtland, New Hampshire.

11. COEDUCATION

1874 Coeducation of the Sexes in Universities.—J. K. Hosmer, Missouri.
1890 Coeducation of the Sexes.—John Hancock, Ohio.
1903 Coeducation in the High School.—G. Stanley Hall, Massachusetts.
Coeducation at the University of Chicago.—Albion W. Small, Illinois.
Coeducation in High Schools.—Aaron Gove, Colorado.
1904 Coeducation.—G. Stanley Hall, Massachusetts.
Coeducation as It Has Been Tested in State Universities.—R. H. Jesse, Missouri.
The Advantage of Co-ordinate (Annex) Method in Education.—Charles F. Thwing, Ohio.
Coeducation in Relation to Other Types of College Education for Women.—James B. Angell, Michigan.
1906 What Kind of Education is Best Suited to Boys?—Reuben Post Halleck, Kentucky.
What Kind of Education is Best Suited for Girls?—Anna J. Hamilton, Kentucky.

12. COLLEGE-ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS

(*See also* Examinations)

1890 Uniform Requirements for Admission.—H. A. Fischer, Illinois.
1891 Uniformity in Requirements for Admission to College. (Discussion.)—Report of Committee of National Council.
1896 Entrance Requirements—The Chicago System.—William R. Harper, Illinois.
Entrance Requirements of Yale College.—Thomas Day Seymour, Connecticut.
1897 Report of the Chairman of the Joint Committee on College-Entrance Requirements.—A. F. Nightingale, Illinois.
Round Table on College-Entrance Requirements.—A. F. Nightingale, Illinois.
1899 Growth of Confidence between High Schools and Colleges.—R. B. Fulton, Mississippi.
Presentation of the Report of the Committee on College-Entrance Requirements.—A. F. Nightingale, Illinois, chairman.
Report of the Committee of Twelve of the American Philological Association on Courses of Study in Latin and Greek for Secondary Schools.—A. F. Nightingale, Illinois, chairman.
Report of the Committee of Twelve of the Modern Language Association of America.—Calvin Thomas, New York, chairman.
Report of the Committee of Seven of the American Historical Association.—Andrew C. McLaughlin, Michigan, chairman.
Report of the Committee of the Chicago Section of the American Mathematical Society.—J. W. A. Young, Illinois, chairman.
Report of the Committee on Physical Geography.—William North Rice, Connecticut, acting chairman.
Special Report of the Committee on Chemistry.—Alexander Smith, Illinois, chairman.
Report of the Committee on Botany.—By a Committee.
Report of the Committee on Zoölogy.—By a Committee.
Report of Committee on Physics.—E. H. Hall, Massachusetts, chairman.
1900 Discussion of the Report of the Committee on College-Entrance Requirements.
1902 Report of the Commission on Accredited Schools.—George N. Carman, Illinois.
Should Entrance to College Be thru the Examination of the School or of the Pupil?—Edwin Grant Dexter, Illinois.
1905 Certificates *vs.* Examinations in Admitting Students to Colleges and Universities.—George E. MacLean, Iowa.

13. COMMERCIAL EDUCATION

1892 Business Education: Its Place in the American Curriculum.—S. S. PACKARD, New York.

1893 The Evolution of Business Colleges.—S. S. PACKARD, New York.
Practical Advantages of a Commercial College Training.—GEORGE SOULÉ, Louisiana.
The Relation of Business Instruction to Industrial, Commercial, and Financial Interests.—A. D. WILT, Ohio.
The Higher Aspects of Business Education.—R. E. GALLAGHER, Ontario.
Stenography and Typewriting as Branches of Business Education.—ISAAC S. DEMENT, Illinois.
The World's Need of Business Women.—Mrs. SARA A. SPENCER, District of Columbia.
Reciprocal Relations and Benefits of Business and Other Departments of Education.—IRA MAYHEW, Michigan.

1894 The Disciplinary Value of the Business Course of Study.—A. S. OSBORN, New York.
An Ideal Business College.—WM. J. AMOS, Connecticut.
Business Training—Good and Bad.—J. M. MEHAN, Iowa.
President's Address.—R. E. GALLAGHER, Ontario.

1895 Guaranteeing Positions, or Fraudulent Advertising.—J. W. WARR, Illinois.
Shorthand and Typewriting.—W. A. WOODWORTH, Colorado.
Ethical Side of Business Training.—D. W. SPRINGER, Michigan.
President's Address.—J. M. MEHAN, Iowa.
The Alliance of the Business Educators' Association with the National Educational Association.—Mrs. SARA A. SPENCER, District of Columbia.

1896 High-Grade Business Schools a Public Demand.—MELVIL DEWEY, New York.
Correlation and Co-ordination of Business Branches—J. M. MEHAN, Iowa.
A Course of Study for Business High Schools.—ALLAN DAVIS, District of Columbia.
Value of a Standard of Attainment.—W. T. HARRIS, District of Columbia.
Report of Subcommittee of Committee of Nine on Bookkeeping, etc.—S. S. PACKARD, New York.

1897 Shorthand.—ISAAC S. DEMENT, Illinois.
Rapid Calculation, Business Practice, and Higher Accounting.—SAMUEL H. GOODYEAR.
President's Address.—A. N. PALMER, Iowa.
Laws and Ethics of Business, Duties of Citizenship, and Science of Wealth.—H. M. ROWE, Maryland.

1898 The Bookkeeping and Accounting of the Periodical Publishing Business.—A. O. KITTREDGE, New York.
Business Education in the State of New York.—I. O. CRISSY, New York.
The Duties and Qualifications of the Congressional Reporter.—DAVID WOLFE BROWN, District of Columbia.
Business Education.—DURAND W. SPRINGER, Michigan.
Reasonable Expectations Concerning Business Education.—LYMAN J. GAGE, District of Columbia.
Business Education in the High School.—EMORY R. JOHNSON, Pennsylvania.
Administration and Bookkeeping of a National Bank.—GEORGE M. COFFIN, District of Columbia.

1899 The Business-Course Problem.—ALLAN DAVIS, District of Columbia.
How I Conduct a Business-Community School.—C. E. HOWARD, California.
The Claims of Business Education to a Place in Our Public Schools.—J. H. FRANCIS, California.
The Evolution of Business Education.—I. O. CRISSY, New York.
The Advent of the Commercial High School.—W. C. STEVENSON, Kansas.

1900 Content and Educational Value of the Curriculum for a Secondary School of Commerce.—CHEESMAN A. HERRICK, Pennsylvania.
Should Our Colleges and Universities Educate Men Specially for Business?—WOODFORD D. ANDERSON, South Dakota.
The Commercial High-School Course.—WILLIAM E. DOGGETT, New York.
The Advantages and Difficulties of Introducing the Commercial Branches in Grammar and High Schools.—H. M. ROWE, Maryland.
School and Business Arithmetic.—EDWARD W. STITT, New York.
Profitable Publicity as Applied to Business Colleges.—WILLARD J. WHEELER, Alabama.

1901 Round Table—Commercial-Studies Conference.—THOMAS H. H. KNIGHT, Massachusetts.
The Phonograph as an Aid in Teaching Shorthand.—THEODORE F. LAKE, New York.
President's Address.—W. E. DOGGETT, New York.
What Constitutes a Business Education?—I. O. CRISSY, New York.
The Education and Training of Commercial Teachers.—WILLIAM A. SCOTT, Wisconsin.
The Duty of the Public-School System with Respect to Business Training.—MYRON T. SCUDDER, New York.
1902 President's Address.—I. O. CRISSY, New York.
Are Business Courses in Public Schools Inimical to Education?—A. E. WINSHIP, Massachusetts.
What Shall the Public School Do for the Commercial Student and for the Business-Man.—H. M. ROWE, Maryland.
Length and Content of Commercial Courses.—WILLIAM E. DOGGETT, New York.
The Preparation of Commercial Teachers for Work in the Public Schools.—B. H. MEYER, Wisconsin.
Requirements for Actual Business.—GEORGE A. BOOTH, Connecticut.
Business Education.—J. M. ANDERSON, Minnesota.
A Practical Commercial Course for a Massachusetts High School.—E. E. GAYLORD, Massachusetts.
The Education of the Amanuensis.—SELBY A. MORAN, Michigan.
The Education of a Stenographer.—Mrs. M. L. VEENFLIET, Michigan.
1903 Disciplinary Value of Bookkeeping as a Study.—ENOS SPENCER, Kentucky.
The Disciplinary Value of Stenography and Typewriting as Studies.—W. H. WAGNER, California.
Report of Round Table Conference.—D. W. SPRINGER, Michigan, chairman.
1904 Report of the Committee of Nine, from the Standpoint of the General High School.—BERTRAND D. PARKER, Illinois.
The Report of the Committee of Nine.—J. REMSEN BISHOP, Ohio.
President's Address—Old Wine in New Bottles.—CHEESMAN A. HERRICK, Pennsylvania.
The Work of the Private Commercial Schools.—CARL C. MARSHALL, Iowa.
The Resources of the United States as Illustrated by the Louisiana Purchase Exposition.—MINNIE BRONSON, Missouri.
Report of the Committee of Nine, Considered from the Standpoint of the Independent School of Commerce.—JAMES J. SHEPPARD, New York.
1905 Qualifications of Commercial Teachers.—WILLIAM C. STEVENSON, Illinois.
What Should Be the Education of a Business Man?—JOHN BRISBEN WALKER, New York.
The Science Work of a Four-Year Commercial Course.—ALLAN DAVIS, District of Columbia.
The Study of Local Industry and Trade.—JOHN L. TILDSLEY, New York.
The Essential Elements in a University Course in Commerce.—EDWARD D. JONES, Michigan, and Others.
Results of the Organization of Higher Courses in Commerce.—HARLOW S. PERSON, New Hampshire, and Others.

14. COMPULSORY EDUCATION

1871 A National System of Compulsory Education.—J. P. WICKERSHAM, Pennsylvania.
1872 Compulsory Education.—NEWTON BATEMAN, Illinois.
1875 The Legal Prevention of Illiteracy.—B. G. NORTHROP, Connecticut.
1888 What Is the Purpose of County Institutes, and How Is It Best Secured?—JESSE B. THAYER, Wisconsin.
1890 Compulsory Laws and Their Enforcement.—OSCAR H. COOPER, Texas.
Our Brother in Stripes, in the Schoolroom.—JULIA S. TUTWILER, Alabama.
1891 Compulsory Education. (Discussion.)—Report of Committee of National Council.
Recent Legislation upon Compulsory Education in Illinois and Wisconsin.—N. C. DOUGHERTY, Illinois.
Compulsory Education in Massachusetts.—GEO. H. MARTIN. (Discussion.)
1893 A Business Man's Education—Concluding Address.—JAMES MACALISTER, Pennsylvania.
1894 The Care of Truants and Incorrigibles.—EDWIN P. SEAVER, Massachusetts.
1901 The Value of Truant Schools.—Mrs. JOSEPHINE AHNEFELDT GOSS, Michigan.

1904 The Factory Child.—LAWTON B. EVANS, Georgia.
1905 Child Labor.—JANE ADDAMS, Illinois.
Child Labor and Compulsory Education—The School Aspect.—GEORGE H. MARTIN, Massachusetts.
The Social and Legal Aspect of Compulsory Education and Child Labor.—FRANKLIN H. GIDDINGS, New York.

15. CURRICULUM

(*See also* Elective Studies; Names of Separate Studies.)

1876 Position of Modern Languages in Higher Education.—EDW. S. JOYNES, Tennessee.
1877 The Study of Social Economy in Public Schools.—MAURICE KIRBY, Kentucky.
1879 A Readjustment of Common-School Studies Necessary.—AND. J. RICKOFF, Ohio.
1880 What Constitutes a Practical Course of Study.—EDGAR A. SINGER, Pennsylvania.
1881 The Study of Political Science in Colleges.—I. W. ANDREWS, Ohio.
Revision of the Common-School Curriculum.—M. A. NEWELL, Maryland.
Common-School Studies.—ANDREW J. RICKOFF, New York.
1882 Some Fundamental Inquiries Concerning Common-School Studies.—JOHN M. GREGORY, Illinois.
1885 Educational Value of Each of the Common-School Studies.—JAMES H. HOOSE, New York.
1886 Course of Study: Proper Limits and Divisions.—H. M. JAMES, Nebraska.
Course of Study: Order of Subjects.—MARY B. PHILLIPS, Illinois.
The College Curriculum.—WM. A. MOWRY, Massachusetts.
Educational Value of Common-School Studies.—J. H. HOOSE, New York; W. H. PAYNE, Michigan; EDWARD BROOKS, Pennsylvania.
1887 The Order and Relation of Studies in the High School Course.—SAMUEL THURBER, Massachusetts.
What Shall Be Taught the Children?—Mrs MARY H. HUNT, Massachusetts.
1888 Can School Programs Be Shortened and Enriched?—CHARLES W. ELIOT, Massachusetts.
Philosophy in Colleges and Universities.—W. T. HARRIS, District of Columbia.
1889 Uniform Course of Study for High Schools.—E. W. COY, Ohio; HENRY C. KING, Ohio.
1890 The Correlation of Subjects in Elementary Programs.—J. W. STEARNS, Wisconsin.
1892 Shortening and Enriching the Grammar-School Course.—CHARLES W. ELIOT, Massachusetts.
1893 What Should Be Added to the Elementary Branches?—ALBERT P. MARBLE, Massachusetts.
What Should be the Curriculum in Public Schools?—Some Aspects of the Question in France.—B. BUISSON, France.
Report of Committee of Ten on Secondary Education with Membership of Committee and of Nine Conferences.—CHAS. W. ELIOT, Massachusetts, president.
Report of Conference on Latin.—WM. GARDNER HALE, Illinois, chairman.
Report of Conference on Greek.—MARTIN L. D'OOGE, Michigan, chairman.
Report of Conference on English.—SAMUEL THURBER, Massachusetts, chairman.
Report of Conference on Other Modern Languages.—CHAS. GRANDGENT, Massachusetts, chairman.
Report of the Conference on Mathematics.—SIMON NEWCOMB, Maryland, chairman.
Report of Conference on Physics, Chemistry, and Astronomy.—IRA REMSON, Maryland, chairman.
Report of Conference on Natural History.—W. B. POWELL, District of Columbia, chairman.
Report of Conference on History, Civil Government, and Political Economy. CHAS. KENDALL ADAMS, Wisconsin, chairman.
Report of Conference on Geography.—T. C. CHAMBERLIN, Illinois, chairman.
Essentials in a Course of Study for Children.—JOSEPH L. PICKARD, Iowa.
What Should Be Added to the Elementary Course to Meet the Industrial Needs of the Localities?—C. M. WOODWARD, Missouri.
The Course of Study in Secondary Schools.—G. N. CARMAN, Illinois.
1894 The Curriculum for Secondary Schools.—W. T. HARRIS, District of Columbia.
Enriching the Course in the Elementary Schools—First to Fourth Grades.—ELLEN G. REVELEY, Ohio.
A Few Changes in Elementary School Instruction.—EDWARD G. WARD, New York.

1894 The Ideal Primary-School Curriculum.—Emma C. Davis, Ohio.
Review of the Report of the Committee of Ten.—James H. Baker, Colorado.
The Reconstruction of the Grammar-School Curriculum.—Chas. B. Gilbert, Minnesota.
The Cambridge Experiment.—Francis Cogswell, Massachusetts.
The Report of the Committee of Ten—Its Use for the Improvement of Teachers Now at Work in the Schools.—Francis W. Parker, Illinois.
The Feasibility of Modifying the Programs of the Elementary and Secondary Schools to Meet the Suggestions in the Report of the Committee of Ten.—James C. MacKenzie, New Jersey.

1895 Report of the Subcommittee on the Correlation of Studies in Elementary Education.—Wm. T. Harris, chairman.
The Modification of Secondary-School Courses Most Demanded by the Conditions of Today, and Most Ignored by the Committee of Ten.—Charles H. Keyes, California.
The Principles upon Which the Co-ordination Studies Should Proceed.—Charles DeGarmo, Pennsylvania.
Round-Table Report to the National Council of the Influence of Herbart's Doctrine on the Course of Study in the Common Schools.—Charles A. McMurry, Illinois.

1896 Some Applications of Correlation.—Frank M. McMurry, New York.
The Necessity for Five Co-ordinate Groups of Studies in the Schools.—Wm. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
Round Table—Modern Foreign Languages—
The Recent Changes in Methods of Teaching Foreign Languages.—Joseph Krug, Ohio.
What Correlations of Studies Seem Advisable and Possible at Present.—C. B. Gilbert, Minnesota.
Concentration of Studies as a Means of Developing Character.—Charles DeGarmo, Pennsylvania.
Isolation and Unification as Bases of Study.—E. E. White, Ohio.
Organic Relations of Studies in Human Development.—W. N. Hailmann, District of Columbia.

1897 Election in General Education.—E. E. White, Ohio.
Is the Present High-School Course a Satisfactory Preparation for Business?—Charles H. Thurber, Illinois.
Rural Schools. Appendix G. Enrichment of Rural School Courses.

1898 The Child's Course of Study or the Teacher's —Which?—Sarah J. Walter, Connecticut.
A Proposed Four-Years' Course in English for Secondary Schools.—Charity Dye, Indiana.
Successive Differentiation of Subjects in the Elementary Schools.—Z. X. Snyder, Colorado.
Are There Studies That Should Be Pursued in Every Course in the Secondary Schools, and in the Freshman and Sophomore Years of the College?—James M. Green, New Jersey.
Preliminary Report of Committee in the Formulation of a Course of Study. The New England State Normal Schools.—A. G. Boyden, Massachusetts.

1899 The Average Scholarship of the Average Pupil.—Frank Rigler, Oregon.
Should Arithmetic, English Grammar, Geography, and United States History Be Reviewed in the High School?—J. W. Crabtree, Nebraska.

1901 The Situation as Regards the Course of Study.—John Dewey, Illinois.
Is the Curriculum Overcrowded?—James H. Van Sickle, Maryland.
Round Table—German Conference.—Joseph Krug, Ohio.
A Standard Course of Study for Elementary Schools in Cities.—R. G. Boone, Ohio.
Social Science and the Curriculum.—George E. Vincent, Illinois.
Economics in the Public Schools.—George Gunton, New York.
Ideals and Methods of Economic Teaching.—Frederic W. Speirs, Pennsylvania.

1902 Round Table—
B. Round Table of City Superintendents.
Topic II. Modernizing the Course of Study.—W. A. Hester, Indiana.
Topic III. How to Meet the People.—Louis P. Nash, Massachusetts.
How the School Strengthens the Individuality of the Pupils.—Wm. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
Obstacles to Educational Progress.—Paul H. Hanus, Massachusetts.

1903 The Child's Favorite Study in the Elementary Curriculum.—Earl Barnes, Pennsylvania.
Seven-Year Course of Study for Ward-School Pupils.—James M. Greenwood, Missouri.
A Readjustment of the High-School Curriculum.—E. W. Coy, Ohio.
The Saving of Time in Elementary and Secondary Education.—Thomas M. Balliet, Massachusetts; Ella Flagg Young, Illinois.
1904 Round-Table Conference—Modern Language.—George Arthur Smith, New York, and Others.
Round Table of State and County Superintendents—Improvements in Course of Study and System of Grading.—Delos Fall, Michigan.
The Superintendent's Influence on the Course of Study in Elementary and Secondary Schools.—W. H. Elson, Michigan.
The Course of Study in Elementary and Secondary Schools—What Omissions are Advisable.—Frank M. McMurry, New York.
1905 Round-Table Conference—F. The Modern Languages Conference.—Ernest Wolf, Missouri.
President's Address—The Excessive Expansion of the Course of Study.—William L. Bryan, Indiana.
The Modern High-School Curriculum as Preparation for a Two-Year Normal Course.—David Felmley, Illinois.
Should the Twelve-Year Course Be Equally Divided Between the Elementary and the Secondary School?—E. W. Lyttle, New York.
1906 The Teaching of Modern Languages in England.—Cloudsey S. H. Brereton, England.
Means of Improving the Efficiency of the Grammar School.—Eliminations and Modifications in the Course of Study.—Martin G. Brumbaugh, Pennsylvania.

16. DEFECTIVES AND DELINQUENTS (OTHER THAN BLIND), EDUCATION OF

1879 Destitute Children.—John Hitz, District of Columbia.
1893 Schools for Neglected Children.—James Stormont Small, New Zealand.
Physical Education of the Deaf and Dumb.—Albert Gutzmann, Prussia.
1897 Education of the Deaf.—Alexander Graham Bell, District of Columbia.
1898 The Deaf and Their Possibilities.—E. M. Gallaudet, District of Columbia.
President's Address.—Joseph C. Gordon, Illinois.
The Duty of the Hour to Young Deaf Children.—Mary S. Garrett, Pennsylvania.
The Relation of the Deaf to the Hearing World.—Isaac Gardner, Arkansas.
The Trend in the Training of Backward and Mentally Deficient Children.—Margaret Bancroft, New Jersey.
The Relation of Language Teaching to Mental Development.—S. G. Davidson, Pennsylvania.
The How, the Why, and the Wherefore of the Training of Feeble-minded Children.—Martin W. Barr, Pennsylvania.
Brain Building and Mind Building, with Special Reference to Sense-training of the Eye and Ear.—Elmer Gates, Maryland.
The Wisconsin Public Day Schools for the Deaf.—Robert C. Spencer, Wisconsin.
Closing Address.—Alexander Graham Bell, District of Columbia.
1899 Time Allowed for the Public Schooling of Deaf as Compared with Hearing Children.—Charles S. Perry, California.
The Importance of Right Beginning.—Helen Taylor, California.
All Along the Line.—Mrs. Katherine T. Bingham, California.
1900 The Claims of the Feeble-minded.—Margaret Bancroft, New Jersey.
On the Training of the Feeble-minded.—E. R. Johnstone, New Jersey.
The Growth and Development of Southern Schools for the Deaf.—J. R. Dobyns, Mississippi.
The State of the Case.—Mary S. Garrett, Pennsylvania.
Changes of Method in the Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf and Dumb.—A. L. E. Crouter, Pennsylvania.
Statistics of Speech-Teaching in Schools for the Deaf in the U. S.—Frank W. Booth, Pennsylvania.
1901 The Law and the Day School for the Deaf.—S. Wesselius, Michigan.
The State in Its Relation to the Defective Child.—Francis Burke Brandt, Pennsylvania.

1901 Some Results of Hearing Tests of Chicago School Children.—D. P. MacMillan, Illinois.
1902 What Is Minnesota Doing for Her Feeble-minded and Epileptics?—A. C. Rogers, Minnesota.
Victorious America!—G. Ferreri, Italy.
The Organization of Associations of Parents of Deaf Children as an Aid to Schools.—Mrs. Helen M. Hefferan, Illinois.
President's Address.—Alexander Graham Bell, District of Columbia.
Response to the Address of Welcome at the Opening Session.—Wm. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
Lessons to Be Learned by the General Teacher from Teaching Languages to the Deaf.—F. W. Booth, Pennsylvania.
What Is Minnesota Doing for Her Deaf Children?—J. N. Tate, Minnesota.
1903 Should the Scope of the Public-School System Be Broadened so as to Take in All Children Capable of Education?—Mary C. Greene, England.
How Can the Term "Charitable" Be Justly Applied to the Education of Any Children?—Edward Allen Fay, District of Columbia.
1904 Presidential Address.—J. W. Jones, Ohio.
What Teachers May Learn from the Model School for the Deaf and Blind, and Their Exhibits.—S. M. Green, Missouri.
Sight and Hearing in Relation to Education.—Oscar Chrisman, Ohio.
Report of the Committee on Statistics of Defective Sight and Hearing of Public-School Children.—F. W. Booth, chairman.
The Chicago Hospital School for Nervous and Delicate Children.—Mary R. Campbell, Illinois.
1905 President's Address.—Margaret Bancroft, New Jersey.
The Physical Betterment of the Mentally Deficient.—J. H. McKee, Pennsylvania.
Concerning Our Limitations in Educating Mentally Deficient Children.—Mary E. Pogue, Wisconsin.
What Has Been Done with One Deaf Child in His Own Home.—Anna C. Reinhardt, Pennsylvania.
The Schools for the Feeble-Minded.—E. R. Johnstone, New Jersey.
Extracts From a Recent Investigation in Sociology.—Mary R. Campbell, Maryland.
1906 The Incorrigible Child.—Julia Richman, New York.

17. EDUCATIONAL LITERATURE

1871 Pedagogical Bibliography.—Thomas Davidson, Missouri.
1893 Educational Journalism in France.—Gabriel Compayré, France.
Present Ideals in Educational Journalism.—C. C. Rounds, New Hampshire.
Educational Journalism in New England.—W. A. Mowry, Massachusetts.
Dr. Barnard's *American Journal of Education*.—Will S. Monroe, California.
The Purpose and Reward of Educational Journals.—Amos M. Kellogg, New York.
Educational Journals in New York.—C. W. Bardeen, New York.
Educational Journalism in Ohio.—Samuel Findley, Ohio.
Educational Journalism in Indiana.—George F. Bass, Indiana.
School Journalism in Michigan.—Henry A. Ford, Michigan.
Educational Journals in Illinois.—John W. Cook, Illinois.
Educational Journalism in Iowa.—Henry Sabin,
The Educational Papers in Missouri.—H. A. Gass, Missouri.
Educational Journalism in Utah, Colorado and Kansas.—John MacDonald, Kansas.
1894 Professional Training of Teachers by Educational Publications.—John A. MacDonald, Kansas.
1897 Rural Schools.—Appendix L.—New York State School Library.
1899 Educational Journalism.—Its Tribulations and Triumphs.—John MacDonald, Kansas.
The Function of the Educational Press.—George P. Brown, Illinois.
Are Educational Journals Educational?—William George Bruce, Wisconsin.
Ideal and Practical Considerations in Educational Journalism.—Ossian H. Lang, New York.

18. EDUCATION: THEORY, PHILOSOPHY, NATURE, MEANING

(*See also* Psychology and Education.)

1859 Errors in the Agencies in the Pursuit of Knowledge.—J. N. McJilton, Maryland.
1863 The Powers to Be Educated.—Thomas Hill, Massachusetts.
Philosophy and Methods in Education.—J. M. Gregory, Michigan.
1873 Liberal Education of the Nineteenth Century.—W. P. Atkinson, Massachusetts.
1875 Families—Past and Present.—Lewis Felmeri, Hungary.
1876 Aesthetics of Education.—Minnie Swayze.
1877 The Silent Forces of Education.—J. F. Blackinton, Massachusetts.
The Limit of Education.—W. R. Garrett, Tennessee.
1880 On the Complexity of Causes.—Eli T. Tappan, Ohio.
1881 Education of the Sensibilities.—J. W. Dowd, Ohio.
1882 Self-Consciousness in Education.—E. T. Jeffers.
What, How, and How Better.—Carrie B. Sharp, Indiana.
Chairs of Pedagogy in Our Higher Institutions of Learning.—G. Stanley Hall, Maryland.
Man the Machine, or Man the Inventor; Which?—John W. Glenn, Georgia.
1884 The Relation of the Art to the Science of Education.—Wm. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
The Educational Status and Needs of the New South.—Robert Bingham, North Carolina.
1887 The Problems of Today.—Richard Edwards, Illinois.
How to Spread Information Concerning the True Purposes and Methods of School Education.—Henry Sabin, Iowa.
The Means and Ends of Culture to Be Provided for the American Public Beyond the Ordinary School Period.—J. H. Vincent, New York.
Outline of a Philosophy of Education.—F. L. Soldan, Missouri.
1888 Greek Philosophy and Modern Education.—Leroy D. Brown, Nevada.
Educating the Whole Boy.—J. W. MacDonald, Massachusetts.
1889 Pedagogical Chairs in Universities and Colleges.—B. A. Hinsdale, Michigan.
1890 Pedagogical Training in Colleges Where There Is no Chair of Pedagogy.—Levi Seeley, Illinois.
A Chair of Pedagogy.—R. G. Boone, Indiana.
1891 The Importance of Pedagogical Training for the College Professors.—H. F. Fisk, Illinois.
Necessity and Means of Developing Individuality.—Sam B. Todd, Kansas.
1892 Educational Equipoise.—Mrs. Frances W. Leiter, Ohio.
The Economic Causes of Modern Progress.—Simon N. Patten, Pennsylvania.
1893 The Relation Between Educational Methods and Educational Ends.—John J. Keane, Washington, District of Columbia.
The Evolution of Liberal Education.—Andrew F. West, New Jersey.
The Real Nature of Education.—Hermann Poesche, Berlin.
1894 Recent Educational Theory.—Frank M. McMurry, New York.
School Statistics and Morals.—Wm. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
Remarks on Practical Education.—C. K. Adams, Wisconsin.
1895 Ideals of Educational Work.—Wm. R. Harper, Illinois.
Educational Pride and Prejudice.—A. E. Winship, Massachusetts.
Individualism in Mass Education.—P. W. Search, California.
The Effect of the Theory of Evolution on Education.—Joseph Le Conte, California.
Science and Education.—Wm. L. Bryan, Indiana.
Educational Values.—James H. Baker, Colorado.
Education According to Nature.—William H. Payne, Tennessee.
The Education of Public Opinion.—Charles R. Skinner, New York.
New Standards of Patriotic Citizenship.—George H. Martin, Massachusetts.
Presidential Address—What Knowledge Is of Most Worth?—Nicholas Murray Butler, New York.
1896 The Teacher and the School.—John Lancaster, Illinois.
School Out of School.—John H. Vincent, New York.
1897 The Twentieth-Century School.—James L. Hughes, Ontario.
Lines of Growth in Maturing.—Richard G. Boone, Michigan.

1897 The Correlation of Educational Forces in the Community.—S. T. Dutton, Massachusetts.
Relations of Citizens and Teachers.—Ida C. Bender, New York.
The Aesthetic Element in Education.—John Dewey, Illinois; Wm. T. Harris, District of Columbia; Mary E. Nicholson, Indiana.
1898 The Latest Practical Discoveries in Biological Science and Their Bearing on Education.—N. A. Harvey, Wisconsin.
The Educational Outlook.—W. W. Stetson, Maine.
The Social Basis of Conscience.—Josiah Royce, Massachusetts.
Democrary and Education.—Edwin P. Seaver, Massachusetts.
Sociology's Demand upon the Schools.—J. F. Millspaugh, Utah.
Realizing Our Final Aim in Education.—Sylvester F. Scovel, Ohio.
1899 The Implications and Applications of the Principle of Self-Activity in Education.—Arnold Tompkins, Illinois.
The School in Its Relation to the Higher Life.—Nathan C. Schaeffer, Pennsylvania.
The Unseen Force in Character-Making.—George H. Martin, Massachusetts.
The Culture-Epoch Theory in Education.—Louise Morris Hannum, Colorado.
The Place and Development of Purpose in Education.—W. N. Hailmann, Ohio.
1901 Progress in Education.—J. Lancaster Spalding, Illinois.
Education and Crime.—Amos W. Butler, Indiana.
President's Address—A Plea for the Study of Educational Philosophy by Teachers of Science.—N. A. Harvey, Illinois.
Isolation in the School—How It Hinders and How It Helps.—Wm. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
The Gospel of Work.—Edwin G. Cooley, Illinois.
1902 The Function of Knowledge in Education.—Charles B. Gilbert, New York.
The Three Elements in the Cost of Education.—Charles D. McIver, North Carolina.
Altruism as a Law of Education.—Arnold Tompkins, Illinois.
The School as Social Center.—John Dewey, Illinois.
The Danger of Using Biological Analogies in Reasoning on Educational Subjects.—Wm. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
The English Ideal of Education and Its Debt to America.—Michael Ernest Sadler, England.
Presidential Address—The Three H's in Education.—W. M. Beardshear, Iowa.
The Practical Application of All Learning to Better Living.—D. L. Kiehle, Minnesota.
Influences that Make for Good Citizenship.—Henry P. Emerson, New York.
1903 Presidential Address—The New Definition of the Cultivated Man.—Charles W. Eliot, Massachusetts.
1904 Our Educational Creed.—Z. X. Snyder, Colorado.
The Need of a New Individualism.—John W. Cook, Illinois.
1905 Education for Efficiency.—William H. Maxwell, New York.
1906 The Rehabilitation of Philosophy in Germany.—Hermann Schwartz, Germany.
What Kind of Education is Best Suited to Boys?—Reuben Post Halleck, Kentucky.
What Kind of Education is Best Suited for Girls?—Anna J. Hamilton, Kentucky

19. ELECTIVE STUDIES

1874 The Elective System in Colleges.—A. P. Peabody, Massachusetts.
1877 The Class System.—Noah Porter, Connecticut.
The Elective System.—Wm. Leroy Broun, Tennessee.
1880 Equivalents in a Liberal Course of Study.—Wm. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
1895 Should Electives in the High Schools Be by Courses or by Subjects?—Oscar D. Robinson, New York.
A Conservative View of College Electives. (Discussion.)
1897 Election in General Education.—E. E. White, Ohio.
1898 Should the Undergraduate Curriculum of Four Years in Colleges and Universities Be Shortened by Allowing Such Freedom of Electives in the Junior and Senior Years That a Bachelor Degree and a Professional Degree May Be Obtained in Six Years?—Nicholas Murray Butler, New York.
1899 To What Extent Should the High-School Pupil Be Permitted to Elect His Work?—W. L. Steele, Illinois.

1900 To What Extent Should a Pupil in the High School Be Allowed to Choose his Studies?—William J. S. Bryan, Missouri.
1905 Does Wide Election and Do Minute Courses Weaken Undergraduate Courses in Universities? Are Colleges More Fortunate in These Things?—James H. Canfield, New York.

20. ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

(*See also* Kindergarten.)

1863 Object Teaching.—E. A. Sheldon, New York.
1864 Object Teaching.—H. B. Wilbur, New York.
1865 Object Teaching—Report of a Committee.—S. S. Greene, Rhode Island.
1869 Elementary Schools: Radical Faults and Radical Remedies.—Z. Richards, District of Columbia.
1870 What is the Proper Work of a Primary School.—E. A. Sheldon, New York.
Object Lessons—Their Value and Place.—Delia A. Lathrop, Ohio.
1871 Superior Education as Related to Universal Education.—John Eaton, District of Columbia.
1872 Objective Teaching—Its Value and the Extent of Its Adaptation to School Instruction.—N. A. Calkins, New York.
1874 What Shall We Attempt in Elementary Schools?—Mrs. A. C. Martin, New York.
1879 The First School Days.—Mrs. R. D. Rickoff, New York.
Culture in Elementary Schools.—Geo. P. Brown, Indiana.
1882 Obstacles in the Way of Better Primary Education.—H. S. Jones, Pennsylvania.
1883 Primary Education—What and How?—Henry A. Raab, Illinois.
1884 Form, Color and Design.—Fannie S. Comings, New York.
1885 Avenues to the Mind.—Wm. M. Giffin, New Jersey.
The Child's Environment.—Clara Conway, Tennessee.
True Object of Early School Training.—C. E. Meleney, New Jersey.
1887 The Natural or Developing Elements in Modern Methods of Elementary Culture.—W. N. Hailmann, Indiana.
Meaning of the Maxim, "We Learn to Do by Doing," in Elementary Education.—N. C. Schaeffer, Pennsylvania.
1890 Essentials in Elementary Education.—N. A. Calkins, New York.
The Correlation of Subjects in Elementary Programs.—J. W. Stearns, Wisconsin.
The Teacher and the Parent.—Mrs. Jennie S. M'Laughlan, Illinois.
1891 Kindergarten and the Primary School.—Wm. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
Kindergarten Methods in Intellectual Training.—Mrs. J. L. Hughes, Ontario.
The Organic Connection between the Kindergarten and the Primary School.—Miss N. Cropsey, Indiana.
The Educational Burdens upon the Lower Grades.—Abbie Low, Pennsylvania.
1893 Elementary Education in England.—Rosamond Davenport-Hill, England.
Modification in the Primary School—Discussion.—B. Pickman Mann, District of Columbia.
Opening Address.—John Eaton, District of Columbia.
1894 Enriching the Course in the Elementary Schools.—Ellen G. Reveley, Ohio.
Laboratory Methods in Elementary Schools.—Charles B. Scott, Minnesota.
The Ideal Primary School Curriculum.—Emma C. Davis, Ohio.
1895 Progress in Primary Education.—Mrs. Eva D. Kellogg, Massachusetts.
Report of the Committee on Elementary Education—Economy in Elementary Education.—Bettie A. Dutton, Ohio, chairman.
Report of the Subcommittee on the Correlation of Studies in Elementary Education.—Wm. T. Harris, District of Columbia, chairman.
Recent Improvements in Primary-School Work.—Sarah L. Arnold, Minnesota.
1896 Opening Remarks.—S. T. Dutton, Massachusetts.
What Should the Elementary School Do for the Child?—Miss N. Cropsey, Indiana.
1897 Opening Address.—Sara C. Brooks, Minnesota.
Foreign-born Children in the Primary Grades.—Jane Addams, Illinois.
Report on Plans to Collect Data Concerning Methods and Courses of Work in Elementary Schools.—W. N. Hailmann, District of Columbia, chairman.
Paper on the Report of the Committee.—N. C. Schaeffer, Pennsylvania.
1898 Successive Differentiation of Subjects in the Elementary Schools.—Z. X. Snyder, Colorado.
President's Address.—William N. Hailmann, Ohio.

1898 Report of the Committee on a Detailed Plan for a Report on Elementary Education.—JOHN DEWEY, Illinois.
The Mission of the Elementary School.—MARTIN G. BRUMBAUGH, Pennsylvania.
1899 Naughty Children.—ELMER ELLSWORTH BROWN, California.
1900 The Elimination of the Grammar School.—OTIS ASHMORE, Georgia.
1901 A Standard Course of Study for Elementary Schools in Cities.—R. G. BOONE, Ohio.
1902 College Graduates in Elementary Schools.—THOMAS M. BALLIET, Massachusetts.
1904 The Kindergarten and the Elementary School as Illustrated in Their Exhibits. From the Kindergarten Standpoint.—PATTY S. HILL, Kentucky.
The Kindergarten and the Elementary School as Illustrated in Their Exhibits. From the Standpoint of the School.—C. B. GILBERT, New York.
The Natural Activities of Children as Determining the Industries in Early Education.—KATHARINE E. DOPP, Illinois, and Other Authors.
1905 Review of the Educational Progress of the Year and a Discussion of Some Phases of the Curriculum of the Elementary School.—Miss N. CROPSEY, Indiana, and M. A. BAILEY, New York.
1906 On the Developments and Changes in Primary Teaching in France during the Third Republic.—PIERRE EMILE LEVASSEUR, France.
The Educational Awakening in England.—MICHAEL ERNEST SADDLER, England.

21. ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE AS SUBJECTS OF STUDY

(*See also* Spelling.)

1869 Natural Reading.—Mrs. RANDALL, New York.
1870 Claims of English Grammar in Common Schools.—J. H. BLODGETT, Illinois.
1871 First Steps in Teaching Reading.—E. E. WHITE, Ohio.
1872 Methods of Teaching English in the High School.—F. A. MARCH, Pennsylvania.
English Literature—Its Place in Popular Education.—F. H. UNDERWOOD, Massachusetts.
English Grammar in Elementary Schools.—M. A. NEWELL, Maryland.
1873 Leigh's Method of Teaching Reading.—WM. M. BRYANT, Iowa.
Elementary Reading—the Phonetic Method, with Pronouncing Orthography, in Its Relation to Other Methods.—EDWIN LEIGH, New York.
Primary Reading—The Thought and Sentence Method.—GEO. L. FARNHAM, New York.
1874 Language Lessons in Elementary Schools.—Miss H. A. KEELER, Ohio.
1875 Comparative Orthoepy.—W. C. SAWYER, Wisconsin.
Language Teaching—Its Importance and Methods.—HENRY F. HARRINGTON, Massachusetts.
1876 Report on Orthoepy.—W. C. SAWYER, Ohio.
The Study of Anglo-Saxon Language and Literature.—J. M. GARNETT, Maryland.
1877 The English Language in Elementary Schools.—ZALMON RICHARDS, District of Columbia.
The Place of English in the Higher Education.—A. B. STARK, Kentucky.
The Study of English as Introductory to Latin and Greek.—THOS. R. PRICE, Virginia.
1879 Orthography in High Schools, etc.—F. A. MARCH, Pennsylvania.
The Historical Method in the Teaching of English.—JAMES M. GARNETT, Maryland.
1880 What We Should Seek to Accomplish in Reading Exercises.—E. O. VAILE, Illinois.
1884 English Instruction for Children.—O. T. BRIGHT, Illinois.
The Part Which the Study of Language Plays in a Liberal Education.—JOHN BASCOM, Wisconsin.
1885 English in American Schools.—E. S. COX, Ohio.
Language as an Educator.—Z. RICHARDS, District of Columbia.
1886 Language Work.—N. C. DOUGHERTY, Illinois.
Reading-Circles for Teachers.—JEROME ALLEN, New York.
Growth and Benefits of Reading Circles.—HUBERT M. SKINNER, Indiana.
1887 The Place of Literature in the College Course.—HOMER B. SPRAGUE, California.
The Ministration of Literature.—MINNIE C. CLARKE, Missouri.
1888 Teaching English.—J. B. MCCHESNEY, California.
Elocution: Its Place in Education.—MARTHA FLEMING, Tennessee.

1888 The Place of Literature in Common-School Education.—HORACE E. SCUDDER, Massachusetts.
Practical Value in Life of a Taste for Good Literature.—MARY L. BEECHER, Tennessee.
Practical Methods of Using Literature in Teaching Children to Read.—LEROY HALSEY, Michigan.
Ought Young Girls to Read the Daily Newspapers?—WM. T. HARRIS, Massachusetts.

1889 Literature for High Schools.—MINNIE C. CLARK, Missouri.
Literature for Children to the Front.—MARY E. BURT, Illinois.
Methods of Study in English.—M. W. SMITH, Ohio.

1890 Definition of Educational Literature.—W. H. PAYNE, Tennessee.
Value of Educational Literature to Teacher and Student.—F. LOUIS SOLDAN, Missouri.
The Value of Educational Literature to the Student and to the Professional Teacher.—W. E. SHELDON, Massachusetts.
The Value of Educational Literature, and Its Direct and Indirect Influence upon American Systems of Education.—W. R. GARRETT, Tennessee.
The Teachers' Reading-Circle in Education.—Mrs. D. LATHROP WILLIAMS, Ohio.
Educational Ideas in Dickens' Novels.—F. LOUIS SOLDAN, Missouri.

1891 Voice Culture in Primary and Elementary Schools.—Z. RICHARDS, District of Columbia.
How English Is Taught in One High School.—RAY GREENE HULING, Massachusetts.
The Synthetic Sound System of Teaching Reading.—F. B. GAULT, Washington.

1892 Usage the Authority in Language.—BRAINERD KELLOGG, New York.
Literature for Children.—GEORGE E. HARDY, New York.
Report of the Committee on Elementary Education (The Uses of Literature in Elementary Education).—L. H. JONES, Indiana, chairman.
History and Literature in Grammar Grades.—J. H. PHILLIPS, Alabama.
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1893 The Study of English Literature in French Universities.—ANDRÉ L. CHEVRILLON France.
Report of Conference on English.—SAMUEL THURBER, Massachusetts, chairman.
Shall Reading and Writing Be Taught in the Kindergarten?—Mrs. ALICE H. PUTNAM, Illinois.

1894 The Ethical Element in Literature, and How to Make the Most of It in Teaching.—J. A. MCLELLAN, Ontario.
The Study of English in the Public Schools.—A. P. MARBLE, Massachusetts.
German Methods of Using the Mother Tongue.—RICHARD JONES, Pennsylvania.
The Study of Literature.—RICHARD G. MOULTON, Illinois.
Discussion of Reports of Committee of Ten: English.—A. F. NIGHTINGALE, Illinois.

1895 What Has Been Accomplished in Co-ordination in the Field of History and Literature.—CHARLES A. MCMURRY, Illinois.

1896 The Teaching of English Literature, with Special Reference to Secondary Schools.—W. P. TRENT, Tennessee.
Literature in Elementary Schools.—Mrs. ELLA F. YOUNG, Illinois.
Round Table—Ancient Languages and English—
Translation from the Greek and Latin Classics as a Training in the Use of English.—I. B. BURGESS, Illinois; WILLIAM C. COLLAR, Massachusetts; FRANK A. MANNY, Illinois.
American Literature.—BRANDER MATTHEWS, New York.

1897 Round Table in English.—HARRIET L. KEELER, Ohio, leader.
Why Art and Literature Ought to Be Studied in Our Schools.—WM. T. HARRIS, District of Columbia.
English in Business Schools.—Mrs. SARA A. SPENCER, District of Columbia.

1898 The Educational Value of the Tragic as Compared with the Comic in Literature and Art.—WM. T. HARRIS, District of Columbia.
Subjects for Compositions: Shall We Draw Them from Literature or from Life?—EDWIN L. MILLER, Illinois.
English the Core of a Secondary Course.—JOHN CALVIN HANNA, Ohio.
Some of the Main Principles of Secondary English Teaching.—SAMUEL THURBER, Massachusetts.
A Proposed Four-Years' Course in English for Secondary Schools.—CHARITY DYE, Indiana.

1898 Syllabus of a Course in English, with a Defense of the Same.—W. F. WEBSTER, Minnesota.
The English Round Table—Essay Correcting: Can It Be Made a Joy Forever?—F. N. SCOTT, Michigan.
The Essentials of English Composition for Elementary Schools.—EDWARD R. SHAW, New York.
The Essentials of English Composition to Be Taught in Secondary Schools.—C. C. THACH, Alabama.
What Proportion of Essay Subjects Shall Be Drawn from Literature?—F. V. N. PAINTER, Virginia.
1900 English in the Grades.—A. A. REED, Nebraska.
How Shall We Teach Our Pupils the Correct Use of the English Language?—OLIVER S. WESTCOTT, Illinois.
The Influence of Poetry in Education.—WILLIAM M. BEARDSHEAR, Iowa.
The Value of English Literature in Ethical Training.—REUBEN POST HALLECK, Kentucky.
Educational Principles Applied to the Teaching of Literature.—MARTIN G. BRUMBAUGH, Pennsylvania.
1901 Round-Table Conferences—The English Conference.—JAMES H. HARRIS, Michigan.
1902 Educational Value of Training in Public Speaking.—THOMAS C. TRUEBLOOD, Michigan.
Round Table—English Conference.—THOMAS C. TRUEBLOOD, Michigan.
1903 The Teaching of Argumentative Discourse in High Schools.—GEORGE P. BAKER, Massachusetts; CHARLES S. HARTWELL, New York.
Literature in the Grades and How to Use It.—Mrs. ALICE W. COOLEY, North Dakota.
1904 Avenues of Lanugage: Expression in the Elementary School.—PERCIVAL CHUBB, New York, and Others.
Round-Table Conference—English Conference.—WILLIAM SCHUYLER, Missouri.
Round-Table Conference—Laboratory Method in English Composition.—PHILO MELVYN BUCK, JR., Missouri.
1905 Teaching Our Language to Non-English-Speaking Pupils.—GUSTAVE STRAUBENMÜLLER, New York.
Round-Table Conference—B. English Conference.—PHILO M. BUCK, Missouri.
Round-Table Conference—C. Reading in the First School Year.—Mrs. ALICE COOLEY, North Dakota.
The Psychology of Reading and Writing.—ROBERT MACDOUGALL, New York.
The Study of English Composition as a Means of Acquiring Power.—GEORGIA ALEXANDER, Indiana.
1906 What Kind of Language Study Aids in the Mastery of Natural Science?—W. T. HARRIS, District of Columbia.

22. EXAMINATIONS

(*See also* College-Entrance Requirements.)

1863 Competitive Examination for Admission to West Point.—H. BARNARD, Connecticut.
1864 Competitive Examination for Public Service.—H. BARNARD, Connecticut.
1887 Examinations as Tests for Promotion in Public Schools.—H. S. TARBELL, Rhode Island.
Method of Conducting Examinations in Ordinary School Work by the Class Teacher.—AARON GOVE, Colorado.
School Examinations.—GEORGE A. LITTLEFIELD, Rhode Island.
School Examinations.—C. C. ROUNDS, New Hampshire.
1889 Teachers' Examinations.—M. A. NEWELL, Maryland.
Examinations for Promotion.—WILLIAM M. GIFFIN, New Jersey.
Examination for Promotion in the Public Schools.—WILLIAM DEWITT HYDE, Maine.
1890 Examinations as Tests for Promotion.—WM. H. MAXWELL, New York.
1901 The Use and Control of Examinations.—ARTHUR T. HADLEY, Connecticut.
1902 The Value of Examinations as Determining a Teacher's Fitness for Work.—EDWIN G. COOLEY, Illinois.
President's Address—Call Out the Leaders.—J. REMSEN BISHOP, Ohio.

23. EXHIBITIONS AND MUSEUMS

1875 American Education at the Centennial Exposition.—J. P. Wickersham, Pennsylvania.

1884 Educational Exposition at Madison, Wis. General Report of Committees on the Exhibition of: I. Industrial and Manual Training; II. Art; III. Kindergarten; IV. Special Exhibits; V. State Exhibits.—Wm. T. Harris, District of Columbia.

Report of Special Committees: On the Kindergarten Exhibit; on State Exhibits; on Art and Industrial Education; on Special Exhibits.

1885 Reports on Education at the World's Cotton Exposition, New Orleans, 1884–5.

Reports on Educational Exhibits at the World's Cotton Centennial Exposition, in New Orleans: U. S. Bureau of Education; Industrial Education; Schools of Christian Brothers; Colored People; Foreign Educational Exhibit; Kindergarten Exhibit; Educational.

1886 Report of the Art Exhibition.

1887 Educational Exposition, Chicago.—George P. Brown, Illinois.

1889 Report of Committee on Exhibits at the Meeting in Nashville, Tennessee.

1890 The American Educational Exhibit at the International Exposition of 1893.—John Eaton, District of Columbia, and Others.

Report of the Committee on Exhibits at the Meeting in St. Paul, Minn.: School Exhibits; Manual Training; Form and Color; Drawing; Kindergarten.

1891 Reports of Committee on Exhibits at Toronto, Can.; Kindergarten; Catalogue of Exhibits; Drawing; Color.

1892 The World's Congresses of 1893.—C. C. Bonney, Illinois.

What Should Secondary Schools Do to Promote Their Interests at the World's Fair?—J. L. Holloway, Arkansas.

The World's Educational Congress.—Wm. T. Harris, District of Columbia.

Report on the World's Educational Congress.—Wm. T. Harris, District of Columbia, chairman.

The Educational Exhibit of the World's Columbian Exposition.—Selim H. Peabody, Illinois.

Representation of Educational Systems at the World's Exposition.—Albert G. Lane, Illinois.

1893 The Use of Magic Lanterns in Schools.—Gustave Serrurier, France.

1894 The Exhibit of Education at the Columbian Exposition.—John Eaton, District of Columbia.

The Educational Exhibit at the Columbian Exposition.—Selim H. Peabody, New York.

1898 Our Educational Exhibit at the International Exposition in Paris in 1900.—Wm. T. Harris, District of Columbia.

1899 The United States Exhibit at Paris.—Howard J. Rogers, New York.

1901 Education at the Paris Exposition.—Howard J. Rogers, New York.

Educational Lessons of the Paris Exposition.—Anna Tolman Smith, District of Columbia.

Lessons of the Educational Exhibits at Paris in 1900.—Howard J. Rogers, New York.

1902 The Educational Value of Museums.—Oliver Cummings Farrington, Illinois.

1904 The Lessons of the Exposition.—Howard J. Rogers, Missouri.

Progress of the South, as Shown by Exhibits.—Brown Ayres, Louisiana.

Reports on Work as Shown by Exhibits.—Various Authors.

President's Address—The Influence of a Great Exposition as an Art Educator.—James Frederick Hopkins, Massachusetts.

Education at the Universal Exposition, 1904: From the View-Point of the Chief of the Department.—Howard J. Rogers, Missouri.

Education at the Universal Exposition, 1904: Exhibit of the United States Bureau of Education.—Wm. T. Harris, District of Columbia.

Education at the Universal Exposition, 1904: Some City Exhibits: Their Purpose and Plan. A. St. Louis.—F. Louis Soldan, Missouri.
B. The City of New York.—Andrew W. Edson, New York.

The Swedish Educational Exhibit and Its Relation to the Schools of Sweden.—N. G. W. Lagerstedt, Sweden.

The Japanese Exhibit and Its Relation to Education in Japan.—Mosuke Matsumura, Secretary of the Japanese Commission to the Exposition.

The Philippine Teacher and the Philippine Educational Exhibit.—Albert Ralph Hager, Philippine Exposition Board.

1904 The Kindergarten and the Elementary School as Illustrated in Their Exhibits: From the Kindergarten Standpoint.—PATTY S. HILL, Kentucky.
The Kindergarten and the Elementary School as Illustrated in Their Exhibits: From the Standpoint of the School.—C. B. GILBERT, New York.
1905 Review of the Educational Features of the Universal Exposition at St. Louis.—Various Authors.
The Uses of Educational Museums.—FREDERICK J. V. SKIFF, Illinois.

24. FINANCES AND TAXATION

(*See also* Pensions for Teachers; Salaries of Teachers; Supervision, Organization, and Administration.)

1866 Cost *per Capita* of Education in Different States.—J. W. BULKLEY, New York.
School Funds: How Best Raised, and How Best Disbursed.—JOHN EATON, Tennessee.
1884 The New Bill for National Aid to Public Schools.—B. G. NORTHROP, Connecticut.
National Aid for the Support of Public Schools.—J. W. DICKINSON, Massachusetts.
1886 National Aid to Education.—J. A. B. LOVETT, Alabama.
1888 Federal Aid.—J. A. B. LOVETT, Alabama; ALEXANDER HOGG, Tennessee.
1897 Rural Schools. Appendix B.—Permanent School Funds.
1899 Report of Committee on Uniform Financial Reports.—C. G. PEARSE, Nebraska, chairman.
1902 Taxation for School Purposes.—NATHAN C. SCHAEFFER, Pennsylvania.
Taxation and Teachers' Salaries.—A. G. LANE, Illinois.
1905 Some of the Conditions Which Cause Variation in the Rate of School Expenditures in Different Localities.—WM. T. HARRIS, District of Columbia.
1905[1] Report of Committee of Taxation as Related to Public Education.—JAMES M. GREENWOOD, Missouri, chairman.
Table I: School Expenditures Classified.
Table II: Cost of Instruction as Compared with Other Expenditures.
Table III: Relation of Maintenance of Schools to Total City Operating Expenses.
Table IV: Classification of School Expenses in Cities, by Groups.
Methods of School Taxation in New York City.—WM. H. MAXWELL, New York.
Taxation for School Purposes.—NATHAN C. SCHAEFFER, Pennsylvania.
Twenty-five Years Progress of Public Education in North Carolina, with Various Tables.—CHARLES D. MCIVER, North Carolina; CHARLES L. COON, North Carolina.
Taxation for School Purposes in Pennsylvania.—NATHAN C. SCHAEFFER, Pennsylvania.
Method of Taxation for School Purposes in Indiana.—JOHN W. CARR, Indiana.
Table V: Cost of Maintenance of Schools Compared with Each of the Other Municipal Departments in the 137 Cities of Largest Population.—WM. T. HARRIS, District of Columbia.
Table VI: Value of Property, Comparative Cost of Schools, and Wages Earned in the 137 Cities of Largest Population.

25. GEOGRAPHY AS A SUBJECT OF STUDY

1871 How to Teach Geography.—MARY HOWE SMITH, New York.
1881 An Evening in Wonderland.—WM. I. MARSHALL, Massachusetts.
1888 Scientific Methods in Teaching Geography.—C. F. PALMER, Ohio.
1893 Report of Conference on Geography.—T. C. CHAMBERLIN, Illinois, chairman.
1895 Physical Geography—Its Possibilities and Difficulties.—EDWARD L. HARRIS, Ohio.
The Relation of Geography to History.—EDWARD CHANNING, Massachusetts.
1897 Physical Geography in Secondary Schools.—ALBERT PERRY BRIGHAM, New York.
Laboratory Work in Elementary Physiography.—R. H. CORNISH, Illinois.
1898 Influence of Environment on the Development of United States History.—JACQUES W. REDWAY, New York.

[1] The Reports and Papers from this point to the end of the section were not printed in any volume of *Proceedings*, but were published in a separate pamphlet.

1898 The Geospheres.—W. J. McGee, District of Columbia.
Preliminary Report of the Subcommittee on Physical Geography.—Albert Perry Brigham, New York.
1899 Report of the Committee on Physical Geography.—William North Rice, Connecticut, acting chairman.
1901 The Relation of Physical Geography to Geology.—William Harmon Norton, Iowa.
Round Table—Physiography Conference.—W. H. Snyder, Massachusetts.
1902 Physiography in the Secondary Schools.—J. A. Merrill, Wisconsin.
1903 The Human Side of Geography.—Lloyd E. Wolfe, Texas.
Commercial Geography: The New Science.—Frank O. Carpenter, Massachusetts.
Out-Of-Door Class Work in Geography.—F. P. Gulliver, Massachusetts.
1904 Out-Of-Door Work in Geography.—Mark S. W. Jefferson, Michigan.
Applied Geography, Illustrated from the Louisiana Purchase.—Arthur G. Clement, New York.
1905 Right Methods of Studying History and Geography by Children. Round-Table Conference—B.—Frank M. McMurry, New York.

26. GOVERNMENT AND DISCIPLINE OF SCHOOLS

1863 School Gymnastics.—S. W. Mason, Massachusetts.
1870 Motives and Means Which Should Be Made Prominent in School Discipline. (Discussion.)
1889 Discipline in Elementary Schools.—Bettie A. Dutton, Ohio.
An Educational Experiment.—S. H. Peabody, Illinois.
1890 Co-operative Government.—M. C. Fernald, Maine.
Forms of Discipline and Discipline of Forms.—R. L. Wiggins, Tennessee.
1892 Discipline in High School.—R. E. Denfeld, Minnesota.
1894 Discipline as the Result of Self-Government.—A. V. Storm, Iowa.
The Dogma of Formal Discipline.—B. A. Hinsdale, Michigan.
1895 Punishment as Seen by Children.—Earl Barnes, California.
1896 Congressional Work for Youth.—W. K. Wickes, New York.
1900 The Problem of the Grades—Discipline.—Gertude Edmund, Massachusetts.

27. HIGHER EDUCATION—COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

1864 Should a Professor of Didactics Be Employed in Every Principal College?—Thomas Hill. Read by J. D. Philbrick, Massachusetts.
1866 Normal Instruction in Colleges.—Edward North, New York.
The True Idea of a College.—P. A. Chadburne, Wisconsin.
The Duties of an American State in Respect to Higher Education.—W. F. Phelps, Minnesota.
1869 Progress of University Education.—J. W. Hoyt, Wisconsin.
The State in Its Relation to Higher Education.—J. P. Wickersham, Pennsylvania.
1871 Superior Education as Related to Universal Education.—John Eaton, District of Columbia.
1873 Western University Education.—W. G. Eliot, Missouri.
Upper Schools.—James McCosh, New Jersey.
1874 A National University.—J. W. Hoyt, Wisconsin. (Review of a paper read at Elmira, N. Y., by Charles W. Eliot.)
Four Years in Vassar College.—James Orton, New York.
A Paper on a National University.—Wm. T. Harris, Missouri.
A National University.—Andrew D. White, New York.
The Plan of the University of Virginia.—C. S. Venable, Virginia.
1875 Military Science and Tactics in Our Universities and Colleges.—A. D. Schenk, Iowa.
1876 A Notice of the History of the South Carolina College.—W. J. Rivers, Maryland.
1877 The Relation of the Preparatory and Grammar Schools to College and University.—W. R. Webb, Tennessee.
The Class System.—Noah Porter, Connecticut.
1879 College Dormitories.—Charles Kendall, Michigan.

1880 Scholarships.—J. L. Pickard, Iowa.
1881 The Advancement of Higher Education.—H. H. Tucker, Georgia.
1882 The Place of Original Research in College Education.—John H. Wright, New Hampshire.
Chairs of Pedagogy in Our Higher Institutions of Learning.—G. Stanley Hall, Maryland.
Is the Prize System, on the Whole, the Best for Colleges?—J. H. Carlisle, South Carolina.
The University—Its Place and Work in the American System of Education.—Eli T. Tappan, Ohio.
1883 The University—How and What (abstract)?—William W. Folwell, Minnesota.
1885 The Relation of Secondary Education to the American University Problem.—Andrew F. West, New Jersey.
The Practical Value of a College Education.—S. N. Fellows, Iowa.
1886 Colleges North and South.—J. D. Dreher, Virginia.
The College Curriculum.—Wm. A. Mowry, Massachusetts.
1887 Relation of University, College, and Higher Schools to the Public System of Instruction.—T. H. McBride, Iowa.
The Relation of the Christian College.—James W. Strong, Minnesota.
Relations of the University to Public Education.—James B. Angell, Michigan.
Higher Instruction on the Pacific Coast.—C. C. Stratton, California.
The State University and Public High Schools.—A. L. Cook, California.
Higher Education.—Horatio Stebbins, California.
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1889 A National University.—William A. Mowry, Massachusetts.
The State and Higher Education.—H. B. Adams, Maryland.
A National University.—Wm. A. Mowry, Massachusetts.
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Honorary Degrees as Conferred by American Colleges.—Charles F. Smith, Tennessee.
The Opportunities of the Rural Population for Higher Education.—J. H. Canfield, Kansas.
An Educational Experiment.—S. H. Peabody, Illinois.
Pedagogical Chairs in Universities and Colleges.—B. A. Hinsdale, Michigan.
1890 University and School Extension.—Wm. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
College Education and Professional Life.—J. C. Hutchinson, Illinois.
The Relation of the College to the Morals of the Student.—M. D. Hornbeck, Illinois.
What Have the People a Right to Ask from the Colleges?—Charles A. Blanchard, Illinois.
A Chair of Pedagogy.—R. G. Boone, Indiana.
Defects in College Discipline.—Rufus C. Burleson, Texas.
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College Fraternities: Their Influence and Control.—J. T. McFarland, Iowa.
1891 Military Education in the United States.—Allen Allensworth, New Mexico.
Should the College Course Be Shortened?—John M. Coulter, Indiana.
The Organization of Higher Education.—Nicholas Murray Butler, New York.
Universities and Schools.—Oscar H. Cooper, Texas. (Discussion.)
1892 Ethical Culture in the College and University.—James H. Canfield, Nebraska.
Relation of Undergraduate to Post-graduate Curricula.—William Pepper, Pennsylvania.
University Education.—Richard H. Jesse, Missouri.
The University in Its Relation to the People.—Elmer E. Brown, Michigan.
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1893 The Relation of Our Colleges and Universities to the Advancement of Our Civilization.—John J. Keane, District of Columbia.
The Relation of Professional Schools to the University.—Seth Low, New York.
What Signs of Improvement Are Visible in the Undergraduate Life of American Students?—Bradford Paul Raymond, Connecticut.
Should Greek Be Required for the Degree of Bachelor of Arts?—W. G. Hale, Illinois.
On What Conditions Should the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy Be Given?—William O. Sproull, Ohio.
The Division of Labor in the University.—Giuseppe Allievo, Italy.

1893 Legal Education in the United States.—L. DIMSCHA, Russia.
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Should an Antecedent Liberal Education Be Required of Students in Law, Medicine and Theology.—WOODROW WILSON, New Jersey.
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1894 The Influence of the Higher Education of a Country upon Its Elementary Schools.—WM. T. HARRIS, District of Columbia.
The University in Its Relation to the Teaching Profession.—CHARLES DEGARMO, Pennsylvania.
The Future of the Smaller College.—JOHN F. CROWELL, North Carolina.
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The Future Organization of the Higher Education in the United States.—RICHARD T. ELY, Wisconsin.
Standard of Admission to Professional Schools.—J. N. HALL, Colorado.

1896 The University and the State in the South.—EDWIN A. ALDERMAN, North Carolina.
What Should the Colleges and the University Do for the Graduate of the High School?—JAMES H. BAKER, Colorado.
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Report of the Committee on Higher Education—The Higher Life of the College.—JOHN E. BRADLEY, Illinois.

1897 Higher Education in the South.—GEORGE T. WINSTON, Texas.
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The State University.—JAMES H. BAKER, Colorado.
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The Larger University Idea.—ELMER E. BROWN, California.
The Formation of a Federation of Colleges and Universities in the United States Similar to the Association of American Medical Colleges.—B. A. HINSDALE, Michigan.
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1899 Continuous University Sessions.—JEROME H. RAYMOND, West Virginia.
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The Small College.—WILLIAM OXLEY THOMPSON, Ohio.
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The State University.—JOSEPH SWAIN, Indiana.
The Function of the Land-Grant College in American Education.—W. M. BEARDSHEAR, Iowa.

1901 The Functions of a University in a Prosperous Democracy.—CHARLES F. THWING, Ohio.
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1903 The Present Peril to Liberal Education.—ANDREW F. WEST, New Jersey.
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Honor in Student Life in Colleges and Universities.—CHARLES ALPHONSO SMITH, North Carolina.

28. HISTORY OF EDUCATION

1858 The Educational Tendencies and Progress for the Past Thirty Years.—DANIEL READ, Wisconsin.
1866 Education in the Argentine Republic.—Senor SARMIENTO, Minister to the United States.
1872 Necessities for Public Instruction in the Gulf States.—JOSEPH HOGDSON, Alabama.
1873 Education in the Southern States.—J. C. GIBBS, Florida.
1874 System of Public Instruction in Ontario.—J. GEO. HODGINS, Ontario.
1875 Public Instruction in Minnesota.—W. W. FOLWELL, Minnesota.
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1876 Education in Argentine Confederation.—Señor DORNA, Argentine Confederacy.
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1877 Educational Interests of Texas.—RUFUS C. BURLESON, Texas.
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Educational Progress in the South Since 1865.—W. A. CANDLER, Georgia.
1891 The Educational System of Ontario.—GEO. W. ROSS, Minister of Education.
A Year in a German Model School.—JULIA S. TUTWILER, Alabama.
1892 Twenty Year's Progress in Education.—WM. T. HARRIS, District of Columbia.
1893 National Education in Scotland.—FLORA C. STEVENSON, Scotland.
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The Present Situation of Education in France.—GABRIEL COMPAYRÉ, France.
Joseph Peter Varela and the Progress of Education in Uruguay.—ALBERTO GOMEZ RUANO, Uruguay.
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1893 Training of Teachers in High Schools in Sweden.—EDWARD OSTERBERG, Sweden.
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1894 The South and Its Problems.—LAWTON B. EVANS, Georgia.
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The Educational Problem in Hawaii.—HENRY S. TOWNSEND, Hawaii.
The Public Lands and Public Education.—E. B. PRETTYMAN, Maryland.
Educational Progress of the Year.—NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER, New York.

1900 Status of Education at the Close of the Century.—NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER, New York.
Obligations and Opportunities of Scholarship.—EDWIN A. ALDERMAN, North Carolina.
Education in the Colonies.—AARON GOVE, Colorado.
Educational Progress during the Year 1899–1900.—B. A. HINSDALE, Michigan.

1901 Educational Progress of the Year.—ELMER E. BROWN, California.
The Educational Crisis in England.—CLOUDESLEY S. H. BRERETON, England.
Educational Pioneering in the Southern Mountains.—WILLIAM GOODELL FROST, Kentucky.
The Rise of National Education in the Sixteenth Century.—JOHN WILLIAM PERRIN, Ohio.

1902 Educational Conditions and Progress in China.—C. M. LACEY SITES, China.
Education in the Philippines.—JACOB GOULD SCHURMAN, New York.
The Educational Progress of the Year 1901–2.—WILLIAM R. HARPER, Illinois.
Organization of Education in Brazil.—HORACE M. LANE, South America.
The Recent Reaction in France Against Rousseau's Negation of Society in Education.—ANNA TOLMAN SMITH, District of Columbia.
Progress of Education in Porto Rico.—M. G. BRUMBAUGH, Pennsylvania.

1903 The Beginning and Aims of the General Education Board.—WALLACE BUTTRICK, New York.
The Educational Progress of the Year 1902–3.—WILLIAM DEWITT HYDE, Maine.
Oxford University and the Rhodes Scholarships.—WM. T. HARRIS, District of Columbia.
The Schools of the People.—EDGAR GARDNER MURPHY, Alabama.

1904 A Filipino's View of Education in the Philippines.—Senora MARIA DEL PILAR ZAMORA, Philippine Islands.
The Japanese Exhibit and Its Relation to Education in Japan.—MOSUKE MATSUMURA, Secretary of the Japanese Commission to the Exposition.
The Swedish Educational Exhibit and Its Relation to the Schools of Sweden.—N. G. W. LAGERSTEDT, Sweden.
The Phillippine Teacher and the Philippine Educational Exhibit.—ALBERT RALPH HAGAR, Philippine Exposition Board.
The Kindergarten in Japan.—ANNIE L. HOWE, Illinois.
The French and German Elementary Schools.—FREDERICK ERNEST FARRINGTON, California.
What May the Secondary Schools of the United States Learn from a Study of German Secondary Education?—FREDERICK E. BOLTON, Iowa.
Educational Principles for the South.—CHARLES W. DABNEY, Tennessee; CHARLES D. MCIVER, North Carolina.
The French and German Elementary Schools.—FREDERICK ERNEST FARRINGTON, California.
Education in the Philippines.—E. B. BRYAN, Indiana.
Educational Needs of the South.—J. H. PHILLIPS, Alabama.

1904 Popular Education in England.—Percy Atkin, England.
Education in Porto Rico.—Samuel McCune Lindsay, Porto Rico.
What May the Secondary Schools of the United States Learn from a Study of French Secondary Education?—E. W. Lyttle, New York.
1905 Report on the Educational Progress of the Year.—Howard J. Rogers, New York.
1906 Fifty Years of American Education.—Elmer Ellsworth Brown, District of Columbia.
The Educational Awakening in England.—Michael Ernest Saddler, England.
The Past and Future of German Education.—Friedrich Paulsen, Berlin.
What France Owes to America in the Matter of Education.—J. J. Gabriel Compayré, France.
The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.—Henry S. Pritchett, New York.
State Teachers' Associations Organized before 1857.—Will S. Monroe, Massachusetts.
History of Educational Journalism.—C. W. Bardeen, New York.
The National Teachers' Association (1857–70)—Historical Sketch.
National Organization of Teachers.—William Russell, Massachusetts.
The National Educational Association, Historical Sketches, Extracts from D. B. Hagar's Presidential Address in 1870; also from John Hancock's Presidential Address in 1879.
Organization and Functions of the National Educational Association.—W. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
Origin of Free Schools in the American Colonies.—*Barnard's Journal.*
Home and School Training in New England about 1776.—Thomas Brainard, Connecticut.
The American Institute of Instruction.—Albert E. Winship.
Western Literary Institute and College of Professional Teachers: 1831–45.—Will S. Monroe, Massachusetts.
School Teachers and Superintendents.—Opening Address of the President.—Horace Mann.
Closing Address.—Horace Mann.
American Association for the Advancement of Education.—Will S. Monroe, Massachusetts.
The American Association for the Advancement of Science.—L. O. Howard, District of Columbia.
American Library Association.—Melvil Dewey, New York.
General Education Board.—Wallace Buttrick, New York.
The Southern Education Board.—Edgar Gardner Murphy, Alabama.
The Southern Educational Association.—Richard J. Tighe, North Carolina.

29. HISTORY TEACHING

1889 The Teaching of Patriotism in the Public Schools and Everywhere.—G. W. F. Price, Tennessee.
History a Patriotic Force in Schools.—H. B. Carrington, Massachusetts.
1890 The Purpose and Scope of History in the High School.—W. M. West, Minnesota.
1891 Aims in Teaching Civil Government.—Frank A. Hill, Massachusetts.
Methods of Teaching General History.—Mrs. Mary Sheldon Barnes, Indiana.
1892 History and Literature in Grammar Grades.—J. H. Phillips, Alabama.
Teaching Current Events in School.—E. O. Vaile, Illinois.
History in Elementary Education.—M. A. Newell, Maryland.
The Chief Aim in the Study of History.—Walter A. Edwards, Illinois.
1893 Report of Conference on History, Civil Government, and Political Economy.—Chas. Kendall Adams, Wisconsin, chairman.
1894 Discussion of Reports of Committee of Ten—History.—Frank M. McMurry, Illinois.
History as an Aid to Moral Culture.—Chas. M. Andrews, Pennsylvania.
1895 The Relation of Geography to History.—Edward Channing, Massachusetts.
What Has Been Accomplished in Co-ordination in the Field of History and Literature.—Charles A. McMurry, Illinois.
The Teaching of Political Economy in Secondary Schools.—Charles F. Thwing, Ohio.
History Teaching in Schools.—B. A. Hinsdale, Michigan.

1895 The Study of American History as a Training for Good Citizenship.—J. BALDWIN, Texas.
The Ethical Element in Patriotism.—A. P. MARBLE, Nebraska.
1896 Round Table—History.—RAY GREENE HULING, Massachusetts.
History in the Secondary Schools.—H. MORSE STEPHENS, New York.
The Ethical Value of History in Elementary Schools.—J. F. MILLSPAUGH, Utah.
1897 Round Table in History.—C. W. FRENCH, Illinois, leader.
The Study of History in Our Public Schools.—NEWTON C. DOUGHERTY, Illinois.
Shall American History Be Taught in Cross-Sections or in Parallels?—JAMES M. GREENWOOD, Missouri.
1898 Influence of Environment on the Development of United States History.—JACQUES W. REDWAY, New York.
The Essentials in United States History to Be Taught in Elementary Schools.—WILBUR F. GORDY, Connecticut.
The Essentials in United States History to Be Taught in Secondary Schools.—HOMER H. SEERLEY, Iowa.
1899 College-Entrance Requirements—Report of the Committee of Seven of the American Historical Association.—ANDREW C. MCLAUGHLIN, Michigan, chairman.
The Economic Interpretation of History.—E. A. BRYAN, Washington.
In Fundamental Civics, What Shall We Teach as the American Doctrine of Religion and the State?—SYLVESTER F. SCOVEL, Ohio.
1901 Round Table—History Conference.—J. J. SHEPPARD, New York.
1902 Myth and History in the Elementary Schools. The Use and Limits of Each.—MAY H. PRENTICE, Ohio.
Round Table—History Conference.—CHARLES R. FRAZIER, Minnesota.
1903 The Teaching of Civics and Good Citizenship in the Public Schools.—R. W. G. WELLING, New York.
Round-Table Conference—IV. History Conference.—JAMES SULLIVAN, New York.
History in the Curriculum of the Commercial High School.—CHEESMAN A. HERRICK, Pennsylvania.
1905 Round-Table Conference—V. Right Methods of Studying History and Geography by Children.—FRANK M. MCMURRY, New York.
Round-Table Conference—C. History Conference.—JAMES SULLIVAN, New York.

30. INDIAN EDUCATION AND OTHER MINOR ALIEN RACES

1884 Indian Education.—J. M. HAWORTH, District of Columbia.
Indian Education.—R. H. PRATT, Pennsylvania.
The Education of the Indian.—S. C. ARMSTRONG, Virginia.
1886 Education of the Mexican.—W. H. ASHLEY, New Mexico.
The Education of the Mongolian or Chinese.—S. L. BALDWIN.
The Results of Education in the Indian Territory.—R. L. OWEN, Indian Territory.
1888 Alaska.—N. H. R. DAWSON, District of Columbia.
1891 Indian Education.—ORONHYATEKHA, Ontario.
In Search of an Education.—MOMOLU MASSAQUOY, Prince of the Vey Nation, Africa.
1895 Industrial Training as Applied to Indian Schools.—R. H. PRATT, Pennsylvania.
The Next Step in the Education of the Indian.—W. N. HAILMANN, District of Columbia.
1900 The Indian Problem.—H. B. FRISSELL, Virginia.
The Proper Relation Between Literary and Industrial Education in Indian Schools.—A. J. STANDING, Pennsylvania.
The Health of the Indian.—C. C. WAINWRIGHT, California.
The Training of Teachers for Indian Schools.—CHARLES BARTLETT DYKE, Virginia.
The Teaching of Trades to the Indian.—F. K. ROGERS, Virginia.
The Training of the Indian Girl as the Uplifter of the Home.—JOSEPHINE E. RICHARDS, Virginia.
Kindergarten Work among the Indians.—BLANCHE FINLEY, Virginia.
Sanitary Conditions among the Indians.—J. G. BULLOCH, South Dakota.
Practical Methods in Indian Education.—JOHN SEGER, Oklahoma.

1901 Discussions: A. What Should Be the Percentage of Indian Blood to Entitle Pupils to the Rights of Government Schools?—H. B. Peairs, Kansas.
B. How Can We Secure the Systematic Transfer of Pupils from Day to Reservation Schools.—J. C. Hart, Wisconsin.
C. Children Should at Least Be Able to Speak, Read, and Write the English Language, Before Being Placed in a Non-Reservation School.—C. F. Pierce, South Dakota.
D. The Indian Employee.—C. J. Crandall, New Mexico.
E. The Necessity of Teaching the Boy to Improve the Allotment the Government Has Given Him.—F. F. Avery, Washington.
F. Practical Methods in Indian Education.—S. M. McCowan, New Mexico.
G. The Future of the Pueblo Indian.—Mary Dissette, New Mexico.
H. The Necessity for a Large Agricultural School in the Indian Service.—C. W. Goodman, Oklahoma.
I. Compulsory Education.—H. B. Peairs, Kansas.
Introspection.—E. A. Allen, Indian Territory.
The Reservation Day School Should Be the Prime Factor in Indian Education.—C. C. Covey, South Dokota.
The Unification of Industrial and Academic Features of the Indian Schools.—O. H. Bakeless, Pennsylvania.
What Shall Be Taught in an Indian School?—Calvin W. Woodward, Missouri.
An All-Round Mechanical Training for Indians.—Frank K. Rogers, Virginia.
Character Building among Indian Children.—Cora M. Folsom, Virginia.
The Day School the Gradual Uplifter of the Tribe.—Sister Macaria Murphy, Wisconsin.
President's Address—Learning by Doing.—H. B. Frissell, Virginia.
Civilization and Higher Education.—Wm. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
1902 Drawbacks to Civilization and Citizenship.—H. G. Wilson, Arizona.
How to Teach the Indian Boys and Girls to Become Homemakers, Especially from an Agricultural Standpoint.—R. D. Shutt, Washington.
The Value of the Outing System for Girls.—Laura Jackson, Pennsylvania.
The Need of Home Societies for the Encouragement and Protection of Indian Young Men and Women.—Joseph C. Hart, Wisconsin.
Tuberculosis—How Caused and How Prevented.—James S. Perkins, Arizona.
Opportunity and Judicious Direction for the Indian.—C. W. Crouse, Arizona.
The Advantages to the Pupil of Classroom Work as Outlined in the Course of Study.—Mrs. Lucy P. Hart, Wisconsin.
The Education of the Indian Should Be Adapted to His Needs.—Alice Robertson, Indian Territory.
The Value of a Large Agricultural School in the Indian Service.—S. M. McCowan, Oklahoma.
President's Address.—S. M. McCowan, Oklahoma.
What Is Our Aim?—E. A. Allen, Pennsylvania.
The Advisability of Having Schools of Moderate Size.—H. M. Noble, North Dakota.
Needed Changes in Indian Schools.—A. O. Wright, District of Columbia.
Best Method of Affecting Transfers of Pupils.—A. J. Standing, Pennsylvania.
To What Extent Do Agents and Superintendents Read the Rules and Regulations?—Thomas W. Potter, Oregon.
The Value of Day Schools.—James J. Duncan, South Dakota.
The Necessity for Books, Especially Those Adapted to Indian Children.—Claude C. Covey, South Dakota.
Newspapers in Indian Schools.—Wm. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
Abstracts of General Addresses—Various Authors.
Superintendents' Conference for Indian Schools.—Various Papers by Various Authors.
Teachers' Conferences for Indian Schools.—Various papers by Various Authors.
Matrons' Conference for Indian Schools.—Various Papers by Various Authors.
1903 President's Address—Our Work: Its Progress and Needs.—H. B. Peairs, Kansas.
To What Degree Has the Present System of Indian Schools Been Successful in Qualifying for Citizenship?—H. B. Frissell, Virginia.
Alaska's Start toward Citizenship.—Sheldon Jackson, District of Columbia.
The White Man's Burden *versus* Indigenous Development for the Lower Races.—G. Stanley Hall, Massachusetts.
Heart Culture in Indian Education.—Charles F. Meserve, North Carolina.

1904 Efficiency in the Indian Service.—JOHN T. DOYLE, District of Columbia.
Indian Music and Indian Education.—NATALIE CURTIS, New York.
Abstracts of Addresses and Discussions at Round-Table Conferences.
1905 Greetings and Resumé of Work from Officials and Friends.—JOHN J. FITZGERALD, and Others.
Music of the American Indian.—NATALIE CURTIS, New York.
Ethnological Study of Our Indians in the Southwest.—MABELLE BIGGART, New York.
Teaching Indian Pupils to Speak English.—REUBEN PERRY, Arizona.
Indian Characteristics.—MARY C. JUDD, Minnesota.
The Work of the Bureau of Plant Industry in Its Relation to Agricultural Instruction in Indian Schools.—SUSAN B. SIPE, District of Columbia.
Indian Education and Methods of Instruction.—Mrs. AMELIA S. QUINTON, New York.
The Advisability of Conducting Normal Schools to Train Teachers for Instructing Indian Children.—JOHN D. BENEDICT, Indian Territory.
The Necessity for More and Better-Equipped Day Schools.—J. J. DUNCAN, South Dakota.

31. INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION

(*See also* Agricultural Education; Manual training; Technical Education.)

1863 The Union of Labor and Thought.—J. L. PICKARD, Wisconsin.
1866 Industrial Education.—J. M. GREGORY, Michigan.
1875 Industrial Drawing in Public Schools.—WALTER SMITH, Massachusetts.
Can the Elements of Industrial Education Be Introduced into Our Common Schools?—JOHN D. PHILBRICK, Massachusetts.
1876 The Industrial Education of Women.—EZRA S. CARR, California.
1877 Relations of the Common School to Industrial Education.—S. R. THOMPSON, Nebraska.
Systematic Manual Labor in Industrial Schools.—GEORGE T. FAIRCHILD, Kansas.
1879 Beginning of Industrial Education.—M. A. NEWELL, Maryland.
Industrial Education, or the Equal Cultivation of the Head, the Heart, and the Hand.—ALEXANDER HOGG, Texas.
1880 Normal Training for the Girls' Industrial Schools of the Canton of Argau, Switzerland.—JOHN HITZ, District of Columbia.
1881 Annual Report of the Secretary of the Industrial Department.—S. R. THOMPSON.
Industrial Education.—E. E. WHITE.
1882 Annual Report of the Secretary of the Industrial Department.—S. R. THOMPSON.
Dexterity before Skill.—GEO. T. FAIRCHILD, Kansas.
The National Industrial College—Its History, Worth, and Ethics.—E. E. WHITE, Ohio.
1884 Industrial Education.—JOHN M. ORDWAY, Louisiana.
Public Instruction in Industrial Pursuits.—A. P. MARBLE, Massachusetts.
1885 The Apprenticeship Question and Industrial Schools.—THOS. HAMPSON, District of Columbia.
1888 Educational Power of Industrial Training.—T. O. CRAWFORD, California.
Progress of Industrial Training during the Year.—L. S. THOMPSON, Pennsylvania.
The Relation of Industrial to Intellectual and Moral Training in Public Schools.—Z. RICHARDS, District of Columbia.
Some Limitations in Industrial Training.—GEO. T. FAIRCHILD, Kansas.
1889 Mechanic Arts High Schools.—EDWIN P. SEAVER, Massachusetts.
1891 Industrial Education.—LEWIS MCLOUTH, South Dakota.
A Plea for State and National Aid in Industrial Education.—B. F. HOOD, South Dakota.
1893 New Demands Upon Schools by the World's Industries.—C. M. WOODWARD, Missouri.
1895 A Plea for the Systematic Extension of Industrial Training from the Kindergarten to Grammar Schools.—MARY A. PINNEY, Connecticut.
Industrial Education a Necessity of the Times.—ALBERT R. ROBINSON, Illinois.
Industrial Training as Applied to Indian Schools.—R. H. PRATT, Pennsylvania.
1897 President's Address—The Head and the Hand.—OSCAR CLUTE, Florida.
1898 Education for the Industrial Classes.—J. L. SNYDER, Michigan.
Domestic Science as a Synthetic Study for Girls.—Mrs. ELLEN H. RICHARDS, Massachusetts.

1901 The Progress and Aims of Domestic Science in the Public Schools of Chicago.—Henry S. Tibbits, Illinois.
Round Table—Domestic Science Conference.—Abby L. Marlatt, Rhode Island.
1903 Industrial Training in Rural Schools.—Alfred Bayliss, Illinois.
1905 Industrial Training in Public Evening Schools.—Charles F. Warner, Massachusetts.
Report of Committee of Industrial Education in Rural Communities.—L. D. Harvey, Wisconsin, chairman.
Arguments for Industrial Education in Schools for Rural Communities.
What Industrial Education Should Be Undertaken in Rural Schools.
Industrial Education in the One-Room Rural School; Courses of Study in Zoölogy and Botany.
Agriculture in School Years 6 to 8.
Industrial Education in the Consolidated School.
Secondary Schools of Agriculture and Domestic Economy in Rural Communities.
Preparation of Teachers for Domestic Instruction in Rural Schools.
Agencies Available for Co-operation with the Schools in the Development of Industrial Education.
Dunn County School of Agriculture and Domestic Economy.—Appendix A.
The Minnesota Agricultural High School.—Appendix B.
Industrial Courses in the Consolidated Rural School.
The Agricultural High School and the Agricultural College Articulated.—Willet M. Hays, Minnesota.
1906 Forms of Industrial Education Best Adapted to City Children.—Charles H. Keyes, Connecticut.
What Form of Industrial Training is Most Practical and Best Suited to the Country Child?—O. J. Kern, Illinois.

32. KINDERGARTEN

1872 Adaption of Froebel's System of Education to American Institutions.—W. N. Hailmann, Kentucky.
1873 Froebel's System of Education—What Is It—How It Can Be Introduced into Public Schools.—J. W. Dickinson, Massachusetts.
1876 Characteristics of Froebel's Methods.—Mme. Kraus-Boelte, New York.
1877 The Kindergarten.—John Kraus.
The Kindergarten and the Mission of Women.—Mme. Kraus-Boelte.
1879 Relations of the Kindergarten to the School.—Wm. T. Harris, Missouri.
1880 From Pestalozzi to Froebel.—W. N. Hailmann, Michigan.
Modeling in Public Schools and in the Kindergarten.—Edward A. Spring, New Jersey.
1881 Kindergarten.—Mrs. Louisa Pollock, District of Columbia.
1885 Kindergarten in the Mother's Work.—Mrs. Elizabeth P. Bond, Massachusetts.
Relation of the Kindergarten to the Primary School.—John W. Dickinson, Massachusetts.
Some Essentials of the Kindergarten.—Mrs. Eudora Hailmann, Indiana.
1886 Application of Froebel's Educational Principles.—W. N. Hailmann, Kentucky.
1887 Value of Kindergarten Training in Normal Schools.—Clara A. Burr, New York.
Application of Froebel's Principles to the Primary Schools.—Kate L. Brown, New York.
Kindergarten in the Education of the Blind.—Eleanor Beebe, Kentucky.
1888 Brief Résumé of Kindergarten Growth.—Sarah B. Cooper, California.
Educational Value of the Beautiful.—N. C. Schaeffer, Pennsylvania.
An Ideal Professional Training School for Kindergartners.—C. H. McGrew, California.
1889 The Kindergarten Methods Contrasted with the Methods of the American Primary School.—William T. Harris, Massachusetts.
The Relation of the Kindergarten to Motherhood.—Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper, California.
Froebel's Message to Parents.—Mrs. Alice H. Putnam, Englewood, Illinois.
Story-Telling in the Kindergarten.—Nora A. Smith, California.
1890 The Effects of Kindergarten Training on the Primary School.—Irwin Shepard, Minnesota.
The Kindergarten Work and Mission, from the Standpoint of an Outside Observer.—Helen E. Starrett, Illinois.
Schoolishness in the Kindergarten.—W. N. Hailmann, Indiana.

1890 They Have Eyes and Ears.—Lucy F. Wheelock, Massachusetts.
The Letter Killeth.—Anna E. Bryan, Kentucky.
1891 Kindergarten and the Primary School.—Wm. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
Kindergarten Methods in Intellectual Training.—Mrs. J. L. Hughes, Ontario.
The Organic Connection between the Kindergarten and the Primary School.—Miss N. Cropsey, Indiana.
Theory Tested by Experience.—Anna E. Frederickson, Indiana.
Magicians That Make a Child's Life Happy or Miserable.—Mrs. Louise Pollock, District of Columbia.
Some Things a Kindergartner Should Know.—Wm. E. Sheldon, Massachusetts.
1892 The Artistic Simplicity of Child Work.—Amalie Hofer, New York.
The Duty of the State in Relation to the Kindergarten.—Andrew S. Draper, Ohio.
Ethical Culture in the Kindergarten.—Irwin Shepard, Minnesota.
Influence of Expression on Thought.—Miss Guddings, Rhode Island.
Practical Psychology in the Kindergarten.—Constance MacKenzie, Pennsylvania.
President's Address.—Mrs. J. L. Hughes, Ontario.
The Relation of the Kindergarten to Manual Training.—Caroline T. Haven, New York.
Songs, Morning Talks, and Stories.—Emilie Poulsson, Massachusetts.
Symbolic Education as Illustrated in the "Mutter und Kose Lieder."—Laura Fisher, Missouri.
1893 Froebel's Educational Principles in England.—Emily A. E. Shirreff, London.
Kindergarten as a Basis for Life.—Frau Henrietta Schrader, Berlin.
Preparation of the Kindergartner.—Mrs. Parsons Hopkins, Massachusetts.
Introductory Address.—Mrs. Ada M. Hughes, Ontario.
Changes in Kindergarten Plays and Games.—Sarah A. Stewart, Pennsylvania.
The Kindergarten in Austria.—Mrs. Ottilia Bondy, Vienna.
The Organic Union of Kindergarten and Primary School.—Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper, California.
Prevention of Criminal Idleness.—Emma Marwedel, California.
The Song in the Kindergarten—Its Place, Value, and the Dramatic Element.—Constance MacKenzie, Pennsylvania.
Story-Telling in the Kindergarten.—Mary T. Hotchkiss, Wisconsin.
The Use of Symbolism in the Kindergarten?—Earl Barnes, California; Mrs. Eudora L. Hailmann, Indiana.
1894 Letter of Greeting to Kindergartners Assembled at Asbury Park.—Susan E. Blow, Missouri.
President's Address.—Miss Constance MacKenzie, Pennsylvania.
The Related Development of Morality and Intelligence in the Kindergarten Idea.—Mrs. Leontine T. Newcomb, Ontario.
What Can the Kindergarten Do for History and Literature in the Higher Grades?—Sara E. Wiltse, Massachusetts.
Essential Principles of the Kindergarten System.—Angeline Brooks, New York.
Ideal Relation of Kindergarten to Primary Schools.—Lucy Wheelock, Massachusetts.
The Relation of the Kindergarten to the Public-School System.—James L. Hughes, Ontario.
1895 Opening Address.—Lucy Wheelock, Massachusetts.
Mothers' Meetings—How to Conduct Them.—Mary C. McCulloch, Missouri.
Mothers' Meetings—How to Conduct Them Among the Poor.—Wilhelmina T. Caldwell, Colorado.
Comparison of the Educational Theories of Froebel and Herbart.—James L. Hughes, Canada.
The Kindergarten and the Home.—Mrs. James L. Hughes, Canada.
A Knowledge of the Kindergarten Indispensable in Primary Instruction.—Sarah L. Arnold, Massachusetts.
The Work of the Pestalozzi-Froebel Haus.—Mrs. S. H. Harriman, Rhode Island.
The Social Settlement and the Kindergarten.—Amalie Hofer, Illinois.
1896 The Allies of the Kindergarten.—Caroline T. Haven, New York.
The Problem of the City Kindergarten.—Ellise Bertha Payne, Illinois.
Psychology of Descriptive Gesture.—S. H. Clark, Illinois.
The Purpose of the Story in the Kindergarten.—Sara E. Wiltse, Massachusetts.
The Influence of the Kindergarten Spirit on Higher Education.—James L. Hughes, Canada.

1897 The Kindergarten and Child-Study.—JOHN DEWEY, Illinois.
The Kindergarten in the Public Schools.—C. B. GILBERT, New Jersey.
Kindergarten Work and Principles in the School.—KATHERINE BEEBE, Illinois
1898 The Development of the Inner Life of the Child.—Mrs. MARIA KRAUS-BOELTE, New York.
A Kindergarten Message to Mothers.—Mrs. ADA MAREAN HUGHES, Canada.
The Influence of the Kindergarten upon the Schools.—F. LOUIS SOLDAN, Missouri.
The Value of the Ideals Set Forth in the "Mother-Play Book."—ELIZABETH HARRISON, Illinois.
Children's Gardens.—JENNY B. MERRILL, New York.
A Child's Song.—MARI RUEF HOFER, Illinois.
Ideal Play in the Kindergarten.—SUSAN PLESSNER POLLOCK, District of Columbia.
Play as a Means for Idealizing and Extending the Child's Experience.—ALLIE M. FELKER, California.
1899 President's Address.—Mrs. MARIE KRAUS-BOELTE, New York.
Some Criticisms of the Kindergarten.—NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER, New York.
Character-Study in the Kindergarten.—THOMAS P. BAILEY, JR., California.
Mental and Moral Development of the Kindergarten Child.—C. C. VAN LIEW, California.
Music in the Kindergarten.—ANNA M. STOVALL, California.
The Kindergarten Child Physically.—FREDERICK L. BURK, California.
1900 President's Address.—Mrs. MARIA KRAUS-BOELTE, New York.
A Mother's Advice to Kindergartners.—Mrs. CLARENCE E. MELENEY, New York.
Kindergarten Work Among the Indians.—BLANCHE FINLEY, Virginia.
The Need of Kindergartens in the South.—PHILANDER P. CLAXTON, North Carolina.
The Kindergarten Gifts—A Fragment.—HARRIET NEIL, District of Columbia.
The Kindergarten and the Primary School in Their Relation to the Child and to Each Other.—EMMA A. NEWMAN, New York.
1901 Work and Play in the Kindergarten.—Mrs. ALICE H. PUTNAM, Illinois.
Work and Play in the Primary and Grammar Grades.—CHARLOTTE M. POWE, South Carolina.
Work and Play in Youth.—M. V. O'SHEA, Wisconsin.
President's Address—Kindergarten Department.—EVELYN HOLMES, South Carolina.
Necessary Elements in Work and Play, and Some Practical Consequences.—C. GERALDINE O'GRADY, New York.
Rhythm in the Kindergarten.—ETHEL ROE LINDGREN, Illinois.
1902 President's Address.—C. GERALDINE O'GRADY, New York.
Hindrances to the Development of Language.—CECELIA ADAMS, Colorado.
How Froebel Planned to Foster the Child's Powers in Language.—Mrs. ALICE H. PUTNAM, Illinois.
The Need for English Study by Kindergarten Students.—MARY C. MAY, Utah.
1903 Kindergarten Principles in Social Work.—JOSEPH LEE, Massachusetts.
The Kindergarten: An Uplifting Social Influence in the Home and the District.—RICHARD WATSON GILDER, New York.
The Power of the Kindergarten Training School in the Education of Young Women.—CAROLINE M. C. HART, Maryland.
The Scope and Results of Mothers' Classes.—Mrs. ELIZABETH HARRISON, Illinois.
The International Kindergarten Union.—STELLA L. WOOD, Minnesota.
1904 The Individual Child.—BERTHA PAYNE, Illinois.
What Is Kindergarten Discipline?—MARY JEAN MILLER, Iowa.
Value of Animal Pets in the Kindergarten.—ANNE E. HARVEY, New York.
The Kindergarten and the Elementary School as Illustrated in Their Exhibits. From the Kindergarten Standpoint.—PATTY S. HILL, Kentucky.
The Kindergarten and the Elementary School as Illustrated in Their Exhibits. From the Standpoint of the School.—C. B. GILBERT, New York.
The Kindergarten in Japan.—ANNIE L. HOWE, Illinois.
The Kindergartens in the Southern States and Countries.—EVELINE A. WALDO, Louisiana.
1905 President's Address.—MARY JEAN MILLER, New York.
The Recognition of the Physical Development of the Child in the Training of Kindergartners.—NATHAN OPPENHEIM, New York.
How Does the Routine of the Kindergarten Develop the Child Physically?—Mrs. ADA MAREAN HUGHES, Canada.

1905 Methods of Supervision of Public-School Kindergartens.—Harriette Melissa Mills, New York.
Current Criticism of the Kindergarten.—M. V. O'Shea, Wisconsin.

33. LIBRARY AND SCHOOL

1880 Practical Use of Reference Books.—Mary W. Hinman, Indiana.
1887 The School and the Library.—Thos. J. Morgan, Rhode Island.
1892 The Relations of the Public Library to the Public Schools.—W. H. Brett, Ohio.
1896 The New Library Department of the National Educational Association.—Melvil Dewey.
1897 The Training of Teachers so That They May Co-operate with Librarians.—Mae E. Schreiber, Wisconsin.
Some Observations on Children's Reading.—Royal W. Bullock, Colorado.
Room Libraries.—Millicent Kaltenbach, Colorado.
The Moral and Literary Responsibility of Librarians in Selecting Books for a Public Library.—Richard Jones, New York.
How to Make Sure of Good Books in Our Libraries.—W. R. Eastman, New York.
The Relation of the Library to Art Education in the Schools.—Wm. H. Smiley, Colorado.
Round Table on Libraries.—J. H. Van Sickle, Colorado.
1898 Report of Committee on Relations of Public Libraries to Public Schools.—J. C. Dana, chairman.
The Use of the School Library.—Richard Hardy, Michigan.
Connection between Libraries and Schools.—S. S. Green, Massachusetts.
Choice of Reading for the Early Adolescent Years.—Susan F. Chase, New York.
Report of Committee on Lists of Books for Reading and Reference in the Lower Grades of Public Schools.—F. A. Hutchins, chairman.
Reading-Lists for Public Schools—How Prepared, How Used Effectively.—Sherman Williams, New York.
Report of the Committee on the Relation of the Library to Art Education.—W. M. R. French.
1899 The Function of School Superintendents in Procuring Libraries for, and Their Proper Use in the Public Schools.—Alfred Bayliss, Illinois.
School Reading thru the Public Library.—Mary L. Jones, California.
How to Acquire a Taste for Good Reading.—Elizabeth Skinner, Colorado.
The Use of the Library.—C. C. Young, California.
Relation of Public Libraries to Public Schools.—Sherman Williams, New York.
Aids and Guides in Library Work.—F. A. Hutchins, Wisconsin.
The Librarian's Spirit and Methods in Working with the Schools.—J. C. Dana, Massachusetts.
Work in Certain Typical Libraries.—J. C. Dana.
Schoolroom Libraries.—Clarissa S. Newcomb, Colorado.
Public Libraries and Public Schools.—Reading Lists.
Supplementary Reading.—Robert C. Metcalf, Massachusetts.
The Relation of the School to Libraries.—C. A. McMurry, Illinois.
Report of the Subcommittee on Relation of Libraries to Normal Schools.—M. Louise Jones.
Establishing Libraries in Villages.—F. A. Hutchins.
Securing Libraries for Rural Schools.—F. A. Hutchins.
The Present Condition of School Libraries in Rural Schools and Villages.—F. A. Hutchins.
Improving Poorly Managed Public Libraries in Small Communities.—F. A. Hutchins.
By-Laws Suggested for a Board of Library Trustees.—W. R. Eastman, New York.
Hints for Cataloging Small Libraries.—W. R. Eastman, New York.
Report of Committee on Relations of Public Libraries to Public Schools.—J. C. Dana.
Public Libraries and Public Schools. Prefatory Note.—James H. VanSickle, Colorado.
1900 How to Direct Children in Their Reading.—Mae E. Schreiber, Wisconsin.
The School Plus the Library Greater than Either.—H. L. Elmendorf, New York.
The Free Traveling Library: An Aid to Education and a Factor in the National Life.—Mrs. Eugene B. Heard, Georgia.

1901 President's Address—The Library Movement.—R. C. Metcalf, Massachusetts.
Public Libraries and the Public Schools.—James H. Canfield, New York.
What the Normal Schools Can do for Teachers on the Library Side.—Irene Warren, Illinois.
The A B C of Reference Work.—W. I. Fletcher, Massachusetts.
How Shall Children Be Led to Love Good Books?—Isabel Lawrence, Minnesota.
The Place of the Library in Education.—Melvil Dewey, New York.
The Library and the School as Co-ordinate Forces in Education.—Livingstone McCartney, Kentucky.
The School and the Library—The Value of Literature in Early Education.—Frederick M. Crunden, Missouri.

1902 The Library as an Educator.—W. A. Millis, Indiana.
Libraries and Schools: A Two-Faced Problem.—Emma J. Fordyce, Iowa.
Greeting from the American Library Association.—Anderson H. Hopkins, Illinois.
What the School May Properly Demand of the Library.—J. M. Greenwood, Missouri.
School Libraries in the Rural Districts.—Agnes Robertson, Iowa.

1903 Some Co-operative Suggestions.—Alfred Bayliss, Illinois.
Public-Library Work for Public Schools.—Electra Collins Doren, Ohio.
The Public Library and the Public School.—Charles B. Gilbert, New York.
The Mission of the Class Library.—C. G. Leland, New York.
Is the Public Library a Promptuary for the Public Schools?—N. D. C. Hodges, Ohio.
The Library as an Adjunct to the Secondary School.—E. O. Holland, Kentucky.
Some Library Experiments in Nebraska.—Clara B. Mason, Nebraska.
Library Instruction in the Normal School.—William M. Brett, Ohio, and Others.

1904 Library Work in Normal Schools.—Theodore B. Noss, Pennsylvania.
The Duty of the Normal School in Relation to District-School Libraries.—Jasper N. Wilkinson, Kansas.
The Place of the Library in School Instruction.—Clarence E. Meleney, New York.

1905 Libraries and Library Privileges for Villages and Rural Communities.—C. P. Cary, Wisconsin.
Methods of Instruction in the Use of High-School Libraries.—Florence M. Hopkins, Michigan.
How to Make the Library Useful to High-School Pupils.—Robert H. Wright, Maryland.
What Children Do Read and What They Ought to Read.—G. Stanley Hall, Massachusetts.
The Value and Place of Fairy Stories in the Education of Children.—Percival Chubb, New York.

1906 The Teacher and the Librarian.—Nathan C. Shaeffer, Pennsylvania.
Report of the Joint Committee, Representing the American Library Association and the National Educational Association, on Instruction in Library Administration in Normal Schools.—James H. Canfield, New York, chairman.

34. MANUAL TRAINING

(*See also* Industrial Education.)

1869 The School and the Work Shop.—J. D. Philbrick, Massachusetts.
1877 The Russian System of Mechanical Art Education.—J. D. Runkle, Massachusetts.
1879 Educated Labor.—L. S. Thompson, Indiana.
1882 The Function of an American Manual-Training School.—C. M. Woodward, Missouri.
1883 Manual Training.—C. M. Woodward, Missouri.
The Moral Influence of Manual Training.—J. R. Buchanan, Massachusetts.
1884 Handwork in the School.—John M. Ordway, Louisiana.
A Layman's View of Manual Training.—Augustus Jacobson.
1885 Educational Value of Manual Training.—Chas. H. Hamm, Illinois.
Outline of Technical Work for a Manual-Training School.—William F. M. Goss, Indiana.
1887 Kinds of Schools to be Introduced, and Practical Methods of Instruction. Discussion.—Miss L. A. Fay, Massachusetts.
Manual Education in Urban Communities.—F. A. Walker, Massachusetts.

1888 Relation of Manual Training to Technical.—C. M. Woodward, Missouri.
How and to What Extent Can Manual Training Be Ingrafted on Our System of Public Schools?—Charles H. Hamm, Illinois.
1889 Manual Training. The Results in the St. Louis School.—C. M. Woodward, Missouri.
To What Extent May Manual Training Be Introduced at This Time into the Public Schools?—Henry A. Wise, Maryland.
Value of Tool-Work as Related to the Active Pursuits in Which Pupils May Subsequently Engage.—S. H. Peabody, Illinois.
Relation of Manual Training to Body and Mind.—C. M. Woodward, Missouri.
The Psychology of Manual Training.—Wm. T. Harris, Massachusetts.
Mechanic Arts High Schools.—Edwin P. Seaver, Massachusetts.
To What Extent and How Can Manual Training Be Introduced into Ungraded Schools?—Jerome Allen, New York.
The Intellectual Value of Tool-Work.—Wm. T. Harris, Massachusetts.
Educational Value of Manual Training.—George P. Brown, Illinois.
The Effect of Tool-Work upon the Usefulness of the Schools.—E. E. White, Ohio.
1890 Manual Training in Primary Classes.—N. A. Calkins, New York.
Manual Training in the Elementary School.—W. N. Hailmann, Indiana.
Manual Training in Grammar Schools.—John E. Bradley, Minnesota.
Influence of Manual Training in Elementary Schools.—H. M. James, Nebraska.
Report upon Classification, Nomenclature, and Practical Details of Manual Training.—C. M. Woodward, Missouri.
1891 Manual Training and Its Place in the Educational System of Ontario.—N. Wolverton, Ontario.
The Teacher of Tool-Work.—C. M. Woodward, Missouri.
1892 Education as Affected by Manual Training.—Henry M. Leipziger, New York.
The Influence of Manual Training on Habits of Thought.—John E. Bradley, Minnesota.
Manual Training Between the Employments of the Kindergarten and Those of the Tool Laboratories of the Grammar Schools.—W. B. Powell, District of Columbia.
Manual Training from the Kindergarten to the High School.—Charles A. Bennett, New York.
Manual Training in New York City Schools.—Paul Hoffman, New York.
The Relation of the Kindergarten to Manual Training.—Caroline T. Haven, New York.
Sloyd as an Educational Subject.—J. H. Trybom, Massachusetts.
1893 Industrial and Manual Training in the School Course.—W. B. Powell, District of Columbia.
Manual Training in Russia.—E. Kovalevsky, Russia.
Needlework in the Public Schools of Stockholm.—Mrs. Hulda Lundin, Sweden.
Sloyd for Elementary Schools Contrasted with the Russian System of Manual Training.—Gustaf Larsson, Massachusetts.
1894 Art Education and Manual Training.—J. Liberty Tadd, Pennsylvania.
Drawing—Its Relation to Manual Training and the Industrial Arts.—John C. Miller, Illinois.
Manual-Training Methods in Philadelphia Public Schools.—J. Liberty Tadd, Pennsylvania.
Organizations and Plans for Manual-Training Schools.—C. M. Woodward, Missouri.
The Progress of Manual Training.—Henry M. Leipziger, New York.
Wood-Work in Grammar Grades.—V. G. Curtis, Connecticut.
1895 President's Address—The Philosophy of Manual-Training.—E. R. Booth, Ohio.
The Effects of Manual Training.—Charles D. Larkins, New York.
1896 The Need of Manual Training for Girls.—Mrs. Nellie S. Kedzie, Kansas.
Physical Effects of Sloyd.—Flora J. White, Massachusetts.
Manual Training in the Public Schools of the Smaller Cities.—Judson E. Hoyt, Wisconsin.
Manual Training and the Course of Study.—C. F. Carroll, Massachusetts.
The Aesthetic Principle in Manual Training.—Charles A. Bennett, New York.
1897 Mental Results From Manual Training.—Edward O. Sisson, Illinois.
Some Possible Relations of Normal Schools to Manual Training.—W. D. Parker, Wisconsin.
1898 Manual Training in Horticulture.—William R. Lazenby, Ohio.

1898 Report of Committee on Hindrances and Helps to Manual Training and Industrial Education.—George A. Robbins, Illinois, chairman.
Value of the Hand in the Acquisition of Knowledge and Expression of Thought.—Mary F. Hall, Wisconsin.
The Function of Manual Training in the Elementary School.—Richard Waterman, Illinois.
Manual Training—Its Purpose and Value.—Job Barnard, District of Columbia.
1899 The Teacher in the Manual-Training School.—Walter A. Edwards, California.
The Educational Value of Metal-Working.—Vinton S. Paessler, New York.
Constructive Work in the Elementary Schools.—Gertrude E. English, Illinois.
Correlation of Manual Training With Other Branches of Study.—James E. Addicott, California.
The Manual-Training System of Los Angeles.—Annette Johnson, California.
1900 Character, Content, and Purpose of High-School Courses in Manual Training.—B. A. Lenfest, Massachusetts.
Manual Training for the Ordinary High School.—James H. VanSickle, Maryland.
1901 Textile Arts as Constructive Work in Elementary Schools.—Clara Isabel Mitchell, Illinois.
Artistic Handicraft in Primary and Intermediate Grades.—Helen M. Maxwell, Minnesota.
The Relation of Manual Training to Technical Education.—V. G. Curtis, Ohio.
How Early May Handwork Be Made a Part of School Work?—Charles R. Richards, New York.
A Report on Manual Training in the Detroit Elementary Schools.—J. H. Trybom Michigan.
Manual Training in the Menominee Public Schools.—Judson E. Hoyt, Wisconsin.
Possibilities of Manual Training for Moral Ends.—R. Charles Bates, Maryland.
1902 From the Practical to the Intellectual in the Shop.—Arthur W. Richards, New York.
The Field of Shop-Work in the Elementary School.—J. E. Painter, Minnesota.
Practical Co-operation Between Art and Manual Training.—Harold Peyser, New York.
1903 Art Instruction as Related to Manual Work.—Alfred Vance Churchill, New York.
Indian Basketry—Its Poetry and Symbolism.—George Wharton James, California.
Manual Training in the Elementary School.—Elizabeth E. Langley, Illinois.
The Boy and His Handicraft at Home.—George H. Bryant, Rhode Island.
Hand-Work for High-School Girls.—Abby L. Marlett, Rhode Island.
Manual Training *versus* the Manual Arts.—James Parton Haney, New York.
Manual, Trade, and Technical Education.—Thomas M. Balliet, Massachusetts.
The Part of the Manual-Training High School in American Education.—Henry S. Pritchett, Massachusetts.
Round-Table Papers and Discussions—
A. Round Table of State and County Superintendents—To What Extent and in What Form Should the Manual-Training Idea Be Embodied in Public-School Work?—W. O. Thompson, Ohio.
Some Practical Problems in Manual Training.—Charles R. Richards, New York.
1904 The Constructive Idea in Education.—Wilbur S. Jackman, Illinois.
Manual Training in Sweden.—Carl Lidman, of the Swedish Commission.
Reports on Work as Shown by Exhibits.—Various Authors.
Manual-Training High Schools or Manual Training in High Schools.—Charles B. Gilbert, New York.
What May Be Done for Manual Training in Country Schools?—Alfred Bayliss, Illinois.
Progress of the South, as Shown by Exhibits.—Brown Ayres, Louisiana.
1905 President's Address—The Problems That Perplex.—Arthur Henry Chamberlain, California.
How Can Class Teachers Be Educated to the Value of Manual Training?—F. M. McMurry, New York.
The Necessity for Special Manual-Training High Schools.—Charles H. Keyes, Connecticut.
Forms and Limitations of Handwork for Girls in the High School.—Katharine E. Dopp, Illinois.
Manual Training in the Grades.—Lorenzo D. Harvey, Wisconsin.

1905 The Practical Utility of Manual and Technical Training.—WILLIAM BARCLAY PARSONS, New York.
Manual Training in the Elementary School.—JAMES PARTON HANEY, New York.
Manual Training in the Secondary Grades and in Colleges.—CALVIN M. WOODWARD, Missouri.
Round-Table Conference—A. Hand-Work in Primary Schools.—WILHELMINA SEEGMILLER, Indiana, leader.
1906 Art as Related to Manual Training.—JAMES EDWIN ADDICOTT, Louisiana.

35. MATHEMATICS AS A SUBJECT OF STUDY

(*See also* Science Teaching.)

1871 Modern Mathematics in the College Course.—T. H. SAFFORD, Illinois.
1876 Position of Modern Mathematical Theories in Our Higher Course of Mathematics.—WM. M. THORNTON, Virginia.
1888 The Application of Arithmetic to Physical Science.—WALTER MCNAB MILLER, Nevada.
A Short and Rational Method of Number-Work.—F. B. GINN, California.
1891 Geometry in Our Schools.—MATILDA T. KARNES, New York.
1893 Report of the Conference on Mathematics.—SIMON NEWCOMB, Maryland, chairman.
1896 Round Table—Mathematics: Economy in Mathematical Instruction.—JAMES L. PATTERSON, New York.
1897 Imagination in Arithmetic.—FRANK H. HALL, Illinois.
The New Arithmetic.—JOHN H. TEAR, Illinois.
Elementary Mathematics and Education.—L. W. COLWELL, Illinois.
1898 The Culture Value of Higher Mathematics.—W. B. SMITH, Louisiana.
The Constants in Mathematics.—EDWARD BROOKS, Pennsylvania.
Is the Science of Mathematics Qualitative as Well as Quantitative?—FRANK H. HALL, Illinois.
The Educational Value of Geometry.—KELLY MILLER, District of Columbia.
1899 College-Entrance Requirements—
Report of the Committee of the Chicago Section of the American Mathematical Society.—J. W. A. YOUNG, Illinois, chairman.
1900 School and Business Arithmetic—Limitations and Improvements.—EDWARD W. STITT, New York.
1901 Round Table—Algebra Conference.—GEORGE W. EVANS, Massachusetts.
Round Table—Geometry Conference.—ALAN SANDERS, Ohio.
1902 Round-Table Mathematical Conference.—CHARLES W. NEWHALL, Minnesota.
1903 Mathematics in Commercial Work.—ERNEST LAWTON THURSTON, District of Columbia.
Round-Table Conference—III. Mathematical Conference.—DAVID EUGENE SMITH, New York.
1904 Round-Table Conference—Mathematics.—JOHN S. FRENCH, Maryland, and Others.
1905 Round-Table Conference—D. Conference on Mathematics.—FRANKLIN TURNER JONES, Ohio.
Review of the Educational Progress of the Year and a Discussion of Some Phases of the Curriculum of the Elementary School.—Miss N. CROPSEY, Indiana; M. A. BAILEY, New York.
1906 The Teaching of Arithmetic.—SIMON NEWCOMB, District of Columbia.

36. MUSIC IN SCHOOLS

1870 A Plea for Vocal Music in Public Schools.—EBEN TOURJEE, Massachusetts.
Vocal Music in Normal Schools.—G. B. LOOMIS, Indiana.
1884 Methods of Teaching Music.—H. E. HOLT, Massachusetts.
1885 President's Address.—DAVID B. HAGAR, Massachusetts.
Vocal Music in the Public Schools.—T. H. BRAND, Wisconsin.
Tonic Sol-Fa System.—THEO. F. SEWARD, New York.
Elementary Vocal Music in Primary Grades.—B. JEPSON, Connecticut.
Methods of Teaching Vocal Music.—H. E. HOLT, Massachusetts.
Relative Importance of Song-Singing and the Reading of Music.—O. BLACKMAN, Illinois.
1887 What Has Been Done in Public Schools for and with Vocal Music?—O. S. WESTCOTT, Illinois.

1887 Shall the State Teach Music?—Thos. J. Morgan, Rhode Island.
Voice Training and Singing.—F. W. Root, Illinois.
Educational Value of the Tonic Sol-Fa Method.—D. Bachelor, Pennsylvania.
Fervent Voice—Its Nature and Reflex Influence.—Wm. L. Tomlins, Illinois.
1888 President's Address.—N. Coe Stewart, Ohio.
The Tonic Sol-Fa System.—S. McBurney, California.
Aids in Elementary Music Teaching.—W. F. Heath, Indiana.
Some Helpful Things I Have Learned from My Experience in Teaching Music.—Mrs. M. E. Brand, Wisconsin.
The Use of Accent to Young People; and the Use of Time-Language.—Herbert Griggs, Colorado.
Elementary Music in Public Schools.—J. H. Elwood, California.
What Can Superintendents Do to Advance Proper Musical Instruction.—L. W. Day, Ohio.
1889 Department of Music. Address of the President.—N. Coe Stewart, Ohio.
The Province of Music in Education.—Wm. A. Mowry, Massachusetts.
The Relation of Music Instruction to Our Educational System.—A. E. Winship, Massachusetts.
Music in the Public Schools, From the Music Director's Standpoint.—O. E. McFadon, Minnesota.
1890 Old Methods of Teaching Music.—Herbert Griggs, Colorado.
Music as a Factor in Education.—Margaret Morris, Ohio.
Value of the Tonic Sol-Fa Notation.—Robert Beggs, Colorado.
1891 Department of Music.—Address of the President.—Herbert Griggs, Colorado.
The Growth of Music among the People.—Edgar O. Silver, Massachusetts.
Methods of Teaching Music.—A. T. Cringan, Ontario.
The Study of Music in Its Relation to Mental Development.—S. H. Preston, Ontario.
1892 President's Address.—Nathan L. Glover, Ohio.
Methods and Devices in Teaching Public-School Music.—B. Jepson, Connecticut.
Music in Public Education, and Some Elements Essential to Its Success.—Philip C. Hayden, Illinois.
Music in the Public Schools—What It Is, and What It Ought to Be.—A. J. Gantvoort, Ohio.
The Value of Music in Public Education as a Means of Discipline and Culture.—George C. Young, Kansas.
1893 Learning to Read Musical Notation.—Charles H. Greene, Illinois.
Physiology and Hygiene of the Vocal Organs.—John Howard, New York.
The Functions of Teachers of Vocal Music.—J. E. Lightner, Pennsylvania.
1894 Some Helpful Things Concerning Music in the Public Schools.—N. Coe Stewart, Ohio.
Is as Much Time Devoted to Vocal Music in Our Public Schools as Its Importance Demands?—Frederick E. Chapman, Massachusetts.
President's Address.—N. L. Glover, Ohio.
Music in the New Education.—David M. Kelsey, New York.
1895 President's Address.—N. Coe Stewart, Ohio.
The Purpose of Music Study in the Public Schools.—F. Treudley, Ohio.
How Pupils Learn to Know and Do in Music.—C. H. Congdon, Minnesota.
A Course of Music in Public Schools.—A. J. Gantvoort, Ohio.
Music in Relation to Other Studies.—Sarah L. Arnold, Massachusetts.
Children's Voices.—Linn Marie Hawn, Michigan.
Songs for Children.—Fannie Arnold, Nebraska.
Mind and Music.—Theo. H. Johnston, Ohio.
Vocal Harmony; or, A Plea for an Oral Language with Which to Express Our Thoughts in Music.—H. E. Holt, Massachusetts.
The Faculty and Ministry of Song.—W. L. Tomlins, Illinois.
1896 Natural Methods in Teaching Music to Children.—F. E. Howard, Connecticut.
How Good Music Makes Good Citizens.—Frank Damrosch, New York.
Our Experience in Introducing Music as a Study in Our Public Schools.—Joseph Mischka, New York.
Music in Education.—Mrs. Emma A. Thomas, Michigan.
Thinking Sounds Directly or Indirectly.—Samuel W. Cole, Massachusetts.
The Development of Music Theory thru Practice.—O. E. McFadon, Minnesota.
1897 The Development of Rhythm.—S. Lillian Byington, Illinois.
Eye and Ear Training as Related to Sight-Singing.—Frederic Allison Lyman, New York.

1897 The Child Voice.—F. E. Howard, Connecticut.
How to Establish Good Musical Standards in Public-School Music.—Anna Birchard, Indiana.
1898 The Influence of Music and Music-Study upon Character.—A. J. Gantvoort, Ohio.
What Is Music, and How Can We Help Children to Become Musical?—Mari Ruef Hofer, Illinois.
Individual Singing.—C. H. Congdon, Minnesota.
School Music in Character-Making.—A. E. Winship, Massachusetts.
The Next Step—What Shall It Be?—Mrs. Carrie B. Adams, Indiana.
1899 President's Address—The Ultimate Object of Music-Study in the Schools.—P. C. Hayden, Illinois.
Content and Extent of Music in Public Schools.—Herbert Griggs, Colorado.
What Power Does the Child Gain thru Music-Study?—Thomas Tapper Massachusetts.
Methods of Teaching Music.—W. B. Powell, District of Columbia.
The Necessary Education of the Supervisor.—Mrs. Constance Barlow Smith, Illinois.
What Should Constitute A Course of Music for County Institutes?—Kathryn E. Stone, California.
1900 Common-Sense as an Aid to the School-Music Supervisor.—Sterrie A. Weaver, Massachusetts.
The Educational Use of Music for Children Under the Age of Seven Years.—Mari Ruef Hofer, Illinois.
The Influence of Music upon National Life.—Arnold J. Gantvoort, Ohio.
Should Music in the Public Schools Be Taught from the Song to the Exercise?—C. H. Congdon, Illinois.
1901 President's Address.—Arnold J. Gantvoort, Ohio.
Music Teachers in Their Relation to the Schools.—Charles Haupert, Ohio.
The Supervisor from the Standpoint of the Regular Grade Teacher.—Nellie G. Pettigrew, Ohio.
Supervisors and Supervision.—Walter H. Aiken, Ohio.
The Rights of Boys and Girls in Music Education.—N. Coe Stewart, Ohio.
The Relation of Music to Life.—Thomas Whitney Surette, New York.
1902 An Anomalous Situation, with Suggestions for Improvement.—Hollis E. Dann, New York.
The Psychological and Ethical Value of Music.—Elizabeth K. Fairweather, Ohio.
High-School Music.—Mrs. Frances Elliott Clark, Iowa.
The Future Development of School Music.—Thomas Tapper, Massachusetts.
Musical Qualifications Necessary for a Teacher of Music in the Public Schools.—Frank L. Nagel, Iowa.
1903 The Training in Sight-Singing and Song Interpretation in Normal Schools.—C. A. Fullerton, Iowa, and Others.
The Real Purpose of Teaching Music in the Public Schools.—Samuel W. Cole, Massachusetts, and Others.
School Music—Has It Made Music Readers?—George W. Wilmot, New Jersey, and Others.
Music as a Subject to Be Counted for Admission to College.—Eugene D. Russell, Massachusetts.
Music as Part of Life.—Frank Damrosch, New York.
1904 President's Address.—William A. Wetzell, Utah.
Primary-Music Methods.—Mrs. Marie Burt Parr, Ohio.
Rote-Singing and Its Proper Place in the Public Schools.—W. A. Hodgson, Missouri.
Music in the Public Schools a Means of Culture in the Community.—Lucy Robinson, West Virginia.
Methods *versus* Results.—W. H. Pommer, Missouri.
The Public School Music Supervisor in His Relation to the Professional Musicians and Educators.—Frank Nagel, Iowa.
Conferences on a High-School Music Course.—H. C. Macdougall, chairman.
1905 The Mission of Music in the Public Schools.—A. E. Winship, Massachusetts.
Some Questions Involved in Making Music a Major Study.—W. Scott, Massachusetts.
Correlation of Music with Other Branches of the School Curriculum.—Mrs. Elizabeth Casterton, Michigan.

1905 Music as a Factor in Culture.—Charles Edward Locke, New York.
Relation of the Grade Teacher to Music Instruction in the Public Schools.—C. A. Fuller, Nebraska.
Some Features of Music Instruction in the Schools of New York City.—Frank R. Rix, New York.
Some Type-Forms That Have Been Found Useful in the Teaching of Music in the Schools.—Walter H. Aiken, Ohio.
Report of Committee on What Results Should Be Obtained in the Study of Music in the Eight Grades of the Public Schools.—Philip C. Hayden, Iowa, chairman.

37. NATURE-STUDY

(*See also* Science Teaching.)

1858 The Laws of Nature.—John Young, Indiana.
1893 Report of Conference on Natural History.—W. B. Powell, District of Columbia, chairman.
1894 The Higher Use of Nature-Studies.—Miss N. Cropsey, Indiana.
1895 Nature-Study and Literature.—Sarah L. Arnold, Massachusetts.
1896 Nature-Study and Moral Culture.—David Starr Jordan, California.
Nature-Study.—O. S. Westcott, Illinois.
The Function of Nature in Elementary Education.—M. G. Brumbaugh, Pennsylvania.
The Place of Nature-Study in Primary Work.—Flora J. Cook, Illinois.
1900 Nature-Study in the Public Schools.—D. Lange, Minnesota.
Nature-Study in the Public Schools—The Geographical Phase.—Jacques W. Redway, New York.
Nature-Study for the Graded Schools.—Katherine E. Dolbear, Massachusetts.
The Relation of Nature-Study to Drawing in the Public Schools.—James M. Stone, Massachusetts.
How Can Advanced Science and Nature Work Be Rendered More Mutually Helpful?—Charles B. Wilson, Massachusetts.
1903 Justification of City Expenditure on Parks and Parkways.—Nathan Matthews, Massachusetts.
The Nature-Study Movement.—L. H. Bailey, New York.
Nature-Study True to Life.—C. F. Hodge, Massachusetts.
1904 Nature-Study as an Aid to Advanced Work in Science.—E. R. Whitney, New York.
1905 Some of the Common Insects.—John B. Smith, New Jersey.

38. NEGRO EDUCATION

1866 Education Among the Freedmen.—O. O. Howard, District of Columbia.
1869 The Work of Education in the South.—O. O. Howard, District of Columbia.
1884 The Educational Status and Needs of the New South.—Robert Bingham, North Carolina.
Negro Education—Its Helps and Hindrances.—W. H. Crogman, Georgia.
1886 The Coeducation of the Races.—Charles S. Young, Nevada.
Educational Work Among the Colored Race.—W. H. Bartholomew, Kentucky.
1889 Educational Progress of the Colored People in the South.—John H. Burrus, Mississippi.
The Higher Education of the Colored Race—What Has Been Done—What Can Be Done.—A. Owen, Tennessee; W. S. Scarborough, Ohio.
Normal School Work Among the Colored People.—B. T. Washington, Alabama.
1890 The General Statement of the Race Problem.—A. A. Gunby, Louisiana.
Education and the Race Problem.—J. C. Price, North Carolina.
The Education of the Negro in the South.—J. A. B. Lovett, Alabama.
The Race Problem in Civilization.—Henry W. Blair, New Hampshire.
1894 Remarks on the Education of Colored People in the South.—Richard R. Wright, Georgia.
1896 The Influence of the Negroes' Citizenship.—Booker T. Washington, Alabama.
1897 Rural Schools. Appendix J. Negro Teachers for Negro Schools.
1898 What the Negro Gets from the Common School Education, and What He Gives to It.—G. R. Glenn, Georgia.
1900 The Problem of the South.—Booker T. Washington, Alabama.
1903 The Educational Needs of the Southern Negro.—Charles T. Walker, New York.
1904 The Education of the Southern Negro.—Booker T. Washington, Alabama.

39. NORMAL SCHOOLS AND TRAINING OF TEACHERS

1864 Teacher's Associations.—J. W. BULKLEY, New York.
1865 Distinctive Characteristics of Normal Schools.—RICHARD EDWARDS, Illinois.
1866 Normal Education in Kansas.—L. M. KELLOGG, Kansas.
Normal Schools: Their Organization and Course of Study.—W. F. PHELPS, Minnesota.
1869 How Shall Pupils Be Taught to Teach?—JOHN ALDEN, New York.
Education as a Science.—JOHN OGDEN, Ohio.
Course of Study for a Normal School.—FORDYCE ALLEN, Pennsylvania.
1870 The Means of Providing the Mass of Teachers with Professional Instruction.—S. H. WHITE, Illinois.
Report on a Course of Study for Normal Schools.—W. F. PHELPS, Minnesota.
1871 The Normal School Problem.—J. W. PHILBRICK, Massachusetts.
Principles and Methods in a Normal Course.—JOHN W. ARMSTRONG, New York.
Model Schools in Connection with Normal Schools.—RICHARD EDWARDS, Illinois.
1872 System of Normal Training Schools Best Adapted to the Wants of Our People.—W. F. PHELPS, Minnesota.
The Proper Work of Normal Schools.—J. C. GREENOUGH, Rhode Island.
Practice Schools—Their Uses and Their Relation to Normal Training.—Miss J. H. STICKNEY, Massachusetts.
The American Normal School.—ANNA C. BRACKETT, New York.
Professional Instruction in Normal Schools.—T. W. HARVEY, Ohio.
Relation Between Matter and Method in Normal Instruction.—GEO. P. BEARD, Missouri.
Normal School Work Among Freedmen.—S. C. ARMSTRONG, Virginia.
1873 Training Schools—Their Place in Normal-School Work.—DELIA A. LATHROP, Ohio.
Duties and Dangers of Normal Schools.—RICHARD EDWARDS, Illinois.
1874 Training Schools in Connection with Normal Schools.—J. C. GREENOUGH, Rhode Island.
What Constitutes a Consistent Course of Study for Normal Schools?—JOHN OGDEN Ohio.
Special Work of Normal Schools to Entitle Them to Be Called Professional.—LARKIN DUNTON, Massachusetts.
1875 Professional Training of Teachers.—DELIA A. LATHROP, Ohio.
1876 Normal Schools in the United States.—RICHARD EDWARDS, Illinois.
Centennial Thoughts on Normal Schools.—EDWARD BROOKS, Pennsylvania.
A Professional Course of Study for Normal Schools.—JOHN OGDEN, Ohio.
1877 Range and Limits of Normal-School Work.—E. C. HEWETT, Illinois.
Common-School Studies in Normal Schools.—J. C. GREENOUGH, Rhode Island.
Attacks on Normal Schools.—C. C. ROUNDS, New Hampshire.
Queries Concerning Details of Normal-School Work.—S. H.WHITE, Illinois.
1879 Professional Degrees for Teachers.—J. C. GILCHIST, Iowa.
Professional Instruction in Normal Schools.—LEWIS MCLOUTH, Michigan.
1880 Normal Departments in State Universities.—GRACE C. BIBB, Missouri.
Instruction in Subject-Matter a Legitimate Part of Normal-School Work.—G. L. OSBORNE, Missouri.
Some of the Obstructions, Natural and Interposed, That Resist the Formation and Growth of the Pedagogic Profession.—G. P. BROWN, Indiana.
1881 The Necessity of a Normal School in a Public System of Instruction.—JEROME ALLEN, Minnesota.
What Constitutes a Normal School?—J. C. GILCHIST, Iowa.
The True Normal Training for Country Teachers.—T. C. H. VANCE, Kentucky.
1882 The Place of a Normal School in the Educational System.—D. L. KIEHLE, Minnesota.
1883 The Place and Function of the Model School.—CHARLES DEGARMO, Illinois.
The Normal School Problem and the Problem of the Schools.—H. H. STRAIGHT, New York.
The Function of the Normal School.—E. C. HEWETT, Illinois.
1884 Normal Schools—Their Necessity and Growth.—THOS. HUNTER, New York.
1885 Practice Schools in Connection with Normal Schools.—C. C. ROUNDS, New Hampshire.
Function of the Normal School in Our Educational System.—EDWARD E. SHEIB, Louisiana.

1886 Distinctive Principles of Normal-School Work.—A. G. Boyden, Massachusetts.
Organization, Courses of Study and Methods of Instruction.—A. R. Taylor, Kansas.
Teacher's Institutes.—D. C. Tillotson, Kansas.
1887 Method of Instruction in the Normal Schools of the United States—Thos. F. Gray, Minnesota.
The German System of Normal Schools.—Chas. DeGarmo, Illinois.
Psychology in Normal Schools.—G. S. Albee, Wisconsin.
Teachers' Institutes. Report of Committee on Normal Schools.
1888 Normal Training for Teaching of Elementary Schools.—Kate N. T. Tupper, Oregon.
Relation of the High School to the Training School.—Olive A. Evers, Minnesota.
The Normal-School Problem.—S. S. Parr, Indiana.
The Distinctive Work of the Normal School.—Joseph Baldwin, Texas.
The Subject-Matter for the Normal School.—Lucy M. Washburne, California; Cyrus W. Hodgin, Indiana.
The Training-School as an Adjunct of the Normal School.—C. H. Allen, California.
The Relation of the Normal School to the Academic Schools.—Thos. H. Kirke, Wisconsin.
Are the Normal Schools, as They Exist in Our Several States, Adequate to Accomplish the Work for Which They Were Established?—James P. Wickersham, Pennsylvania.
1889 The Qualifications of Principals.—J. M. Greenwood, Missouri.
Psychology in Its Relation to Pedagogy.—Nicholas Murray Butler, New York.
City Training- and Practice-Schools.—W. S. Jackman, Pennsylvania.
County Institutes.—A. G. Lane, Illinois.
Report of "Chicago Committee" on Methods of Instruction and Courses of Study in Normal Schools.—T. J. Gray, Minnesota.
Normal-School Work among the Colored People.—B. T. Washington, Alabama; Albert Salisbury, Wisconsin.
Academic and Professional Training in Normal Education.—D. B. Hagar, Massachusetts.
The Training of the Teacher in the South.—A. D. Mayo, Massachusetts.
1890 Common-School Branches from a Professional Point of View.—Miss Isabel Lawrence, Minnesota.
The Normal-School Curriculum.—William W. Parsons, Indiana.
Criticism in Normal Schools: Its Value as an Element in Training Teachers.—Thomas J. Gray, Minnesota.
1891 A Year in a German Model School.—Julia S. Tutwiler, Alabama.
The Professional Training of Teachers.—D. J. Goggin, Manitoba.
City Normal Schools. (Discussion.) Report of Committee of National Council.
What Present Means Are Available for the Preparation of Teachers for Their Work.—Henry Sabin, Iowa. (Discussion.)
The Teacher's Academical and Professional Preparation.—B. A. Hinsdale, Michigan.
What Constitutes Professional Work in a Normal School?—Charles DeGarmo, Pennsylvania. (Discussion.)
The Place of the City Training-School.—Ellen G. Reveley, Ohio.
The Function of a Teachers' Training College.—Walter L. Hervey, New York.
1892 Art Instruction in Normal Schools.—Elizabeth Perry, Massachusetts.
Co-ordination of the Normal School and the University in the Training of Teachers.—Charles DeGarmo, Pennsylvania.
Professional Training of Teachers.—Mrs. Eudora L. Hailmann, Indiana.
Report of the Committee on Normal Education (The Relation of the Normal School to Other Institutions of Learning.)—C. C. Rounds, New Hampshire, chairman; N. C. Schaeffer, Pennsylvania.
Value of Herbartian Pedagogy for Normal Schools.—Frank McMurry, Illinois.
1893 Child-Study in Connection with the Professional Training of Teachers.—Margaret K. Smith, New York.
How Should Normal-School Pupils Acquire Methods of Teaching?—Giacomo Oddo Bomafede, Italy.
Historical Development of Normal and Training-Schools in France.—Eugene Martin, France.
The Ideal Normal School.—Edward Brooks, Pennsylvania.
What Should Be Required of and upon Whom Is to Be Conferred the Degree of Doctor of Pedagogy?—Jerome Allen, New York.

1893 Should the Course of Study in Normal Schools Be Wholly Professional?—Francis B. Palmer, New York.
The Professional Training of Teachers for Secondary Schools.—Miss E. P. Hughes, England.
The Candidate for the Degree of Doctor of Pedagogy Should Be Able to Make Original Investigations in Experimental Psychology.—Edgar Dubs Shimer, New York.
How Normal-School Work Differs from the Work in Secondary and in Higher Education.—Malcom MacVicar, New York.
Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Pedagogy.—Charles A. McMurry, Illinois.
What Should Be Required of a Candidate for the Degree of Doctor of Pedagogy?—Edward R. Shaw, New York.
Gradation of Normal and Training-Schools.—Thomas Kirkland, Ontario.
Normal Schools in the State of New York.—Francis J. Cheney, New York.
Important Necessities in Present Normal Schools.—George A. Walton, Massachusetts.
Opening Address.—E. A. Sheldon, New York.
Higher Academic Degrees in Pedagogy.—S. G. Williams, New York.
Should Original Investigation Be Required in Some Branch of Child-Study for the Doctor of Pedagogy Degree?—Earl Barnes, California.
The Value of Practice-Work in Model and Training-Schools.—Fannie S. Guptill, Minnesota.
Methods of Training Teachers at the Westminster Training College, England.—Joseph H. Cowham, England.
A Sociological, Ideal View of Normal Schools.—Daniel Fulcomer, Michigan.
Training of Teachers in High Schools in Sweden.—Edward Osterberg, Sweden.

1894 Scholarship in Normal Schools.—Livingstone C. Lord, Minnesota.
The Academic Function of the Normal School.—James M. Green, New Jersey.
The Teacher as an Expert.—R. G. Boone, Michigan.
Professional Training of Teachers in Normal Schools.—John W. Cook, Illinois.
The Training of the High-School Teacher.—Eoline Clark, Nebraska.
Report of Committee on the Relation of Normal Schools to Universities.—Charles DeGarmo, New York.
The Duty of the Normal School toward the Problem of School Literature.—C. C. Van Liew, Illinois.
Professional Training of Teachers in Colleges.—S. G. Williams, New York.
Professional Training of Teachers in Summer Schools.—E. E. White, Ohio.

1895 Organization of Training-Schools and Practice Teaching.—Kate D. Stout, New York.
The Organization of Practice Teaching in Normal Schools.—J. N. Wilkinson, Kansas.
The Correlation of Studies in a Normal School.—N. C. Schaeffer, Pennsylvania.
Concentration or Co-ordination of Studies in the Normal School.—John W. Cook, Illinois.
Report of the Subcommittee on the Training of Teachers.—H. S. Tarbell, chairman.
Report of Committee on Normal Education—The Kind and Amount of Practice-Work, and Its Place in the Normal-School Course.—John W. Cook, Illinois.
Report of the Committee of Fifteen.—William H. Maxwell, chairman.
Relation of Normal Schools to Public Schools.—E. Oram Lyte, Pennsylvania.
The Training of Teachers.—Francis W. Parker, Illinois.
The Instruction and Improvement of Teachers.—Arvin S. Olin, Kansas; Earl Barnes, California; L. H. Jones, Ohio.

1896 Courses of Pedagogical Study as Related to Professional Improvement.—W. S. Sutton, Texas.
Professor Rein's Practice School at Jena and Its Lessons for American Normal Schools.—John W. Hall, New York.
The Practice School as a Public School.—E. A. Sheldon, New York.

1897 Report of Normal-School Committee.—Z. X. Snyder, Colorado, chairman.
How May the Normal School Best Accomplish Its Purpose?—Richard G. Boone, Michigan.
Rural Schools. Appendix S. Continuous Sessions in Normal Schools.
Some Possible Relations of Normal Schools to Manual Training.—W. D. Parker, Wisconsin.

1897 Round Table of State Superintendents. What Should the State Superintendents Do at the Summer Institutes?—S. M. Inglis, Illinois.
Rural Schools. Appendix K.—Teacher's Training-School Established by J. W. Bradbury.

1898 The Southern State Normal Schools.—Marion Brown, Lousiana.
Normal Schools West of the Mississippi River and East of the Rocky Mountains.—Homer H. Seerley, Iowa.
The North-Central State Normal Schools.—R. G. Boone, Michigan.
Report of Subcommittee on the State Normal Schools of the Pacific Coast.—Edward T. Pierce, California.
The Middle-State Normal Schools.—N. C. Schaeffer, Pennsylvania.
Minimum Preparation for Teaching.—Price Thomas, Tennessee.
Reciprocal Recognition of State and Normal-School Diplomas by the States.—Z. X. Snyder, Colorado.
The "Training School" in the United States.—Z. X. Snyder, Colorado.
The Training of the High-School Teacher.—M. V. O'Shea, Wisconsin.
What Kind of Normal Training Does the Common-School Teacher of the South Need?—E. C. Branson, Georgia.
Continuous Sessions, with Special Application to Normal Schools.—Irwin Shepard, Minnesota.

1899 The Future of the Normal School.—Wm. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
The Training of Teachers for Secondary Schools.—James E. Russell, New York.
Report of the Committee on Normal Schools: Function of the Normal School.
Report of the Committee on Normal Schools: Training-Schools.—Theses.
Report of the Committee on Normal Schools: Geographical and Historical Variations That Exist in Normal Schools in the United States.
Report of the Committee on Normal Schools: The Inner Life of a Normal School.
Report of the Committee on Normal Schools: Normal-School Administration.
Report of the Committee on Normal School: State Normal Schools.
Report of the Committee on Normal Schools: Appendix A. Professor Rein's Practice School, Jena, Germany.—John W. Hall, Colorado.
Report of the Committee on Normal Schools: Appendix B. General View of the Work of the Normal School.—Albert G. Boyden, Massachusetts.
Report of the Committee on Normal Schools: Appendix C. A Typical English Training College.—George Morris Philips, Pennsylvania.
Report of the Committee on Normal Schools: Appendix D. Continuous Sessions in Normal Schools.—Irwin Shepard, Minnesota.
The Study of Education in the University.—Elmer Ellsworth Brown, California.

1900 Training of Teachers for White Schools.—Charles D. McIver, North Carolina.
The Training of Negro Teachers.—H. B. Frissell, Virginia.
General Culture as an Element in Professional Training.—Richard G. Boone, Ohio.

1901 Round Table of Training Teachers.—Isabel Lawrence, Minnesota.
The Training of Teachers for Secondary Schools.—James E. Russell, New York.

1902 Round Table—
C. Round Table of Normal Schools and Training Teachers.
Conference A. Normal Schools.
Topic I. What Aspects of Psychology and Child-Study are Suitable Subjects jects for Instruction in Normal Schools.—Daniel Putnam, Michigan.
Topic II. Shall the Instruction in Psychology Be Oral, or Shall a Textboo kBe Be Used?—Grant Karr, New York.
Conference B. Training Teachers.
Topic: Criticism—What Shall It Be?—James E. Russell, New York.
The Ideal Normal School.—William H. Payne, Michigan.
The Relations of the Heads of Departments to the Training-School.—David Felmley, Illinois.
Defects in the Normal Schools.—Homer H. Seerley, Iowa.

1903 Round Table—
B. Round Table of State Normal Schools and City Training-Schools.—Wilbur H. Bender, Iowa.
Conditions of Admission to Normal Schools.—Walter P. Beckwith, Massachusetts, and Others.
The Academic Side of Normal-School Work.—Henry Johnson, Illinois.
To What Extent and in What Manner Can the Normal School Increase Its Scholarship?—James M. Green, New Jersey.
The City Normal School of the Future.—Francis Burke Brandt, Pennsylvania.

1904 Extension of Public-School Privileges.—R. H. Halsey, Wisconsin.
The Preparation of Teachers in Germany.—Leopold Bahlsen, Germany.
1905 President's Address—A Statement of the Issues before the Department.—Charles C. Van Liew, California.
The Modern High-School Curriculum as Preparation for a Two-Year Normal Course.—David Felmley, Illinois.
How Can the Normal School Best Produce Efficient Teachers of the Elementary Branches?—Grant Karr, New York.
The Co-operation of Universities and Normal Schools in the Training of Elementary Teachers.—Frank McMurry, New York; Guy E. Maxwell, Minnesota.
The Co-operation of Universities and Normal Schools in the Training of Secondary Teachers.—E. N. Henderson, New York; Z. X. Snyder, Colorado.
Should Chairs of Pedagogy Attached to College Departments of Universities Be Developed into Professional Colleges for the Training of Teachers?—Albert Ross Hill, Missouri.
1906 The Influence of City Normal School or Training School.—Ella Flagg Young, Illinois.
The Local Training-School as an Agency for the Preparation of Teachers.—Wilbur F. Gordy, Illinois.
The Best Means and Methods of Improving Teachers Already in the Service.—William McKendree Vance, Ohio.

40. PENSIONS FOR TEACHERS

1896 Shall Teachers Be Pensioned?—John E. Clark, Michigan.
1904 Preliminary Report of Committee on Salaries, Tenure, and Pensions of Teachers.—Carroll D. Wright, District of Columbia, chairman.
1905 Pensions of Teachers.—Howard J. Rogers, New York.

41. PHYSICAL EDUCATION

1869 Physiology.—Jas. McClintock, Pennsylvania.
1882 Delsarte Philosophy of Expression.—Moses True Brown, Massachusetts.
1884 Recess.—Wm. T. Harris, Missouri.
No Recess.—S. A. Ellis, New York.
1889 Relation of Manual Training to Body and Mind.—C. M. Woodward, Missouri.
1891 Physical Education. (Discussion.)—Report of Committee of National Council.
1892 Scientific Value of Physical Culture.—A. B. Poland, New Jersey.
Physical Education in Our Schools.—R. Anna Morris, Iowa.
1893 Opening Address.—Edward M. Hartwell, Massachusetts.
Some Unsolved Problems in Physical Education.—T. D. Wood, California.
Training of the Human Body.—Angelo Mosso, Italy.
Psychological Aspect of Exercises with and without Apparatus.—G. W. Fitz, Massachusetts.
Physical Exercises for School Purposes—How Selected and Graded.—J. Gardner Smith, New York.
The Regulation of Athletic Sports in Colleges.—R. Tait McKenzie, Montreal.
English Experience in Providing the Poor of Cities with Parks, Gardens, Gymnasia, and Playgrounds.—The Right Honorable The Earl of Meath, London.
Physical Training of Criminals.—Hamilton D. Wey, New York.
Physical Education of the Deaf and Dumb.—Albert Gutzman, Prussia.
A Perfect Physical Education Is Indispensable in Order to Produce an Ideal Education.—L. M. Törngren, Sweden.
Application of the Laws of Physical Training for the Prevention and Cure of Stuttering.—Edward Mussey Hartwell, Massachusetts.
The North American Turner-Bund—Its History, Aims, and Achievements.—Hugo Muench, Missouri.
The Royal Central Institute of Gymnastics in Stockholm.—L. M. Törngren, Sweden.
History of Physical Education in Denmark.—Joakim Larsen, Copenhagen.
Gymnastics in the Kingdom of Saxony—A Historical Review.—Moritz Zettler, Saxony.
1894 Faculty and Alumni Control of College Athletics.—George Wharton Pepper, Pennsylvania.
1895 Physical Training.—Edward F. Hermanns, Colorado.
Voice and Body.—Mrs. Gaston Boyd, Kansas.
Physical Training in Public Schools.—Miss N. D. Kimberlin, Michigan.

1896 President's Address—The Purpose of the Department and the Status of Physical Training.—R. Anna Morris, Ohio.
Physical Deterioration Resulting from School Life; Cause; Remedy.—J. H. Kellogg, Michigan.
Physical Training as a Factor in Character Building.—James L. Hughes, Toronto.
Should We Have Military Training in the Schools?—D. A. Sargent, Massachusetts.
Report of the Committee on School Sanitation, Hygiene, and Physical Training.—William A. Mowry, Massachusetts, chairman.

1897 The Appreciation and Development of the Individual.—R. Anna Morris, Ohio.
The Development of the Will thru Physical Training.—William O. Krohn, Illinois.
Delsarte and His Contribution to Physical Education.—Mrs. Anna P. Tucker, Ohio.
The German System of Gymnastics.—Carl Kroh, Illinois.
The Normal Method of Introducing Physical Training.—J. M. Green, New Jersey.
Symposium on Physical Training in the Public Schools.—Miss N. D. Kimberlin, Michigan.
Physical Training in the Colleges.—Fred E. Leonard, Ohio.

1898 The Effect of Exercise on the Vital Organs.—Wm. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
Exercise and Vigor.—Henry Ling Taylor, New York.
Influence of School Life on Curvature of the Spine.—R. Tait McKenzie, Pennsylvania.
Play in Physical Education.—George E. Johnson, Massachusetts.

1899 President's Address.—G. W. Fitz, Massachusetts.
The Influence of Exercise upon Growth.—Frederick L. Burk, California.
Anthropometric Studies in Nebraska.—William W. Hastings, Nebraska.

1901 President's Address—Physical Training as Corrective of Brain-Disorderliness.—W. O. Krohn, Illinois.
Physical-Education Legislation—Its Needs.—Mrs. Frances W. Leiter, Ohio.
The Ethical, Physiological, and Psychological Aspect of Physical Training.—Hans Ballin, Arkansas.

1902 President's Address—"Educative" Physical Education.—William O. Krohn, Illinois.
Requirements for Physical Education in Our Public Schools.—Henry Hartung, Illinois.

1903 Tests of the Efficiency of a Normal School of Gymnastics.—Baroness Rose Posse, Massachusetts.
Physical Training for the Mass of Students.—William G. Anderson, Connecticut, and Others.
Physical Education and Brain-Building.—William O. Krohn, Illinois.
Place of Physical Education in the Curriculum.—E. W. Lyttle, New York.
How to Improve Public-School Gymnastics.—Thomas D. Wood, New York.

1904 Athletics and Collateral Activities in Secondary Schools.—F. D. Boynton, New York.
The General Tendency of College Athletics.—E. Benjamin Andrews, Nebraska.
Character in Athletics.—William H. P. Faunce, Rhode Island.
The Effects of Athletics on the Morale of the College.—Frank Strong, Kansas.
The Importance of Walking as a School Exercise.—E. Herhann Arnold, Connecticut.
The Objects and Methods of Physical Training in Primary and Grammar Schools—From the Standpoint of the General Teacher.—W. W. Chalmers, Ohio.
The Objects and Methods of Physical Training in Primary and Grammar Schools—From the Standpoint of the Physical-Training Teacher.—William A. Stecher, Indiana.
Object and Methods of Physical Training in Normal Schools.—G. B. Affleck, Iowa.
Objects and Methods of Physical Training in Colleges and Universities.—R. H. Jesse, Missouri.
Objects and Methods of Physical Training in High Schools—From the Standpoint of the Specialist.—Mrs. Mary H. Ludlum, Missouri.
Physical Training Exhibits in the Physical Training Department of the Exposition.—Elsa Pohl, Missouri.
Physical Training Exhibits in the Education Building of the Exposition.—Mary Ida Mann, Missouri.

1905 President's Address—The Importance of the School-Yard for the Physical Well-Being of School Children.—E. H. ARNOLD, Connecticut.
Some Simple Methods of Recognizing Physical Fitness and Unfitness of School Children for School-Work.—E. A. KIRKPATRICK, Massachusetts.
How Far Should Physical Training Be Educational and How Far Recreative in Grammar School?—REBECCA STONEROAD, District of Columbia.
How Far Should Physical Training be Educational and How Far Recreative in High Schools?—CLARENCE F. CARROLL, New York.
How Far Should Physical Training Be Educational and How Far Recreative in Colleges and Universities?—CAROLINE CRAWFORD, New York; R. TAIT MCKENZIE, Pennsylvania.
All Crime Is Disease.—ARTHUR B. LINSLEY, Pennsylvania.

42. PHYSICAL SCIENCES

(*See also* Science Teaching.)

1872 The Scope and Method of Physical Science in Common Schools.—C. O. THOMPSON, Massachusetts.
1885 Physics in Common Schools.—CHARLES K. WEAD, Michigan.
1888 The Application of Arithmetic to Physical Science.—WALTER MCNAB MILLER, Nevada.
1893 Report of Conference on Physics, Chemistry, and Astronomy.—IRA REMSEN, Maryland, chairman.
1896 The Teaching of Beginning Chemistry.—PAUL C. FREER, Michigan.
1897 Physics as a Requirement for Admission to College.—EDWIN H. HALL, Massachusetts.
The Value of Chemistry as Part of a School or College Course.—ALEXANDER SMITH, Illinois.
1898 Report of Subcommittee on Outline of Elementary Chemistry.—ALEXANDER SMITH, Illinois.
1899 The Relation of Physics to Other Subjects in the High-School Curriculum.—S. P. MEADS, California.
College-Entrance Requirements: Special Report of the Committee on Chemistry.—ALEXANDER SMITH, Illinois, chairman.
College-Entrance Requirements: Report of Committee on Physics.—E. H. HALL, Massachusetts, chairman.
1901 Round Table—Physics Conference.—CARL J. INGERSON, Missouri.
Round Table—Chemistry Conference.—C. E. LINEBARGER, Illinois.
1902 High-School Instruction in Physics.—F. M. GILLEY, Massachusetts.
Round Table: Physical-Science Conference.—W. A. FISKE, Indiana.
1903 College Chemistry, and Its Relation to Work Preparatory to It.—IRA REMSEN, Maryland.
High School Chemistry in Its Relation to the Work of a College Course.—RUFUS PHILLIPS WILLIAMS, Massachusetts.
Discussions of High-School Chemistry.—Various Authors.
Physics for the Boys and Girls: An Introductory Course.—JOHN C. PACKARD, Massachusetts.
Physics in the Secondary School.—IRVING O. PALMER, Massachusetts.
The High-School Phase of Physics Teaching: Aims and Methods.—GEORGE R. TWISS, Ohio.
A Course in Physics for Technical High Schools.—CHARLES F. WARNER, Massachusetts.
1904 The Subject-Matter of High-School Physics.—ARTHUR L. FOLEY, Indiana.
The Value of Chemistry in Secondary Education.—WILLIAM M. BLANCHARD, Indiana.
1905 Report of Department Committee on Physics Courses.—FRANK M. GILLEY, Massachusetts, chairman.

43. PSYCHOLOGY AND EDUCATION

(See also Child-Study; Education: Theory, Philosophy, Nature, Meaning.)

1874 The Building of a Brain.—EDWARD H. CLARKE, M.D.
1884 The New Order of Mercy; or, Crime and Its Prevention.—GEORGE T. ANGELL, Massachusetts.
Some Applications of Psychology to the Art of Teaching.—W. H. PAYNE, Michigan.

1885 Psychological Inquiry.—W. T. Harris, Missouri.
Principles and Methods—How to Learn.—A. D. Mayo, Massachusetts.
1886 Growth and Benefits of Reading-Circles.—Hubert M. Skinner, Indiana.
The Co-education of the Races.—Charles S. Young, Nevada.
The Educational and Religious Interests of the Colored People in the South.—S. M. Finger, North Carolina.
1888 Practical Education—the Psychological View.—James H. Baker, Colorado.
1889 The Psychology of Manual Training.—W. T. Harris, Massachusetts.
Psychology in Its Relation to Pedagogy.—Nicholas Murray Butler, New York.
Observation and Experiment Essential in Pedagogical Inquiry.—E. H. Russell, Massachusetts.
1890 A Specific Inquiry on the Relation of Instruction to Will-Training.—Charles DeGarmo, Illinois.
Pedagogical and Psychological Observations. Report of Special Committee.—Geo. P. Brown, Indiana; Wm. T. Harris, Massachusetts.
1891 The Education of the Will.—Report of Committee of National Council.
Educational Psychology.—Walter L. Hervey, New York.
1892 Cosmic Suicide.—Professor Sterrett, District of Columbia.
The Freedom of the Will—Does It Concern Spontaneity or Choice?—Wm. M. Bryant, Missouri.
The Harmony between Control and Spontaneity.—James L. Hughes, Ontario.
How Do Concepts Arise from Percepts?—George S. Fullerton and G. H. Howison, California.
Practical Psychology in the Kindergarten.—Constance MacKenzie, Pennsylvania.
Report of Committee on Psychological Inquiry (The Relation of Mnemonic Systems to the Cultivation of the Power of Thought).—Wm. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
Report of Round-Table Discussion on "Apperception."—Charles DeGarmo, Pennsylvania.
Value of Herbartian Pedagogy for Normal Schools.—Frank M. McMurry, Illinois.
1893 The Dominant Seventh in Education.—Hattie E. Hunt, Connecticut.
Eye-and-Ear Mindedness.—W. L. Bryan, Indiana.
The New Psychology in Normal Schools.—Lillie A. Williams, New Jersey.
Mental Waste and Economy.—G. T. W. Patrick, Iowa.
Reality—What Place It Should Hold in Philosophy.—James McCosh, New Jersey.
Can Psychology Be Founded upon the Study of Consciousness Alone.—Josiah Royce, Massachusetts.
The Soul as the Basal Concept of Rational Psychology.—G. T. Ormond, New Jersey.
The Theory of the First Principle in the Eleventh Book of Aristotle's *Metaphysics*.—Augustine F. Hewit, District of Columbia.
Self-Activity in Education.—J. G. Schurman, New York.
Wundt's *Psychology of the Will*.—E. B. Titchener, New York.
Observation and Study of Movement and Mental Status.—Francis Warner, England.
Some Association Tracks Involved in Reading and Spelling.—Thomas M. Balliet, Massachusetts.
1894 Remarks on Rhythm in Education.—G. Stanley Hall, Massachusetts.
1895 Psychology in Normal Schools.—Z. X. Snyder, Colorado.
Psychology for Normal Schools.—M. V. O'Shea, Minnesota.
Report of the Committee on Pedagogics—The Laws of Mental Congruence and Energy Applied to Some Pedagogical Problems.—B. A. Hinsdale, chairman.
Round-Table Report to the National Council of the Influence of Herbart's Doctrine on the Course of Study in the Common Schools.—Charles A. McMurry, Illinois.
1896 How the Will Combines with the Intellect in the Higher Orders of Knowing.—Wm. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
1898 The New Psychology and the Consulting Psychologist.—Josiah Royce, Massachusetts.
Rational Psychology for Teachers.—Wm. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
1899 Psychology for the Teacher.—E. C. Hewett, Illinois.
1902 The Difference between Efficient and Final Causes in Controlling Human Freedom.—Wm. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
1903 The Voluntary Element in Education.—Charles DeGarmo, Illinois.
1904 What Is the Net Gain to Education of Recent Investigations in Physiological Psychology?—Charles C. Van Liew, California.

44. RELIGIOUS AND MORAL EDUCATION

1859 The Place Christianity Should Occupy in American Education.—ELBRIDGE SMITH, Connecticut.
1865 On the Power of the Teacher.—W. N. BARRINGER, New Jersey.
1869 Obligations of Christianity to Learning.—R. S. FIELD, New Jersey.
Christianity in the Public Schools.—JOSEPH WHITE, Massachusetts.
The Spiritual Element of Education.—EDWARD BROOKS, Pennsylvania.
1871 What Moral Uses May a Recitation Be Made to Subserve?—A. KIRK, Illinois.
1872 Methods of Moral Instruction in Common Schools.—A. D. MAYO, Ohio.
1875 Full-Orbed Education.—J. R. BUCHANAN, Kentucky.
What Shall We Do with the Boys?—J. L. PICKARD, Illinois.
The Relation of the Teacher to the Reforms of the Day.—FRANCES E. WILLARD.
1876 Moral Elements in Primary Education.—W. H. RUFFNER, Virginia.
1877 Moral Training.—R. H. RIVERS, Tennessee.
1880 Object Lessons in Moral Instruction in the Common School.—A. D. MAYO, Massachusetts.
How Can Character Be Symmetrically Developed?—ELLEN HYDE, Massachusetts.
1881 Moral and Literary Training in the Public Schools.—JOHN B. PEASLEE, Ohio.
1883 Education of the Heart.—HENRY H. FICK, Ohio.
1884 The New Order of Mercy; or, Crime and Its Prevention.—GEORGE T. ANGELL, Massachusetts.
1885 The Public Schools and Morality.—J. W. STEARNS, Wisconsin.
1886 Scientific Temperance Instruction.—Mrs. J. ELLEN FOSTER, Iowa.
Educational Cure of Mormonism.—A. E. WINSHIP, Massachusetts.
Moral Training in the Public Schools.—E. E. WHITE, Ohio.
The Educational and Religious Interests of the Colored People in the South.—S. M. FINGER, North Carolina.
1887 Religious Motives and Sanctions in Moral Training.—ROBERT ALLYN, Illinois.
1888 Moral Training to Be Combined with Industrial and Intellectual.—Z. RICHARDS, District of Columbia.
Moral Education in the Common Schools.—WILLIAM T. HARRIS, Massachusetts.
The Schools Fail to Teach Morality or to Cultivate the Religious Sentiment.—JOHN W. COOK, Illinois.
1889 Has the Denominational School a Proper Place in America?—EDWIN D. MEAD, Massachusetts; JOHN JAY, New York.
Should Americans Educate Their Children in Denominational Schools?—CARDINAL GIBBONS, Maryland; JOHN J. KEANE, District of Columbia.
1890 The State School and the Parish School—Is Union between Them Impossible?—JOHN IRELAND, Minnesota.
The White Cross Movement in Education.—FRANCES E. WILLARD, Illinois.
The Spiritual Element in Education.—E. F. BARTHOLOMEW, Illinois.
1891 A Basis for Ethical Training in Elementary Schools.—CHARLES DEGARMO, Pennsylvania.
1892 Ethical Culture in the College and University.—JAMES H. CANFIELD, Nebraska.
Ethical Culture in Elementary and Secondary Schools.—Mrs. DELIA LATHROP WILLIAMS, Ohio.
Ethical Culture in the Kindergarten.—IRWIN SHEPARD, Minnesota.
Moral Training in Elementary Schools.—Z. RICHARDS, District of Columbia.
Report of the Committee on Moral Education (Practical Culture of the Moral Virtues).—JOSEPH BALDWIN, Texas, chairman.
1893 Religion in the School.—E. E. WHITE, Ohio.
1894 Moral Training thru the Common Branches.—CHARLES DEGARMO, Pennsylvania.
The Religion of Morals as Applied to Business.—S. S. PACKARD, New York.
The Value of Literature in Moral Training.—CHARLES DEGARMO, Pennsylvania.
1895 Moral Instruction in the Elementary Schools.—JAMES H. BAKER, Ohio.
Ethical Instruction thru Sociology.—B. C. MATHEWS, New Jersey.
1896 Report of the Committee on Moral Education—Moral Instruction in Elementary Schools.—E. E. WHITE, Ohio.
The Incidental Method of Moral Instruction.—LUCIA STICKNEY, Ohio.
1897 Rural Schools. Appendix R.—Intellectual and Moral Education.
1898 The Social Basis of Conscience.—JOSIAH ROYCE, Massachusetts.
1899 The Religious Element in the Formation of Character.—GEORGE MONTGOMERY, California.
The Development of Moral Character.—G. W. A. LUCKEY, Nebraska.

1900 Contributions of Religious Organizations to the Cause of Education—By the Baptist Church.—Oscar H. Cooper, Texas.
Contributions of Religious Organizations to the Cause of Education—By the Catholic Church.—Conde B. Pallen, Missouri.
1901 The Church and the Public School.—T. A. Mott, Indiana.
The Moral Factor in Education.—Wm. H. P. Faunce, Rhode Island.
1903 Contributions of Modern Education to Religion.—George A. Coe, Illinois.
The Influence of Religious Education on the Motives of Conduct.—Edward A. Pace, District of Columbia.
The Separation of the Church from the School Supported by Public Taxes.—Wm. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
1904 The Ethical Element in Education.—Walter B. Hill, Georgia.
1906 The Means Afforded by the Public Schools for Moral and Religious Training.—Thomas A. Mott, Indiana.
The Effect of Moral Education in the Public Schools upon the Civic Life of the Community.—W. O. Thompson, Ohio.

45. RURAL SCHOOLS

1875 The Country-School Problem.—W. F. Phelps, Minnesota.
1876 The Country-School Problem.—Edward Olney, Michigan.
1879 A Graduating System of Country Schools.—A. L. Wade, West Virginia.
1882 Country Schools.—James P. Slade, Illinois.
1886 Country Schools—Suggestions for Their Improvement.—J. C. MacPherson Indiana.
Country Schools—Special Conditions.—G. F. Felts, Indiana.
1891 The Independent District System.—John A. McDonald, Kansas.
1892 The Rural-School Problem.—Henry Raab, Illinois.
Report of Committee on State Normal Systems (Grading in Country Schools).—George A. Walton, Massachusetts.
1894 The Country-School Problems.—E. E. White, Ohio.
Grading the Country School.—Henry Sabin, Iowa.
The Graded System of the Rural Schools of New Jersey.—Addison B. Poland, New Jersey.
Supervision of Country Schools.—D. J. Waller, Pennsylvania.
Horace Mann's Country School.—Henry Sabin, Iowa.
The Improvement of Rural Teachers.—S. S. Parr, Minnesota.
1895 Rural Schools.—Charles R. Skinner, New York.
Report of the Committee on State-School Systems—Ungraded Schools.—Henry Sabin, Iowa, chairman.
1896 Country Schools and Country Roads.—Roy Stone (United States engineer).
Some Sociological Factors in Rural Education in the United States.—B. A. Hinsdale, Michigan.
1897 Report of the Subcommittee on Supply of Teachers.—C. C. Rounds, New Hampshire, chairman.
Report of the Subcommittee on Instruction and Discipline.—Wm. T. Harris, District of Columbia, chairman.
Appendix A. Some Sociological Factors in Rural Education.—B. A. Hinsdale, Michigan.
Appendix B. Permanent School Funds.
Appendix C. The California Systems of School Maintenance.
Appendix D. The County as the Unit of School Organization.
Appendix E. Comparative Cost of the Township and District Systems.
Appendix F. Transportation of Pupils.
Appendix G. Enrichment of Rural-School Courses.
Appendix H. The Farm as the Center of Interest.
Appendix I. The Country-School Problem.
Appendix N. School Systems.
Appendix O. Extension Work in Rural Schools.—L. H. Bailey, New York.
Appendix P. Institutes in Pennsylvania.—D. J. Waller, Pennsylvania.
Intellectual Needs of Rural Schools.—D. L. Kiehle, Minnesota.
Teachers' Seminary at Plymouth, New Hampshire.
Report of the Committee of Twelve on Rural Schools.—Henry Sabin, Iowa, chairman.
Report of the Subcommittee on School Maintenance.—B. A. Hinsdale, Michigan, chairman.

1897 Report of the Subcommittee on Supervision.—Lawton B. Evans, Georgia, chairman.
The Need of Enhanced Material Support for the Rural Schools.—B. A. Hinsdale, Michigan.
Classification and Instruction in Rural Schools.—Wm. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
1898 The Township High School.—C. J. Baxter, New Jersey.
Report on Rural Schools. School Maintenance.—A. S. Draper, Illinois.
School Supervision.—N. C. Dougherty, Illinois.
Supply of Teachers.—John W. Cook, Illinois.
Instruction and Discipline.—R. G. Boone, Michigan.
1901 The Centralization of Rural Schools.—Lewis D. Bonebrake, Ohio.
1902 Progress in Consolidation of Rural Schools.—J. W. Olsen, Minnesota.
Round Table—
A. First Topic. Round Table of State and County Superintendents.
Second Topic. The Financial Phase of the Consolidation of Rural Schools.—Charles A. VanMatre, Indiana.
1903 Consolidation of Rural Schools.—William K. Fowler, Nebraska, and Others.
Industrial Training in Rural Schools.—Alfred Bayliss, Illinois.
Surroundings of Rural Schools.—Charles R. Skinner, New York.
1904 Educational Possibilities for the Country Child in the United States.—O. J. Kern, Illinois.
Round Tables of State and County Superintendents—Increasing the Efficiency of Rural Schools.—Arthur Lefevre, Texas.
Round Table of State and County Superintendents—Consolidation of Schools.—J. Y. Joyner, North Carolina.
1905 Report of Committee of Industrial Education in Rural Communities.—L. D. Harvey, Wisconsin, chairman.
Arguments for Industrial Education in Schools for Rural Communities.
What Industrial Education Should Be Undertaken in Rural Schools.
Industrial Education in the One-Room Rural School; Courses of Study in Zoölogy and Botany.
Agriculture in School Years 6 to 8.
Industrial Education in the Consolidated School.
Secondary Schools of Agriculture and Domestic Economy in Rural Communities.
Preparation of Teachers for Domestic Instruction in Rural Schools.
Agencies Available for Co-operation with the Schools in the Development of Industrial Education.
Dunn County School of Agriculture and Domestic Economy. Appendix A.
The Minnesota Agricultural High School. Appendix B.
Industrial Courses in the Consolidated Rural School.
The Agricultural High School and the Agricultural College Articulated.—Willet M. Hays, Minnesota.

46. SALARIES OF TEACHERS

(*See also* Pensions for Teachers.)

1902 Taxation and Teachers' Salaries.—A. G. Lane, Illinois.
1904 Preliminary Report of Committee on Salaries, Tenure, and Pensions of Teachers.—Carroll D. Wright, District of Columbia, chairman.
1905 Shall the State Regulate Teachers' Salaries?—Frank H. Sommer, New Jersey.
Report of Committee on Salaries, Tenure of Office, and Pensions of Teachers.—Carroll D. Wright, chairman.
Percentage of Families Living on Farms in the U. S. in 1900 by States.
Salaries of Teachers in Cities and Towns of 8,000 Population or Over.
Table A. Number and Average Yearly Salaries of Principals and Teachers, and of Principals and Teachers Combined, in High and Elementary Schools, by Groups of Cities.
Table B. Number of High-School Teachers (not Including Principals) in Receipt of Each Classified Salary, by Groups of Cities.
Table C. Per Cent. of High-School Teachers (not Including Principals) in Receipt of Each Classified Salary.
Table D. Number of Principals of Elementary Schools in Receipt of Each Classified Salary.

1905 Table E. Per Cent. of Principals of Elementary Schools in Receipt of Each Classified Salary.
Table F. Number of Elementary School Teachers (not Including Principals) in Receipt of Each Classified Salary.
Table G. Per Cent. of Elementary School Teachers (not Including Principals) in Receipt of Each Classified Salary.
Summary and Analysis of Salary Tables of Cities Classified by Size.
Salaries Summarized by States, with Various Tables.
The Sex of Teachers in High and Elementary Schools.
Salaries of Supervisors and Special Teachers.
Salary Schedules in Cities and Towns of 8,000 Population or Over.
Salaries of Teachers in Typical Towns of Less than 8,000 Population.
Salaries of Teachers in Typical Ungraded Rural Schools.
Funds for Payment of Teachers' Salaries.
Minimum Salary Laws.
Earnings in Teaching and in Other Occupations Compared.
Purchasing Power of Salaries in Different Localities.
Tenure of Office of Teachers.
Pensions of Teachers.
General Tables of Salaries of Teachers in Cities and Towns of 8,000 Population or Over.
Table I. Number and Minimum, Maximum, and Average Yearly Salaries of Principals and Teachers in High and Elementary Schools and Kindergartens.
Table II. Classified Yearly Salaries of Teachers (not Including Principals) in High Schools.
Table III. Classified Yearly Salaries of Principals of Elementary Schools.
Classified Yearly Salaries of Teachers (not Including Principals) in ElementarySchools.
The Future of Teachers' Salaries.—Wm. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
1906 The Next Step in the Salary Campaign.—David Felmley, Illinois.
What Should be the Basis for the Promotion of Teachers and the Increase of Salaries?—James H. Van Sickle, Maryland.
Teachers' Salaries and How Affected by the Operation of the Minimum-Salary Law.—Fassett A. Cotton, Indiana.

47. SCHOOL HYGIENE

1881 Effect of Student Life on the Eyesight.—A. W. Calhoun, Georgia.
1882 The Chemical Examination of Air as Applied to Questions of Ventilation.—Charles Smart, U. S. A.
Information Necessary to Determine the Merits of the Heating and Ventilation of a School Building.—John S. Billings, U. S. A.
1884 Recess.—Wm. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
No Recess.—S. A. Ellis.
1889 Relation of Mental Labor to Physical Health.—W. N. Hailmann, Indiana.
Sound-Blindness.—Sarah E. Wiltse, Michigan.
1891 School Ventilation and Physical Education. Report of Committee of National Council. (Discussion.)
1892 The Health of School Children as Affected by School Buildings.—G. Stanley Hall, Massachusetts.
1894 The Hygienic Relation of Dress to Education.—R. Anna Morris, Iowa.
Pupils' Defective Hearing.—Ephraim Cutter, New York.
1895 Report on School Hygiene.—Edward M. Hartwell, Massachusetts.
1896 Report of the Committee on School Sanitation, Hygiene, and Physical Training.—William A. Mowry, Massachusetts, chairman.
1897 Elementary Principles of School Hygiene.—Aaron Gove, Colorado.
Rural Schools. Appendix M. Hygiene and Health in Public Schools.
1898 Contagious Diseases in School.—T. A. Mott, Indiana.
Medical Inspection of Schools.—W. B. Powell, District of Columbia.
School Hygiene—What It Is and Why We Need It.—Edward M. Hartwell, Massachusetts.
Bibliography of School Hygiene.—William H. Burnham, Massachusetts.
School Architecture—Heating, Ventilation, Lighting, and Sanitary Arrangements.—F. Louis Soldan, Missouri; D. H. Bergey, Pennsylvania.

1898 School Furniture—Seats, Baths, Blackboards, Maps, etc.—C. B. GILBERT, New Jersey.
School Diseases and Medical Inspection.—DELOS FALL, Michigan.
Medical Inspection of School Children.—SEVERANCE BURRAGE, Indiana.
The Hygiene of Instruction in Primary Schools.—G. W. FITZ, Massachusetts.
Fatigue.—EDWARD R. SHAW, New York.
The Lighting and Seating of School Rooms.—W. A. MOWRY, Massachusetts.
Ventilation of Schoolrooms.—A. P. MARBLE, New York.
1899 Fatigue among School Children.—WILL S. MONROE, Massachusetts.
How May Fatigue in the Schoolroom be Reduced to a Minimum?—H. E. KRATZ, Iowa.
Preliminary Report on School Hygiene.—WM. T. HARRIS, District of Columbia, chairman.
1901 Medical Inspection in Public Schools.—W. S. CHRISTOPHER, Illinois.
Schoolroom Temperature and Humidity.—WILLIAM GEORGE BRUCE, Wisconsin.
1903 Health and Growth of School Children.—WILLIAM W. HASTINGS, Massachusetts.
School Hygiene in Its Bearing on Child-Life.—THOMAS D. WOOD, New York.
What Teachers Need to Know about Sense Defects and Impediments.—CLARENCE JOHN BLAKE, Massachusetts, and Others.
1904 The Hygiene of the Kindergarten Child.—WILLIAM H. BURNHAM, Massachusetts.

48. SCHOOL LAWS

1892 To What Extent Can a Public-School System Be Improved by Legislation?—L. E. WOLFE, Missouri.
1905 Charter provisions as Related to the Organization of School Systems.—WILLIAM H. MAXWELL, New York.
A Nonpartisan School Law.—EDWARD C. ELIOT, Missouri.
Charter Provisions as Related to the Reorganization of School Systems.—F. LOUIS SOLDAN Missouri.

49. SCIENCE TEACHING

(*See also* Biological Sciences; Mathematics; Nature-Study; Physical Science.)

1869 Popular Science.—Mrs. LINCOLN PHELPS, Maryland.
1872 Natural History in Education.—N. S. SHALER, Massachusetts.
1874 Science in Common Schools.—J. W. ARMSTRONG, New York.
1890 Geology in Early Education.—ALEXANDER WINCHELL, Michigan.
Science-Training in Primary and Grammar Grades.—GUSTAVE GUTTENBERG, Pennsylvania.
1891 Natural Science for the Common Schools.—WILBUR S. JACKMAN, Illinois.
1892 The Natural Sciences in Elementary Education.—S. G. WILLIAMS, New York.
1893 Should the Amount of Time Given to Languages in Our Secondary Schools Be Diminished?—CECIL F. P. BANCROFT, Massachusetts.
Should Language Studies Be Limited in Secondary Schools in the Interests of the Sciences?—D. W. ABERCROMBIE, Massachusetts.
1895 What Has Been Accomplished in Co-ordination in the Field of Natural Science.—WILBUR S. JACKMAN, Illinois.
1896 Presidential Address—Science and Culture.—CHARLES E. BESSEY, Nebraska.
The Humanistic Element in Science.—HENRY S. CARHART, Michigan.
1897 Presidential Address—The Preparatory Natural-Science Curriculum.—CHARLES SKEELE PALMER, Colorado.
1898 Memorandum concerning Report of Committee of Sixty.
1899 Thirty Years' Progress in Science Teaching.—CHARLES NEWELL COBB, New York.
Science in the High School.—GEORGE MANN RICHARDSON, California.
1900 How Can Advanced Science in the College and University and Nature Work in the Graded Schools Be Rendered More Mutually Helpful?—CHARLES B. WILSON, Massachusetts.
1901 The Status of Science Instruction in the State of New York.—S. DWIGHT ARMS, New York.
What the Teacher of Science Can Do to Make the Teaching of Science in Secondary Schools More Popular.—W. S. BLATCHLEY, Indiana.
1902 President's Address—The Teaching of Science.—WILLIAM HARMON NORTON, Iowa.
1903 Practical Methods of Teaching Geology.—N. S. SHALER, Massachusetts.
The Proper Scope of Geological Teaching in the High School and Academy.—WILLIAM NORTH RICE, Connecticut.

1903 Science in Commercial Work: Its Practical Value, Character, and Place in High-School Work.—FRANK M. GILLEY, Massachusetts.
1904 A Comparative Study of the Methods of Science Instruction of the Various Countries as Shown by Their Exhibits.—W. J. S. BRYAN, Missouri.
The Nature and Educational Value of the Scientific Exhibits of High Schools and Colleges of the United States.—GEORGE PLATT KNOX, Missouri.
The Teaching of the Scientific Method.—S. A. FORBES, Illinois.
1905 President's Address.—FRANK M. GILLEY, Massachusetts.
Correlation of Mathematics and Science.—CLARENCE E. COMSTOCK, Illinois.
Science Teaching in Elementary Schools.—HUGO NEWMAN, New York.
1906 What Kind of Language Study Aids in the Mastery of Natural Science?—W. T. HARRIS, District of Columbia.

50. SECONDARY EDUCATION—HIGH SCHOOLS

(*See also* City-School Systems.)

1873 Upper Schools.—JAMES MCCOSH, New Jersey.
1874 Intermediate (or Upper) Schools.—GEO. P. HAYS, Pennsylvania.
Preparatory Schools for College and University Life.—NOAH PORTER, Connecticut.
1877 The Relation of the Preparatory and Grammar Schools to College and University.—W. R. WEBB, Tennessee.
1879 The High-School Question.—J. W. DICKINSON, Massachusetts.
1885 The High Schools and the State.—J. E. SEAMAN, Louisiana.
The Place and Function of the Academy.—REPORT OF COMMITTEE.
The Relation of Secondary Education to the American University Problem.—ANDREW F. WEST, New Jersey.
1888 The State University and Public High Schools.—A. L. COOK, California.
1889 The High School.—A. F. NIGHTINGALE, Illinois.
The High School and the Citizen.—H. C. MISSIMER, Pennsylvania.
1890 The Demands of the High Schools for Severance from the College and the University.—J. W. JOHNSON, Mississippi.
The High School as a Finishing School.—JAMES H. BAKER, Colorado.
The Gap between Elementary Schools and the Colleges.—CHAS. W. ELIOT, Massachusetts.
Effect of the College Preparatory High School upon Attendance and Scholarship in the Lower Grades.—C. W. BARDEEN, New York.
High School as a Fitting-School.—A. F. BECHDOLT, Minnesota.
The High School as a Factor in Mass Education.—E. A. STEERE, Montana.
1891 The Future High School.—FRANK E. PLUMMER, Iowa.
The Province of the Western High School.—L. H. AUSTIN, Nebraska.
1892 High-School Extension or Supplementary Work.—FRANK E. PLUMMER, Iowa.
What Should Secondary Schools Do to Promote Their Interests at the World's Fair?—J. L. HOLLOWAY, Arkansas.
1893 Report of Committee of Ten on Secondary Education, with Membership of Committee and of Nine Conferences.—CHAS. W. ELIOT, Massachusetts, president.[1]
Report of Conference on Latin.—WM. GARDNER HALE, Illinois, chairman.[1]
Report of Conference on Greek.—MARTIN L. D'OOGE, Michigan, chairman.[1]
Report of Conference on English.—SAMUEL THURBER, Massachusetts, chairman.[1]
Report of Conference on Other Modern Languages.—CHAS. GRANDGENT, Massachusetts, chairman.[1]
Report of the Conference on Mathematics.—SIMON NEWCOMB, Maryland, chairman.[1]
Report of Conference on Physics, Chemistry and Astronomy.—IRA REMSEN, Maryland, chairman.[1]
Report of Conference on Natural History.—W. B. POWELL, District of Columbia, chairman.[1]
Report of Conference on History, Civil Government, and Political Economy.—CHAS. KENDALL ADAMS, Wisconsin, chairman.[1]
Report of Conference on Geography.—T. C. CHAMBERLIN, Illinois, chairman.[1]
1894 Is It True that the Most Defective Part of Education in This Country Is in the Secondary Schools?—CHARLES P. LYNCH, Ohio.
The Curriculum for Secondary Schools.—WM. T. HARRIS, District of Columbia.
The Future of the American High School.—J. REMSEN BISHOP, Ohio.
The Possibilities of High-School Training in Relation to Public Speaking.—FRANK SHELDON FOSDICK, New York.

[1] Not printed in any volume of *Proceedings*, but published in pamphlet form

1895 President's Opening Address.—Wm. H. Smiley, Colorado.
1896 What Should the High School Do for the Graduate of the Elementary School? F. Louis Soldan, Missouri.
What Is a Secondary School?—E. W. Coy, Ohio.
1897 Round Table on the High School as a Social Factor.—Samuel T. Dutton, Massachusetts, leader.
1898 Between Day School and Reform School.—Carroll G. Pearse, Nebraska.
1899 The Differentiation of the American Secondary School.—Charles H. Keyes, Massachusetts.
Do Our High Schools Prepare for College and for Life?—Gilbert B. Morrison, Missouri.
1900 The Problem of the Grades—Classification and Promotion.—Elizabeth Buchanan, Missouri.
Report on High-School Statistics.—James M. Greenwood, Missouri.
1901 Opening Address of President.—William J. S. Bryan, Missouri.
The Function of the High School of Today.—J. Remsen Bishop, Ohio.
Recent Growth of Public High Schools in the U. S. as Affecting the Attendance of Colleges.—Wm. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
High-School Statistical Information.—James M. Greenwood, Missouri.
Some Aspects of Grammar-School Training.—L. B. R. Briggs, Connecticut.
1902 How Far Does the Modern High School Fit the Nature and Needs of Adolescents?—Reuben Post Halleck, Kentucky.
The High School as the People's College.—G. Stanley Hall, Massachusetts.
Report of the Commission on Accredited Schools.—George N. Carman, Illinois.
The Social Side of High-School Life.—Reuben Post Halleck, Kentucky.
1903 Opening Remarks.—Charles F. Wheelock, New York.
Tendencies as to the Enlargment of the Secondary Field.—Reuben Post Halleck, Kentucky.
The Full Utilization of a Public-School Plant.—Charles W. Eliot, Massachusetts.
The Percentage of Boys Who Leave the High School and the Reasons Therefor.—A. Caswell Ellis, Texas.
How to Increase the Attendance of Boys at the High School.—J. K. Stableton, Illinois, and Others.
The Opportunity and Function of the Secondary School.—Calvin M. Woodward, Missouri.
Round-Table Conference—
II. Principals' Conference. The Formation of a Federation of Secondary School Associations.—William J. S. Bryan, Missouri.
1904 The New Departure in Secondary Education.—J. J. Sheppard, New York.
Secret Fraternities in High Schools.—Gilbert B. Morrison, Missouri.
In What Respects Should the High School Be Modified to Meet Twentieth-Century Demands?—J. Stanley Brown, Illinois.
1905 Means of Increasing the Efficiency of Our Public-School Work.—Various Authors.
Why Do So Many First-Year Pupils Leave the High School?—Reuben Post Halleck, Kentucky.
Report of the Committee on Secret Fraternities.—Gilbert B. Morrison, Missouri, chairman.

51. SPELLING

1860 Report of Committee on a "Phonetic Alphabet."—Z. Richards, District of Columbia.
1875 The Origin of the Alphabet.—J. Enthoffer, District of Columbia.
1879 The Potency of Caprice (Abstract).—Wm. T. Harris, Missouri.
The Present State of Spelling Reform Association.—F. A. March, Pennsylvania.
Spelling Reform in England.—E. Jones, England.
The Etymologic Objection to Spelling Reform.—S. S. Haldeman, Pennsylvania.
Spelling Reform in Journalism.—S. N. D. North, New York.
1880 The Relation of Educators to the Spelling Reform.—F. A. March, Pennsylvania.
The Duty of Our Colleges toward Spelling Reform.—W. G. Ballantine, Ohio.
1881 The Necessity for Spelling Reform.—T. R. Vickroy, St. Louis, Missouri.
Spelling-Reform Movement.—F. A. March, Pennsylvania.
Benefits of Phonetic Spelling.—Tobias Witmer, New York.
1891 Spelling Reform.—H. W. Webster, Minnesota.
Spelling Reform.—T. E. Vickroy, Missouri.
1893 Constitutional Bad Spellers.—Adelaide E. Wyckoff, New York.

1899 Report of the Committee on Amended Spelling.—R. K. Buehrle, Pennsylvania, chairman.
1901 Simplified Spelling—Discussion.—E. O. Vaile, Illinois.
1902 The Simplification of English Spelling a Present Duty.—Charles Payson Gurley Scott, Pennsylvania.
1905 Report of Committee on Simplification of Spelling.—William H. Maxwell, New York, chairman.
1906 Simpler Spelling: What Can be Most Wisely Done to Hasten It?—E. Benjamin Andrews, Nebraska.
What Can Most Wisely be Done to Hasten Simpler Spelling?—J. Geddes, Jr, Massachussetts.
The New Phonetic Alphabet.—George Hempl, Michigan.

52. STATE AND EDUCATION

1859 The Importance of Civil Polity as a Branch of Popular Education.—Daniel Read, Wisconsin.
1860 The Special Educational Wants of Our Country.—J. W. Hoyt, Wisconsin.
The National Importance of the Teacher's Profession.—J. N. McJilton, Maryland.
1864 National Bureau of Education.—S. H. White, Illinois.
1865 Education as an Element in the Reconstruction of the Union.—J. P. Wickersham, Pennsylvania.
A National Bureau of Education.—A. J. Rickoff, Ohio.
The President's Address—The Educational Duties of the Hour: a National System of Education.—Samuel S. Greene, Rhode Island.
1866 The United States Department of Education.—Z. Richards, District of Columbia.
The Duties of an American State in Respect to Higher Education.—W. F. Phelps Minnesota.
The Relation of the National Government to Education.—O. Hosford, Michigan.
1869 The State in its Relation to Higher Education.—J. P. Wickersham, Pennsylvania.
A National System of Free Schools.—Chas. Brooks, Massachusetts.
1870 Free Common Schools: What They Can Do for the State.—F. A. Sawyer, South Carolina.
The Relation of the National Government to Public Education.—John Eaton, District of Columbia.
1871 How Far May the State Provide for the Education of her Children at Public Cost?—Newton Bateman, Illinois.
National Aid to Education in the South.—John Eaton, District of Columbia.
1873 National University.—Charles W. Eliot, Massachusetts.
Relation of General Government to Education.—G. W. Atherton, New Jersey.
1874 A National University.—Andrew D. White,
A National University.—J. W. Hoyt, Wisconsin. (Review of a paper read at Elmira, New York, by Charles W. Eliot.)
A Paper on a National University.—Wm. T. Harris, Missouri.
National Endowments for Schools for Scientific and Technical Training.—J. K. Patterson, Kentucky.
1875 Caste in Education.—A. P. Marble, Massachusetts.
Relation and Duties of Educators to Crime.—J. B. Bittinger, Pennsylvania.
1881 Education and the Building of the State.—John Eaton, District of Columbia.
Education and Crime.—J. P. Wickersham, Pennsylvania.
1882 National Aid to Education, from a Northern Standpoint.—Dexter A. Hawkins, New York.
National Aid to Education.—A. D. Mayo, Massachusetts.
National Aid to Education.—J. L. M. Curry, Virginia.
The State and School; the Foundation Principle of Education by the State.—Samuel Barnet, Georgia.
1883 What Has Been Done for Education by the Government of the United States?—John Eaton, District of Columbia.
1884 Citizenship and Education.—J. L. M. Curry, Virginia.
How a State Superintendent Can Best Advance Popular Education.—E. E. Higbee, Pennsylvania.
The New Bill for National Aid to Pubilc Schools.—B. G. Northrop, Connecticut.
National Aid for the Support of Public Schools.—J. W. Dickinson, Massachusetts.
Civic Education.—Wm. W. Folwell, Minnesota.
1885 The High Schools and the State.—J. E. Seaman, Louisiana.

1886 School Superintendence a Profession.—M. A. Newell, Maryland.
Duties of County Superintendents.—D. L. Kiehle, Minnesota.
City Superintendence.—J. W. Akers, Iowa.
1888 The Best Discipline to Prepare Law-Abiding Citizens.—Duncan Brown, Kansas.
The Culture Most Valuable to Prepare Law-Abiding and Law-Respecting Citizens.—George H. Atkinson, Oregon.
The Culture Most Valuable for Educating Law-Abiding and Law-Respecting Citizens.—Joseph Baldwin, Texas.
The Discipline Most Valuable as a Means of Preparing Law-Abiding, and Law-Reverencing Citizens.—B. F. Tweed, Massachusetts.
The Blair Bill.—A. P. Marble, Massachusetts.
Federal Aid.—J A. B. Lovett, Alabama; Alexander Hogg, Texas.
1889 State Teachers' Institutes.—John W. Dickinson, Massachusetts.
The State and Higher Education.—Fred M. Campbell, California.
The State and Higher Education.—H. B. Adams, Maryland.
The High School and the Citizen.—H. C. Missimer, Pennsylvania.
Education and the Republic.—A. S. Colyar, Tennessee.
A National University.—Wm. A. Mowry, Massachusetts.
1890 The General Government and Public Education throughout the Country.—Wm. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
1891 A Plea for State and National Aid in Industrial Education.—B. F. Hood, South Dakota.
1892 Education and Citizenship.—B. P. Raymond, Connecticut.
The School and the Criminal.—L. H. Jones, Indiana.
What Shall the State Do toward the Education of Children Below the School Age, between the Ages of Three and Six?—Frank A. Fitzpatrick, Nebraska.
1893 Supervision of Private Schools by the State or Municipal Authorities.—James C. MacKenzie, New Jersey.
The Value of the Elementary School for the Social Virtues and for the Duties of Citizens.—Catharine H. Spence, South Australia.
What Special Work Should Be Undertaken in the Elementary School to Prepare the Pupils for the Duties of Citizenship?—Wm. A. Mowry, Massachusetts.
1894 The Organizers of the Nation and Education.—Austin Scott, New Jersey.
1896 Democracy and Education.—Nicholas Murray Butler, New York.
The General Government and Popular Education.—Andrew S. Draper, Illinois.
The University and the State in the South.—Edwin A. Alderman, North Carolina.
1898 Democracy and Education.—Edwin P. Seaver, Massachusetts.
The Duty of the State in Education.—E. E. White, Ohio.
1900 State Aid to Higher Education in Europe and America.—Joseph Swain, Indiana.
1901 Education for Social Control.—William E. Chancellor, New Jersey.
Federal and State Interest in Higher Education.—Robert B. Fulton, Mississippi.
Report of the Committee on a National University.—William R. Harper, Illinois, chairman.

53. SUPERVISION, ORGANIZATION, AND ADMINISTRATION

(*See also* City School Systems; Finances and Taxation; Rural Schools.)

1860 Report of Committee on School Statistics.—C. S. Pennell, Missouri.
1866 School Supervision: State, County, and City; also School District Organization, Territorial Units, etc., were fully discussed.
1872 Educational Lessons of Statistics.—John Eaton, District of Columbia.
The Early Withdrawal of Pupils from School—Its Causes and Its Remedies.—Wm. T. Harris, Missouri.
Extent, Methods, and Value of Supervision in a System of Schools.—H. F. Harrington, Massachusetts.
1873 School Boards and School Superintendents—Their Relation.—J. H. Binford, Virginia.
1880 The Development of the Superintendency.—Charles Francis Adams, Jr., Massachusetts.
1884 Supervision of Public Schools.—John W. Holcombe, Indiana.
City and Town Supervision of Schools.—R. W. Stevenson, Ohio.
1885 Inaugural Address.—Leroy D. Brown, Ohio.
County Superintendency.—John W. Holcomb, Indiana.
School Reports.—Report of Committee on Education.

1886 County Superintendents.—E. B. McElroy, Oregon.
1887 School Supervision in the United States and other countries compared.—John Hancock, Ohio.
Points for Constant Consideration in the Statistics of Education.—John Eaton, Ohio.
1888 The Relation of the Superintendent and Teacher to the School.—A. E. Winship, Massachusetts.
The Superintendent and the Teacher.—John E. Bradley, Minnesota.
1889 What Statistics Are to Be Collected?—J. M. Greenwood, Missouri.
The School Principal.—George Howland, Illinois.
The Work of the City Superintendent.—T. M. Balliet, Massachusetts.
1890 School Superintendence in Cities.—E. E. White, Ohio.
State Supervision: What Plan of Organization and Administration Is Most Effective?—J. W. Patterson, New Hampshire.
Popular Criticisms and Their Proper Influence upon School Superintendence.—Merrill Gates, New Jersey.
School Statistics as a Basis of Legislative or Official Action—What Should Be Collected and How?—H. M. LaFollette, Indiana.
1891 School Statistics. (Discussion.) Report of Committee of National Council.
The Public School and Civil Service Reform.—George William Curtis, New York.
School Statistics.—Report of Committee of National Council. (Discussion.)
1892 What Can Be Done to Bring Pupils Farther on in Their Studies Before They Leave School to Go to Work?—Charles W. Hill, Massachusetts.
Report on School Statistics.—James McAlister, Pennsylvania; George P. Brown, Illinois.
1893 School Savings Banks in the United States.—J. H. Thiry, New York.
School Savings Banks in France.—M. Gustave Serrurier, France.
Who Shall Appoint Teachers, and on Whose Nomination?—H. S. Tarbell, Rhode Island.
1894 School Boards.—Charles E. Gaton, New York.
1895 Changes—Wise and Unwise—in Grammar and High Schools.—Orville T. Bright, Illinois.
How to Test the Quality of a Teacher's Work.—W. C. Warfield, Kentucky; Aaron Gove, Colorado.
Individualism in Mass Education.—P. W. Search, California.
Powers and Duties of State Superintendents.—N. C. Schaeffer, Pennsylvania.
1896 The School-Board Convention Idea.—William George Bruce, Wisconsin.
School Boards, What and Why?—R. I. Yeager, Missouri.
The Relation of a Board to Its Superintendent.—William S. Mack, Illinois.
Principals' Round Table.—F. L. Bliss, Michigan (in the chair).
What Is the Best Use That Can Be Made of the Grade Meeting?—Edward C. Delano, Illinois.
What Is the True Function or Essence of Supervision?—C. A. Babcock, Pennsylvania.
1897 Principals' Round Table.
The Province of the Supervisor.—L. H. Jones, Ohio.
Supervision as Viewed by the Supervised.—Sarah L. Brooks, Minnesota.
Hints on School Administration.—H. L. Getz, Iowa.
Reform in School Administration.—J. W. Errant, Illinois.
The Relation of the School Board to the People.—Mrs. Alice Bradford Wiles, Illinois.
The Kind of Supervision Most Needed.—Henry Sabin, Iowa, chairman.
Selection of School Boards—A Comparison of Methods in Operation.—T. H. Watkins, Kentucky.
1898 What Kind of Centralization Will Strengthen Our Local School System?—Harvey H. Bubbert, Pennsylvania.
The Professional and Non-Professional Bodies in Our School System.—A. Lawrence Lowell, Massachusetts.
Some New England Plans and Conclusions Drawn from a Study of Grading and Promotion.—John T. Prince, Massachusetts.
Grading and Promotion with Reference to the Individual Needs of Pupils.—James H. Van Sickle, Colorado.
The Elizabeth Plan of Grading.—William J. Shearer, New Jersey.
Grading and Promotion with Reference to the Individual Needs of Pupils.—Edward R. Shaw, New York.

1898 The Duties and Privileges of the Supervisor.—SARAH LOUISE ARNOLD, Massachusetts.

1899 Authority of the School Superintendent.—EMERSON E. WHITE, Ohio.
Let Pupils Be So Classified as to Allow Unrestricted Progress or Unlimited Time, According to Ability.—FRANK J. BARNARD, Washington.
Quo Vadis, School Board?—WILLIAM GEORGE BRUCE, Wisconsin.
The School Board and the Public Press.—ELLA J. FIFIELD, Washington
Round Table of City Superintendents.—J. P. SHARKEY, Ohio.
Promotions and Grading.—W. W. CHALMERS, Ohio.
Paper by PAUL A. COWGILL, Michigan.
Paper by H. E. KRATZ, Iowa.
Course of Study for Pupils Who Cannot Complete High-School Work.—J. M. BERKEY, Pennsylvania.
Paper by J. W. CARR, Indiana.
The School Director as a Factor in Education.—SAMUEL HAMILTON, Pennsylvania.
What the Superintendent Is Not.—A. E. WINSHIP, Massachusetts.

1900 Class Intervals in Graded Schools.—WILLIAM T. HARRIS, District of Columbia.
The Problem of the Grades—Classification and Promotion.—ELIZABETH BICHANAN Missouri.
School Administration Problems in the South.—ISRAEL H. PERES, Tennessee.
The Relations of the School Board and the Teachers.—W. A. HUNT, Minnesota.
School-Board Organization.—W. S. ELLIS, Indiana.
Two Opportunities for Improvement in the Administration of Graded-School Systems.—L. D. HARVEY, Wisconsin.
The Trail of the City Superintendent.—AARON GOVE, Colorado.
The Superintendent in Small Cities.—CHARLES E. GORTON, New York.
How Can the Superintendent Improve the Efficiency of the Teachers under His Charge?—JOHN W. COOK, Illinois.
The Superintendent as an Organizer and an Executive.—ROBERT E. DENFELD, Minnesota.

1901 The Past and the Future Work of the Department of Superintendence.—JAMES M. GREENWOOD, Missouri.
Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association.—EMERSON E. WHITE, Ohio.
Round Tables—Round Table of Superintendents of Large Cities.—F. LOUIS SOLDAN, Missouri.
Round Tables—Round Tables of Superintendents of Small Cities—
Section A.—L. E. WOLFE, Kansas.
Section B.—WILLIAM J. SHEARER, New Jersey.
Section C.—T. A. MOTT, Indiana.
Section D.—AUGUSTUS S. DOWNING, New York.
Round Tables of State and County Superintendents.—L. D. BONEBRAKE, Ohio.
What Constitutes an Efficient Superintendent?—ISRAEL H. PERES, Tennessee.

1902 Round Table—Principals' Conference.—W. J. S. BRYAN, Missouri.
Round Table—B. Round Table of City Superintendents—
Topic I: Four Minor Duties of a Superintendent.—I. C. MCNEILL, Wisconsin.

1903 The Best Methods of Electing School Boards.—LEWIS H. JONES, Michigan.
Round Table—C. Round Table of City Superintendents—The Most Effective Use of a Superintendent's Time.—A. B. BLODGETT, New York.
Various Other Papers by Various Authors.
Tenure in the Civil Service.—JOHN T. DOYLE, District of Columbia.
School Boards—Number of Members, Terms of Service, and Mode of Selection.—CALVIN W. EDWARDS, New York, and Others.
School Boards—Their Functions: Legislature, Executive, and Judicial.—B. F. HUNSICKER, Pennsylvania.
New Departures in School Administration.—CHARLES HOLDEN, Michigan.

1904 Retrospective and Prospective School Administrations.—B. F. HUNSICKER, Pennsylvania.
The Superintendent as a Man of Affairs.—WILLIAM H. MAXWELL, New York.
The Assistant to the Superintendent—His Functions and Methods of Work.—ALICE E. REYNOLDS, Connecticut.
The Management of Special Departments.—C. H. KENDALL, Indiana.
Lessons in School Administration to Be Gained at the Fair.—CALVIN M. WOODWARD, Missouri.
Limitations of the Superintendents' Authority and of the Teacher's Independence.—AARON GOVE, Colorado.

1904 Round Table of State and County Superintendents—Expert Supervision.—Isaac W. Hill, Alabama.
Round Table of City Superintendents—The Expediency of Importing Teachers of Approved Merit from Without a Town or City.—Samuel T. Dutton, New York.
1905 Recent Progress in School Administration.—Wm. George Bruce, Wisconsin.
Round Tables of State, County, and City Superintendents.
Round-Table Conference—A. Principals' Conference.—Walter B. Gunnison, New York.
Standards of Local Administration.—George B. McClellan, New York.
Table I: School Expenditures Classified.[1]
Table II: Cost of Instruction as Compared with Other Expenditures.[1]
Table III: Relation of Maintenance of Schools to Total City Operating Expenses.[1]
1906 How the Superintendent May Correct Defective Classwork and Make the Work of the Recitation Teach the Pupil How to Prepare His Lesson Properly.—W. T. Harris, District of Columbia.
What Should be the Basis for the Promotion of Teachers and the Increase of Salaries?—James H. Van Sickle, Maryland.
The Superintendent's Authority and the Teacher's Freedom.—Oscar T. Corson, Ohio.
How can the Supervising Influence of Grammar-School Principals Be Improved?—Lewis H. Jones, Michigan.
Suggestions for the Improvement of the Study Period.—F. M. McMurry, New York.
Influence of the Supervisor.—Ada Van Stone Harris, New York.

54. TEACHERS

(*See also* Normal Schools and Training of Teachers; Pensions for Teachers; Salaries of Teachers.)

1860 Our Professional Ancestry.—Richard Edwards, Missouri.
1863 The Causes of Failure and Success in the Office of Teacher.—E. A. Grant, Kentucky.
1872 Examination of Teachers.—John Swett, California.
1882 How to Improve the Qualifications of Teachers.—Wm. T. Harris, Missouri.
1883 Examination of Teachers.—Eli T. Tappan, Ohio.
1885 The Ideal Schoolmaster.—T. J. Morgan, Rhode Island.
Civil Service Reform and the Public Schools.—H. Randall Waite, Massachusetts.
Teaching as a Business for Men.—C. W. Bardeen, New York.
1887 How to Awaken an Interest and Create a Demand for Professionally Trained and Good Teachers.—W. W. Parsons, Indiana.
Teachers' Tenure of Office.—Report of Committee. (Discussion.)
1888 How Shall the Qualifications of Teachers Be Determined?—A. S. Draper, New York.
1889 Licensure of Teachers. Discussion.
Individuality of the Teacher.—J. M. Dewberry, Alabama.
State Teachers' Institutes.—John W. Dickinson, Massachusetts.
City Training and Practice Schools.—W. S. Jackman, Pennsylvania.
County Institutes.—A. G. Lane, Illinois.
1891 Qualifications and Supply of Teachers for City Public Schools.—Wm. E. Anderson, Wisconsin. (Discussion.)
1892 President's Opening Address.—Frank E. Plummer, Iowa.
Literature for Teachers.—Hamilton W. Mabie, New York.
1893 Grading and Classification.—Mrs. Ella F. Young, Illinois.
Who Shall Appoint Teachers, and on Whose Nomination?—H. S. Tarbell, Rhode Island.
1894 The Improvement of Rural Teachers.—S. S. Parr, Minnesota.
How May a Professional Spirit Be Acquired by the Secondary Teachers of America?—Ida B. Haslop, Colorado.
Professional Obligations and Duties of the Teacher.—Edward Brooks, Pennsylvania.
What Makes, What Mars, the Teacher?—Corinne Harrison, Virginia.
1896 The Nervous Force of the Teacher.—Mara L. Pratt, Massachusetts.
1897 Round Table on National Teachers' Certificaties.—Ossian H. Lang, New York.
Winners of Men.—James H. Canfield, Ohio.

1898 The Teacher as a Traveler.—LILLIE A. WILLIAMS, New Jersey.
The Tenure of Office of the Teachers.—B. W. WRIGHT, Michigan.
1899 Efficient and Inefficient Teachers.—F. LOUIS SOLDAN, Missouri.
Employment and Dismissal of Teachers.—ERIC EDWARD ROSLING, Washington.
Evolution and Ethics.—SYDNEY T. SKIDMORE, Pennsylvania.
How to Make Good Teachers Out of Poor Ones.—WM. T. HARRIS, District of Columbia.
Professional Sentiment.—A. E. WINSHIP, Massachusetts.
1901 Some of Our Mistakes.—G. M. GRANT, Canada.
The Teacher as a Social-Economic Power.—REUBEN POST HALLECK, Kentucky.
1902 College Graduates in Elementary Schools.—THOMAS M. BALLIET, Massachusetts.
Devotion to Truth: The Chief Virtue of the Teacher.—JOHN IRELAND, Minnesota.
Round Table—Reciprocity in Licensing Teachers.—RICHARD C. BARRETT, Iowa.
1903 The Freedom of the Teacher.—CHARLES B. GILBERT, New York.
1904 Preliminary Report of Committee on Salaries, Tenure, and Pensions of Teachers.—CARROLL D. WRIGHT, District of Columbia, chairman.
Round Table of State and County Superintendents—Higher Standards in the Employment of Teachers.—FRANCIS P. VENABLE, North Carolina; M. L. BRITTAIN, Georgia.
Round Table of City Superintendents—Should Teachers be Required to Present Evidences of Increased Scholarship? If So, of What Nature?—WALTER H. SMALL, Rhode Island.
Round Tables of State and County Superintendents—The Recognition of Certificates and Diplomas Granted (*a*) by State and County Authorities, (*b*) by Schools of Education.—L. E. WOLFE, Texas.
Why Teachers Should Organize.—MARGARET A. HALEY, Illinois.
1905 President's Address—The Schoolmaster.—WILLIAM SCHUYLER, Missouri.
Symposium: What Are at Present the Most Promising Subjects for Such Investigations as the National Council of Education Should Undertake?—GEORGE H. MARTIN, Massachusetts; JAMES M. GREENWOOD, Missouri.

55. TEACHING—PRINCIPLES AND METHODS

(*See also* Education; Theory, Philosophy and Nature; Psychology and Education; and the names of separate studies.)

1860 The Teacher and Her Work.—JOHN KNEELAND, Massachusetts.
1863 The Teacher as an Artist.—Z. RICHARDS, District of Columbia.
1866 Oral Teaching.—E. C. HEWETT, Illinois.
Oral Instruction: Its Philosophy and Methods.—Mrs. MARY HOWE SMITH, New York.
1870 The Application of Mental Science to Teaching.—J. W. DICKINSON, Massachusetts.
1871 Philosophy of Methods.—JOHN W. ARMSTRONG, New York.
1873 Elementary and Scientific Knowledge.—J. W. DICKINSON, Massachusetts.
Relative Contribution of Scholarship and Methods to the Power of the Teacher.—H. B. BUCKHAM, New York.
1874 Method and Manner.—F. L. SOLDAN, Missouri.
1876 What May Schools Do to Form Right Habits of Thought and Study in Their Pupils?—C. A. MOREY, Minnesota.
Personal and Acquired Gifts of Teaching.—H. B. BUCKHAM, New York.
1879 The Neighborhood, as a Starting-Point in Education.—ROBERT E. THOMPSON.
1880 The Dominion of Nature and Art in the Process of Instruction.—WM. H. PAYNE, Michigan.
Results of Methods of Teaching.—J. W. DICKINSON, Massachusetts.
1881 The Teacher's Work in the Development of Mental and Moral Power.—N. A. CALKINS, New York.
The Philosophy of Illustration.—J. J. BURNS, Ohio.
1882 Oral Instruction.—LARKIN DUNTON, Massachusetts.
1884 The Constant in Education.—B. A. HINSDALE, Ohio.
Method in Teaching.—JOHN W. DICKINSON, Massachusetts.
1885 Method of Pedagogical Inquiry.—WILLIAM T. HARRIS, Massachusetts.
Pedagogical Inquiry.—G. STANLEY Hall, Massachusetts.
[1]Adjustment of Modes of Instruction.—F. LOUIS SOLDAN, Missouri.
1886 Some Serious Errors in Teaching.—L. R. KLEMM, Ohio.
Other Errors in Teaching.—J. M. GREENWOOD, Missouri.
Principles of Method.—AGNES I. ROUNDS, New Hampshire.

1887 How to Teach Parents to Discriminate between Good and Bad Teaching.—Mrs. Ella F. Young, Illinois.
The Socratic Element in Elementary Culture.—J. W. Stearns, Wisconsin.
The Objective Element in Teaching.—John W. Dickinson, Massachusetts.
Union of Oral and Book Teaching in the Several Grades.—Mrs. S. N. Williams, Kentucky.
1889 The Recitation.—George Howland, Illinois.
1890 Mental Effects of Form in Subject-Matter.—J. H. Hoose, New York.
Organization and System *versus* Originality and Individuality on the Part of the Teacher and Pupil.—Henry Sabin, Iowa.
Recitation Estimates.—A. R. Taylor, Kansas.
1892 Individualization by Grouping.—Julia S. Tutwiller, Alabama.
Report of the Committee on Pedagogics (Scope and Character of Pedagogical Work in Universities).—Charles DeGarmo, Pennsylvania, chairman.
1893 Adaptation of Methods of Instruction to Special Conditions of the Child.—Graham Bell, District of Columbia.
How to Improve the Work of Inefficient Teachers.—Frank A. Fitzpatrick, Nebraska.
1894 What Can Be Done to Increase the Efficiency of Teachers in Actual Service?—Thomas M. Balliet, Massachusetts.
What Shall Be Done with Non-Progressive and Retrogressive Teachers?—J. M. Greenwood, Missouri.
1895 Departmental Teaching in Grammar Grades.—J. M. Fendley, Texas.
The Real Province of Method.—James M. Milne, New York; Howard Sandison, Indiana.
Substitution of the Teacher for the Textbook.—J. M. Rice, New York.
1896 Demands of Sociology upon Pedagogy.—Albion W. Small, Illinois.
What is the Best Use That Can Be Made of the Grade Meeting?—Edward C. Dalano, Illinois.
1897 Data of Method.—James M. Green, New Jersey.
What to Teach and What to Leave Out.—Wm. M. Giffin, Illinois.
1898 Social Co-operation.—B. C. Gregory, New York.
1899 Some Fundamentals in Teaching.—L. D. Harvey, Wisconsin.
1900 The Problem of the Grades—Instruction.—Mrs. Alice Woodworth Cooley, Minnesota.
1901 What Is a Fad?—F. Louis Soldan, Missouri.
The Need of Individual Instruction.—John Kennedy, New York.
1902 The Use and Danger of Method.—W. A. Millis, Indiana.
1903 Does the Teacher's Knowledge of a Subject Differ from the Scholar's Knowledge?—W. W. Parsons, Indiana, and Others.
Influence of the Study of the Unusual Child Upon the Teaching of the Usual.—Frank H. Hall, Illinois, and Others.
The Lock-Step in the Public Schools.—Richard G. Boone, Massachusetts.

56. TECHNICAL EDUCATION

(*See also* Industrial Education; Manual Training.)

1874 National Endowments for Schools for Scientific and Technical Training.—J. K. Patterson, Kentucky.
1876 The Political Economy of Higher and Technical Education.—H. A. M. Henderson, Kentucky.
What Can Be Done to Secure a Larger Proportion of Educated Labor among Our Producing and Manufacturing Classes?—William C. Russell, New York.
1877 The Relation of Manual Labor to Technological Training.—Charles O. Thompson, Massachusetts.
1880 Technical Instruction in Land-Grant Colleges.—J. M. Gregory, Illinois.
Technical Training in American Schools.—E. E. White, Indiana.
1881 Decay of Apprenticeship—Its Causes and Remedies.—L. S. Thompson.
1884 Technical and Art Education in Public Schools as Elements of Culture.—Felix Adler, New York.
1886 Technical Education for Girls. Report.
Technological Education. Report.
1887 Relations of Higher Technological Schools to the Public System of Instruction.—James L. Hopkins, Georgia.
1893 Opening Address.—Francis A. Walker, Massachusetts.

1893 Technological Schools: Their Purpose and Its Accomplishment.—Robert H. Thurston, New York.
Training for Scientific Professions.—John M. Ordway, Louisiana.
Educational Value of Exact Measurement.—M. Mayer, New Jersey.
The Educational Value of Applied Mathematics, Including Engineering.—F. R. Hutton, New York.
Shop-Work and Drawing as Means of Developing Slow Pupils.—R. H. Richards, Massachusetts.
The Educational Process of Training an Engineer.—G. Lanza, Massachusetts.
Educational Value of Applied Mathematics and Engineering.—Henry T. Eddy, Indiana.
1894 Report of Committee on Technological Education—The Relation of Technical to Liberal Education.—C. M. Woodward, Missouri.
Report from Committee on Higher Education—Professional and Technical Instruction in the University.—Nicholas Murray Butler, New York.
1896 Congressional Work for Youth.—W. K. Wickes, New York.
Report of the Committee on Technological Education—The Preparation of Manual- and Industrial-Training Teachers a Function of the Technical School.—Charles H. Keyes, California.
1900 Teaching Trades in Connection with the Public Schools.—Charles F. Warner, Massachusetts.
1901 Education for the Trades in America—What Can Technical High Schools Do for It?—Charles F. Warner, Massachusetts.
1903 Manual, Trade, and Technical Education.—Thomas M. Balliet, Massachusetts.
Education for the Trades: From the Standpoint of the Manufacturer.—Milton P. Higgins, Massachusetts.
The Demand for Trade Schools: From the Educator's Point of View.—Arthur Henry Chamberlain, California.
The Organization of Trade Schools: From the Point of View of a School Superintendent.—Thomas M. Balliet, Massachusetts.
The Organization of Trade Schools: From the Point of View of a Trade-School Director.—Arthur L. Williston, New York.
The Attitude of Trade Unions toward Trade Schools.—William H. Sayward, Massachusetts.
Craftsmanship in Education.—Leslie W. Miller, Pennsylvania.
1904 Education in the American Navy.—Casper F. Goodrich, District of Columbia.
1905 The Economic Importance of Trade Schools.—Frank A. Vanderlip, New York.

57. TEXTBOOKS

1866 Textbooks.—M. A. Newell, Maryland.
1871 Place and Use of Textbooks.—S. G. Williams, Ohio.
1880 Textbooks and Their Uses.—W. T. Harris, Missouri.
1886 Textbooks in Elementary Schools. Report of Committee.
1888 The General Functions of the State in Relation to School Books and Appliances.—John Swett, California.
If There Should Be Uniformity in Textbooks, Should It Be by State Contract, by State Publication, or by State Decree?—Albert W. Marble, Massachusetts.
Should the State Furnish Books and Appliances Free?—R. W. Stevenson, Ohio.
Free Textbooks for Free Schools.—Thomas Tash, Maine.
State Uniformity of Textbooks.—L. S. Cornell, Colorado.
Are the Normal Schools, as They Exist in Our Several States, Adequate to Accomplish the Work for Which They Were Established?—James P. Wickersham, Pennsylvania.
The Function of the State in Relation to School Books and Appliances.—John Swett, California.
1897 Education from a Publisher's Standpoint.—Gilman H. Tucker, New York.

58. WOMAN'S EDUCATION AND WORK

(*See also* Coeducation.)

1874 The Plan of the University of Virginia.—C. S. Venable, Virginia.
1884 Woman's Work in Education.—Mrs. Mary Wright Sewell, Indiana.
Woman's Work in Education.—Louisa Hopkins, Massachusetts.
Woman's Work in Education.—Frances E. Willard, Illinois.
1885 The Higher Education of Women.—Committee Report.

1889 The Principles and Methods of Educating Our Girls for Parenthood.—Mrs. EUDORA L. HAILMANN, Indiana.
1891 The Education of Girls.—ROBERT ALLYN, Illinois.
1893 Women Students in the Scottish Universities.—LOUISA STEVENSON, Scotland.
Convent Education.—F. M. L., Principal of a Training-College.
Women's Education in New Zealand.—Mrs. STEADMAN ALDIS, New Zealand.
Educational Work for Women in Australia, Chiefly New South Wales.—LOUISA MACDONALD, Australia.
Recent Developments of Education for the Women and Girls of India.—E. A. MANNING, India.
English Orphanage and Training-School in Bosnia, 1869–1892.—Miss A. T. IRBY, Bosnia.
The Secondary Education of Girls in France.—Mlle. MARIE DUGARD, France.
High School for Girls in England.—MARY GURNEY and ROSE KINGSLEY, England.
University Education for Women in England.—Mrs. HENRY FAWCETT, England.
A Few Words of Retrospect and Forecast.—DOROTHEA BEALE, England.
University Association of Women Teachers.—CONSTANCE ELDER, England.
1897 The Co-operation of Woman's Clubs in the Public Schools.—Mrs. ELLEN M. HENROTIN, Illinois.
1898 Women's Clubs as an Educational Factor.—MARGARET J. EVANS, Minnesota.
1902 The Home and the Higher Education.—Mrs. CARRIE CHAPMAN CATT, New York.
1906 Secondary Education of Girls during the Past Fifty Years.
I. In England.—DOROTHEA BEALE, England.
II. In France.—CAMILLE SÉE, France.
The Modern System of Higher Education for Women in Prussia.—FRIEDRICH PAULSEN, Berlin.
Woman's Part in Public-School Education.—Mrs. SARAH E. HYRE, Ohio.

59. WRITING

1893 Shall Reading and Writing Be Taught in the Kindergarten?—Mrs. ALICE H. PUTNAM, Illinois.
1894 Hand-Writing of the Future.—D. T. AMES.
The Teaching of Writing.—J. P. BYRNE, Pennsylvania.
1896 Practical Writing—A Course for Colleges and Public Schools to Answer the Needs of the People.—A. N. PALMER, Iowa.
Vertical Writing.—ANNIE E. HILLS, Massachusetts.
1900 Essentials of Modern Business Penmanship.—F. L. HAEBERLE, Minnesota.
1901 Writing in the Grades Below the High School When the Commercial Branches Are Taught in the High School.—J. F. BARNHART, Ohio.
1905 Round Table Conference—C. Reading in the First School Year.—Mrs. ALICE W. COOLEY, North Dakota.

REVIEW OF THE REPORTS OF THE SECRETARY, 1893–1907

The historical matter of the foregoing pages includes the essential facts of the work of the Association. A few summaries may be added concerning the special work of the Secretary. Previous to 1893 the Secretary had been annually elected by the Association and did not usually serve more than a single year, altho in several cases repeated re-elections occurred.

Previous to 1895 no provisions for compensation or for clerical aid to the secretary were made. In this year, at the Denver meeting, the active membership of the Association was created as the permanent governing body of members. An appropriation was made for the compensation of the Secretary and for clerical assistance in his office. Under this new plan, the active membership was organized.

In 1898 at the Washington meeting the Constitution was amended to provide for a permanent Secretary to be elected by the Board of Trustees, who should receive a salary and should devote his entire time to the work of the office.

ACTIVE MEMBERSHIP

The growth of the active membership of the Association since its organization is shown by the following table:

TABLE SHOWING ACTIVE MEMBERSHIP ENROLLMENT SINCE 1895

Year	Meeting	Additions	Loss by Death	Loss by Withdrawal	Total Loss	Net Gain or Loss	Total Membership
1895–96	Buffalo	1,464	..	...	...	...	1,464
1896–97	Milwaukee	467	18	56	74	393	1,857
1897–98	Washington	290	20	175	195	95	1,952
1898–99	Los Angeles	309	26	121	147	252	2,204
1899–1900	Charleston	308	32	159	191	117	2,321
1900–1901	Detroit	629	18	121	139	489	2,810
1901–1902	Minneapolis	562	23	134	157	405	3,215
1902–1903	Boston	1,364	17	274	291	1,073	4,288
1903–1904	St. Louis	665	30	381	411	254	4,542
1904–1905	Asbury Park and Ocean Grove	1,134	25	390	415	719	5,261
1905–1906	No meeting	608	46	644	690	87	5,174

The enrollment of educational institutions has increased by 230 since the last report; they are distributed as follows:

Universities and colleges		161
Normal schools		78
Public libraries		164
State departments of education		13
Public schools		327
New York city	291	
Other cities	36	
Boards of education		18
Other educational institutions		40
Total		801

RECEIPTS AND EXPENSES OF SECRETARY'S OFFICE

While it is intended that all revenues of the Association shall be paid direct to the Treasurer, the Secretary is charged with the collection of annual dues of active members

not attending the annual conventions; of new members enrolled at other times than during the annual convention; of receipts from the sale of back volumes, reprints, committee reports, etc. The revenue from these sources is reported by the Secretary to the Treasurer monthly.

TABLE OF CASH RECEIPTS AT THE SECRETARY'S OFFICE SINCE 1895

Year	Act. Mem. Dues and Enroll. not Received at Annual Meeting	Sales of Back Volumes	Sales of Committee Reports, etc.	Total
1895–96	$1,262.35	$ 193.90	.....	$1,456.25
1896–97	1,066.25	37.25	.....	1,103.50
1897–98	1,604.23	1,375.63	$453.76	3,433.62
1898–99	2,398.07	406.70	119.89	2,924.66
1899–1900	3,436.26	1,141.50	677.35	5,255.11
1900–1901	2,757.85	852.65	478.69	5,089.19
1901–1902	3,620.49	963.15	202.29	4,785.93
1902–1903	4,152.24	830.25	122.47	5,404.96
1903–1904	4,292.00	831.62	297.79	5,421.41
1904–1905	8,744.00	480.85	148.54	9,373.39
1905–1906	7,203.35	661.30	319.58	8,184.23

The following table shows the expenses of the Secretary's office since the establishment of a permanent office in 1898.

TABLE OF CLASSIFIED EXPENSES AT THE SECRETARY'S OFFICE SINCE 1898

Year	Postage	Telegrams	Freight and Express	Clerical Service	Stationery and Office Supplies	Traveling	Miscellaneous	Rent	Salary	Total
1898–1899	$462.78	$134.97	$21.53	$525.45	$118.44	$275.21	.....	....	$3,000	$4,538.38
1899–1900	642.76	118.86	55.44	464.33	160.07	398.63	.....	....	4,000	5,840.09
1900–1901	749.65	53.42	21.18	563.70	169.02	139.25	.....	....	4,000	5,696.12
1901–1902	764.80	71.63	20.09	689.25	114.15	148.40	$ 49.75	....	4,000	5,858.07
1902–1903	784.38	69.73	20.08	792.15	99.73	298.30	45.70	$550	4,000	6,660.07
1903–1904	1,303.55	126.92	61.25	1,485.41	180.20	267.57	127.27	600	4,000	8,152.17
1904.1905	1,632.67	100.56	57.38	1,509.85	149.12	612.59	56.53	600	4,000	8,718.70
1905–1906	1,523.25	97.34	47.88	1,738.23	129.65	398.45	46.60	600	4,000	8,581.40

THE FIXED REVENUE

The receipts from the Secretary's office and from interest on the permanent fund, combined, constitute a fixed and growing revenue entirely independent of the receipts from the annual convention, as follows:

TABLE SHOWING RECEIPTS FROM SECRETARY'S OFFICE AND FROM INTEREST ON THE PERMANENT FUND SINCE 1895

Year	Receipts from Secretary's Office	Receipts from the Permanent Fund	Total
1895–96	$1,456.25	$3,058.14	$ 4,514.39
1896–97	1,103.50	2,801.95	3,905.45
1897–98	3,433.62	2,268.47	5,702.09
1898–99	2,924.66	3,164.13	6,088.79
1899–1900	5,255.11	3,447.12	8,702.23
1900–1901	5,089.19	3,883.03	8,972.22
1901–1902	4,785.93	3,841.22	8,627.15
1902–1903	5,404.96	4,715.10	10,120.06
1903–1904	5,421.41	6,573.98	11,995.39
1904–1905	9,373.39	5,534.90	14,908.29
1905–1906	8,184.23	6,552.44	14,736.67

THE PERMANENT FUND

The following table shows the growth of the permanent fund, provided for by the constitution, and the interest receipts from this fund, since its foundation in 1886, as shown by the annual reports of the Board of Trustees.

The surplus from the meetings of 1884 and 1885 and from other sources was turned over to the Board of Trustees at the time of the incorporation of the Association as the first installment ($3,400) of the permanent fund.

TABLE SHOWING GROWTH OF THE PERMANENT FUND FROM 1886–1906

Year	Meeting	Additions to the Permanent Fund	Total Amount of Permanent Fund	Revenue from Permanent Fund
1886–87	Topeka	$ 1,175.00	$ 4,575.00*	$ 204.00
1887–88	Chicago	11,100.00	15,675.00	317.91
1888–89	San Francisco	9,325.00	25,000.00	943.15
1889–90	Nashville	4,000.00	29,000.00	1,352.25
1890–91	St. Paul	7,400.00	36,400.00	1,660.00
1891–92	Toronto	3,600.00	40,000.00	2,049.13
1892–93	Saratoga Springs	No addition	40,000.00	3,183.64
1893–94	No meeting	No addition	40,000.00	2,369.16
1894–95	Asbury Park	5,000.00	45,000.00	2,058.96
1895–96	Denver	9,961.75	54,961.75	3,058.14
1896–97	Buffalo	4,300.00	59,261.75	2,801.95
1897–98	Milwaukee	4,738.25	64,000.00	2,568.47
1898–99	Washington	10,000.00	74,000.00	3,164.13
1899–1900	Los Angeles	14,000.00	88,000.00	3,474.12
1900–1901	Charleston	No addition	88,000.00	3,883.03
1901–1902	Detroit	10,000.00	98,000.00	3,841.22
1902–1903	Minneapolis	10,000.00	108,000.00	4,715.10
1903–1904	Boston	39,000.00	147,000.00	6,573.98
1904–1905	St. Louis	No addition	147,000.00	5,534.90
1905–1906	Asbury Park and Ocean Grove	8,100.00	155,100.00	6,552.44

* 1884 and 1885, Madison and Saratoga Springs, surplus $3,400.

COMPARATIVE SUMMARY OF FINANCIAL STATISTICS COMPILED FROM THE TREASURER'S REPORTS

	For Ten Years 1884–93 Inclusive	For Six Years 1894–99 Inclusive	For Six Years 1900–05 Inclusive
Total number of members	39,754	57,584	91,908
Average annual membership	3,975	9,597	15,318
Total receipts	$103,601.19	$147,069.17	$238,908.17
Average annual receipts	10,360.12	24,511.53	39,818.03
Total expenses	$63,620.10	$95,487.18	$159,607.84
Average annual expenses	6,362.01	15,914.53	26,601.31
Relation of total expenses to total receipts	61.40 per cent.	64.90 per cent.	66.80 per cent.
Total additions to permanent fund	$40,000.00	$48,000.00	$67,100.00
Average annual addition to permanent fund	4,000.00	8,000.00	11,541.67

SPECIAL COMMITTEES OF INVESTIGATION AND THEIR REPORTS

The foregoing history plainly shows that the annual convention at Madison, Wis., in the year 1884, under the presidency of Hon. Thos. W. Bicknell of Boston, Mass., was the beginning of a new life and a broader work for the Association.

The annual convention for ten years previous to that meeting had averaged only 284; the largest enrollment having been 355 at the Minneapolis convention in 1875, and 354 at the Chatauqua convention in 1880.

The proceeds from the annual membership were not sufficient to pay the expenses of publishing the volume of *Proceedings*, which was usually met in part by subscription from the leading members.

The enrollment at the Madison meeting in 1884 was 2,729. With the proceeds of this meeting all debts of the Association were paid, the volume of annual *Proceedings* was published and a small surplus carried over which became the nucleus of a permanent fund whose growth is shown in a table elsewhere.

For the years from 1884 to 1895 inclusive the average annual enrollment was 4,881. From 1896 to 1905 inclusive the average annual enrollment was 13,328.

Soon after the meeting in 1884 it became apparent to the leading members of the Association that its resources were assured and plans were undertaken for the appointment and endowment of special committees of investigation who should carefully study important educational problems and make reports to the Association at its annual meetings. The following extract from the minutes of the National Council of Education at its session July 9, 1892, at Saratoga, N. Y., sets forth the first movement of the Association for the creation of special committees of investigation.

"The report of the Committee of Conference between Colleges and Secondary Schools was read by Nicholas Murray Butler of New York, and, after discussion by the members, was amended and adopted in the following form:

To the National Council of Education:

In the opinion of the Conference of Representatives of Colleges and Secondary Schools, called by authority of the Council, certain conferences by departments of instruction, of teachers in colleges and secondary schools are desirable. We, therefore, recommend to the Council that the following ten persons, namely (See list of committee below) be designated as an Executive Committee, with full power to call and arrange for such conferences during the academic year 1892–3; that the results of the conferences be reported to said executive committee for such action as they may deem appropriate; and that the executive committee be requested to report fully concerning their action to the Council.

We recommend, further, that the Council ask the Directors of the National Educational Association to authorize the payment of the necessary expenses of the conferences, and that they set apart out of the income and current funds of the present year the sum of twenty-five hundred dollars, which sum shall be available so far as may be necessary to carry on the work of the committee, and shall be disbursed by the Trustees of the National Educational Association on vouchers signed by the Chairman of the Executive Committee herein recommended.

Respectfully submitted on behalf of the Conference,

NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER,
Chairman of Committee

July 9, 1892.

A committee of three, consisting of Messrs. Bulter, Baker, and Sheldon, was, by motion, appointed to present and urge these recommendations before the Board of Directors of the National Educational Association."

Subsequently at the meeting of the Board of Directors, July 12, 1892, the above recommendation was presented to the Board of Directors and the following resolution offered by Nicholas Murray Butler, chairman of the committee from the National Council was adopted.

"RESOLVED, That the directors assent to the recommendation of the Council that a series of investigations into the courses of study in secondary schools be undertaken by specialists under the direction of the committee named for the purpose by the Council and hereby confirmed by this Board, and that the Trustees be authorized to appropriate therefor from the Emergency Fund $2,500, or so much thereof as may be necessary."

COMMITTEE OF TEN ON SECONDARY EDUCATION

CHARLES W. ELIOT, president of Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass., *chairman.*
WILLIAM T. HARRIS, United States Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C.
JAMES B. ANGELL, president of University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.
JOHN TETLOW, head-master of the Girls' High School and the Girls' Latin School, Boston, Mass.
JAMES M. TAYLOR, president of Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, N. Y.
OSCAR D. ROBINSON, principal of High School, Albany, N. Y.

JAMES H. BAKER, president of University of Colorado, Boulder, Colo.
RICHARD H. JESSE, president of University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo.
JAMES C. MACKENZIE, head-master Lawrenceville School, Lawrenceville, N. J.
HENRY C. KING, professor in Oberlin College, Oberlin, Ohio.

This committee organized at a meeting held at Columbia University, New York City, November 9 to 11, 1892, under the chairmanship of President Chas. W. Eliot, and appointed nine committees of conference to consider separate divisions of the general subject. The membership of these various conferences and a complete history of their deliberations, and of the general committee, may be found embodied in the early pages of the report of this Committee of Ten. The committee made its final report to the National Council of Education in October 1893. The report was printed and distributed extensively by the United States Bureau of Education.

The appropriation by the Board of Directors for the expenses of this committee was $2,500 as noted above, but it has been understood that private contributions supplemented this amount and enabled the committee to carry its work to successful issue.

Altho this is the first of the series of special reports which followed, it is still in extensive demand by students of the problem, of secondary education.

THE COMMITTEE OF FIFTEEN ON ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

On February 22, 1893, the following resolution was adopted by the Department of Superintendence, on motion of William H. Maxwell, Superintendent of City Schools, Brooklyn, N. Y.:

"RESOLVED, That a Committee of Ten be appointed by the Committee on Nominations, to investigate the organization of school systems, the co-ordination of studies in primary and grammar schools, and the training of teachers, with power to organize subconferences on such subdivisions of these subjects as may seem appropriate, and to report the results of their investigations and deliberations at the next meeting of the Department of Superintendence.

RESOLVED, That the officers of the Department of Superintendence be, and hereby are, directed to make application to the Board of Directors of the National Educational Association for an appropriation of twenty-five hundred dollars to defray the expenses of the Committee of Ten and of the conferences which that committee is empowered to appoint."

On February 23 the following committee, increased to fifteen members, was appointed, viz.—

WILLIAM H. MAXWELL, superintendent of city schools, Brooklyn, N. Y., *chairman.*
WILLIAM T. HARRIS, United States Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C.
T. M. BALLIET, superintendent of city schools, Springfield, Mass.
N. C. DOUGHERTY, superintendent of city schools, Peoria, Ill.
W. B. POWELL, superintendent of city schools, Washington D. C.
H. S. TARBELL, superintendent of city schools, Providence, R. I.
L. H. JONES, superintendent of city schools, Indianapolis, Ind.
J. M. GREENWOOD, superintendent of city schools, Kansas City, Mo.
A. B. POLAND, state superintendent of public instruction Trenton, N. J.
EDWARD BROOKS, superintendent of city schools, Philadelphia, Pa.
ANDREW S. DRAPER, president, University of Illinois, Champaign, Ill.
E. P. SEAVER, superintendent of city schools, Boston, Mass.
A. G. LANE, superintendent of city schools, Chicago, Ill.
CHARLES B. GILBERT, superintendent of city schools, St. Paul, Minn.
OSCAR H. COOPER, superintendent of city schools, Galveston, Tex.

This committee made its report to the Department of Superintendence at its meeting in Cleveland, Ohio, February 18, 1895. The report was first published, in accordance with a resolution of the Department, in the *Educational Review* of New York City for the month of March 1895. It was also published in the annual volume of *Proceedings* for the Denver meeting, 1895.

Like its predecessor, the report of the Committee of Ten on secondary education, this report is still much in demand by students of elementary education.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE OF TWELVE ON RURAL SCHOOLS

HENRY SABIN, state superintendent of public instruction, Des Moines, Ia. *chairman.*
B. A. HINSDALE, head of the department of education, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor Mich.
D. L. KIEHLE, state superintendent of public instruction, St. Paul, Minn.
W. T. HARRIS, United States Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C.
A. B. POLAND, state superintendent of public instruction, Trenton, N. J.
C. C. ROUNDS, principal of State Normal School, Plymouth, N. H.
J. H. PHILLIPS, superintendent of schools, Birmingham, Ala.
S. T. BLACK, state superintendent of public instruction, Sacramento, Cal.
W. S. SUTTON, state superintendent of public instruction, Houston, Tex.
C. R. SKINNER, state superintendent of public instruction, Albany, N. Y.
LAWTON B. EVANS, superintendent of city schools, Augusta, Ga.
L. E. WOLFE, superintendent of schools, Kansas City, Kans.

At a meeting of the National Council of Education at Denver, July 9, 1895, the Committee on State School Systems made a report on the rural-school problem thru its chairman, Henry Sabin of Iowa.

On July 12 the Board of Directors in session adopted a resolution appropriating $2,500 for the expenses of the committee. At a meeting of the Board of Directors at Buffalo, N. Y., in July, 1896, an additional $1,000 was appropriated for the use of the committee.

This committee rendered its report to the National Council of Education at its meeting in Milwaukee, July, 1897. The report was at once issued as a special pamphlet publication of the Association and was widely distributed. It was also published in the volume of *Proceedings* for 1897, Milwaukee meeting. Plates of this report were made and loaned to the state departments of various states and large editions were published for gratuitous distribution to the officers of rural schools in the respective states. Parts of the report were reprinted in pamphlet form by various publishers for general distribution at small cost. The report is still in active demand, especially in those states most prominently interested in the consolidation of rural schools; the supply of an efficient force of teachers for rural schools; and in the improvement of rural schools thru agricultural education.

COMMITTEE ON COLLEGE ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS

A. F. NIGHTINGALE, superintendent of high schools, Chicago, Ill., *chairman.*
WILLIAM H. SMILEY, principal high school, district No. 1, Denver, Colo., *secretary.*
GEORGE B. AITON, inspector of high schools state of Minnesota, Minneapolis.
J. REMSEN BISHOP, principal Walnut Hills High School, Cincinnati, O.
JOHN T. BUCHANAN, principal of boys' high school, New York City, N. Y.
PAUL H. HANUS, assistant professor of education, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.
B. A. HINSDALE, professor of education, Univ. of Mich., Ann Arbor, Mich.
RAY GREEN HULING, principal of English high school, Cambridge, Mass.
EDMUND J. JAMES, professor of public administration, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.
WILLIAM CAREY JONES, professor of jurisprudence, University of California, Berkeley, Cal.
JAMES E. RUSSELL, dean of Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.
CHARLES H. THURBER, associate professor of pedagogy, University of Chicago, Chicago.

At a meeting of the department of secondary education at the Denver convention in 1895 a paper was read by Professor William Carey Jones, of the University of California, on the subject, "What Action Ought to Be Taken by Universities and Secondary Schools to Promote the Introduction of the Programs Recommended by the Committee of Ten?" The discussion of this important paper led to joint action by the departments of secondary education and of higher education recommending the appointment of the above committee to investigate and report on the subject.

No appropriation by the Board of Directors was requested for the first year of the work of the committee. No general conference was held, but members of the committee as individuals acting in their official capacity sent out circulars, gathered statistics, and in other ways prepared the way for subsequent conferences.

At a meeting of the Board of Directors held in Washington, D. C., July 11, 1898, an appropriation of $500 was made to pay the necessary clerical expenses of this committee in collecting its statistics and formulating its report. This report was completed and presented to the joint departments of secondary and higher education at the Los Angeles convention held in July, 1899. The report was published as a separate pamphlet and widely distributed. It was also printed in the annual volume of *Proceedings* for the Los Angeles meeting.

Like the reports of the Committee of Ten and Committee of Fifteen, it is still in active demand by students of secondary and college education.

COMMITTEE ON NORMAL SCHOOLS

Z. X. Snyder, president of state normal school, Greeley, Colo., *chairman.*
R. G. Boone, president of state normal college, Ypsilanti, Mich.
A. G. Boyden, principal of state normal school, Bridgewater, Mass.
Miss Marion Brown, vice-principal of McDonogh high school, New Orleans, La.
Frank M. McMurry, Teachers college, Columbia University, New York City, N. Y.
E. T. Pierce, president of state normal school, Los Angeles, Cal.
N. C. Schaeffer, state superintendent of public instruction, Harrisburg, Pa.
H. H. Seerley, president of state normal school, Cedar Falls, Ia.

At the session of the National Educational Association held in Denver, 1895, the Normal Department passed the following resolution, offered by President Z. X. Snyder, of Colorado:

"Resolved, That a committee be appointed by the president of the department to meet during the year and formulate a report to be presented at the next meeting, upon such educational topics as directly concern this department."

At the meeting of the board of directors in Washington, D. C., July, 1898, an appropriation of $500 was made to meet the expenses of this committee.

The final report of the committee was made to the Department of Normal Schools at the Los Angeles convention in July, 1899. The report was published in separate pamphlet form and also in the volume of *Proceedings* for that year.

COMMITTEE ON THE RELATIONS OF PUBLIC LIBRARIES TO PUBLIC SCHOOLS

J. C. Dana, librarian, public library, Denver, Colo.
Frank A. Hutchins,
Charles A. McMurry, principal of practice school, DeKalb, Ill.
Sherman Williams, state institute conductor, Glenn Falls, N. Y.
M. Louise Jones, head of English Dep't., State Normal School, Emporia, Kan.

On recommendation of the library department of the N. E. A. at the annual convention held in Washington, D. C., 1897, to the National Council of Education the above committtee was appointed to report on the relations of public libraries to public schools.

On the recommendation of the National Council the board of Directors made an appropriation of $500 for carrying on the work of this committee. The committee completed its work within one year and made its report to the National Council at the Los Angeles convention in July 1899. This report was printed and distributed in a separate pamphlet and also in the volume of *Proceedings* of the Los Angeles convention.

COMMITTEE ON SALARIES, TENURE OF OFFICE AND PENSIONS OF TEACHERS

Carroll D. Wright, U. S. Commissioner of Labor, Washington, D. C., *chairman.*
Edwin G. Cooley, superintendent of schools, Chicago, Ill.
Franklin H. Giddings, professor of sociology, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.
Miss Catherine Goggin, teacher in city schools, Chicago, Ill.
R. H. Halsey, principal of State Normal School, Oshkosh, Wis.
William McAndrew, principal of Girls' Technical High School, New York, N. Y.
Miss Anna Tolman Smith, U. S. Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

This committee was appointed by the National Council on recommendation of the Committee on Investigations and Appropriations, at its meeting July 6, 1903 (see Minutes of the Council, Boston volume of *Proceedings*, pp. 307, 308).

The Board of Directors at its meeting July 9, 1903, appropriated $1,500 for the use of the committee (see Minutes of the Board of Directors, Boston volume of *Proceedings*, pp. 36, 37).

A preliminary report of this committee was submitted to the Board of Directors, June 27, 1904, by the chairman, Carroll D. Wright, and referred to the National Council with recommendation that it be printed in the annual volume of *Proceedings* (see Minutes of Board of Directors, June 27, 1904, p. 33, St. Louis volume of *Proceedings*).

This report will be found among the papers of the Council published in the St. Louis volume of *Proceedings*, pp. 370–377. The committee had expended but $390.71 of the appropriation for its expenses. The balance, $1,109.29, was reappropriated, together with an additional $1,500 making a total of $2,609.29 available for the expenses of the committee for the year 1904–5 and for the preparation of its report to be made to the Council at the annual convention in 1905 (see Minutes of the Board of Directors, June 30, 1904, St. Louis volume of *Proceedings*, p. 39.)

This committee thru its chairman Carroll D. Wright, made its final report in printed form to the National Council at its meeting in Asbury Park and Ocean Grove N. J., July, 1905. This report constituted a pamphlet of 458 pages, with 274 pages of important statistical tables showing the salaries of teachers of various grades in all classes of schools in the United States.

This report has been widely distributed and is in active demand from all sections of the United States.

COMMITTEE ON TAXATION AS RELATED TO PUBLIC EDUCATION

James M. Greenwood, superintendent of schools, Kansas City, Mo., *chairman.*
Aaron Gove, ex-superintendent of schools, Denver, Colo.
W. T. Harris, Commissioner of Education of the United States, Washington, D. C.
J. W. Carr, superintendent of schools, Anderson, Ind.
Newton C. Dougherty, superintendent of schools, Peoria, Ill.
Nathan C. Schaeffer, state superintendent of public instruction, Harrisburg, Pa.
William H. Maxwell, superintendent of schools, New York, N. Y.
Carroll G. Pearse, superintendent of schools, Milwaukee, Wis.
Charles D. McIver, president of the Normal and Industrial College, Greensboro, N. C.
Frank A. Fitzpatrick, 93 Summer St., Boston, Mass.

This committee was appointed at the Minneapolis meeting in 1902 (see Minutes, Minneapolis volume of *Proceedings*, pp. 34, 311–13). The committee was under instructions to make a printed report to the National Council not later than 1904, unless otherwise directed, and the sum of $1,000, or so much thereof as might be necessary, was appropriated for the expenses of the committee.

The committee expended $390.75 of the $1,000 appropriated for its expenses, leaving an unexpended balance of $709.25 which was reappropriated for the same purpose by the Board of Directors at its meeting held June 30, 1904 (see Minutes of Board of Directors, pp. 39, 40, St. Louis volume of *Proceedings*).

The report of this committee, ordered for 1904, was not made at the St. Louis meeting, but the committee was continued with the expectation that its report would be presented to the Council at the annual convention in 1905.

The committee made its final report to the National Council at its meeting in Asbury Park and Ocean Grove N. J., July, 1905. The report is published in pamphlet form and consists of 86 pages with numerous valuable tables.

COMMITTEE ON INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION IN RURAL SCHOOLS

L. D. Harvey, superintendent of schools, Menomonie, Wis., *chairman.*
L. H. Bailey, director of College of Agriculture, Cornell University, Ithaca N. Y.

ALFRED BAYLISS, state superintendent of public instruction, Springfield, Ill.
W. T. CARRINGTON, state superintendent of public instruction, Jefferson City, Mo.
WILLETT M. HAYS, agriculturist at Experiment Station, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.

This committee was appointed by the National Council, on recommendation of the Committee on Investigation and Appropriations, at its meeting July 6, 1903, (see Minutes of the Council, Boston volume of *Proceedings*, pp. 307, 308, 309).

The Board of Directors at its meeting July 9, 1903, appropriated $500, or so much thereof as might be necessary, for the use of the committee (see Minutes of the Board of Directors, Boston volume of *Proceedings*, pp. 36, 37).

At the meeting of the Council at the St. Louis meeting, L. D. Harvey, chairman, made an oral report of progress and was asked to make a complete report to the Council at its annual meeting in 1904. The committee had expended but $187.95 of its appropriation of $500, leaving an unexpended balance of $312.05 which was reappropriated, and an additional appropriation of $500 was made, making a total of $812.05 available for the expenses of the committee for the year 1904–5 and for the preparation of its report (see minutes of the Board of Directors, St. Louis volume of *Proceedings*, p. 39.)

This committee thru its chairman, L. D. Harvey, presented to the National Council of Education a printed report of 97 pages. This report was accepted as a report of progress, at the meeting of the National Council in Asbury Park and Ocean Grove, N. J., July, 1905, and the committee was continued for the purpose of pursuing investigations still further in accordance with the plans outlined by the chairman, L. D. Harvey, and set forth in a communication to the Board of Directors (see p. 54 of the *Yearbook* for 1905). An appropriation of $300 for the expenses of this committee for the current year was recommended by the Committee on Investigations and Appropriations of the Council and authorized by the Board of Directors at its meeting July 6, 1905.

COMMITTEE ON THE NATIONAL BUREAU OF EDUCATION

*†WILLIAM R. HARPER, president of the University of Chicago, *chairman*.
NEWTON C. DOUGHERTY, superintendent of schools, Peoria, Ill.
‡ANDREW S. DRAPER, commissioner of education of the state of New York, Albany, N. Y.
AARON GOVE, ex-superintendent of schools, Denver, Colo.
G. R. GLENN, ex-state school commissioner of Georgia, Atlanta, Ga.
E. ORAM LYTE, principal of the State Normal School, Millersville, Pa.
§LORENZO D. HARVEY, superintendent of schools, Menomonie, Wis.

This committee was first appointed by the Department of Superintendence at its annual meeting in Chicago in 1900, "to aid the Bureau of Education, in whatever way they find it practicable, to accomplish its work" (see Minutes of Department of Superintendence, Charleston volume of *Proceedings*, p. 185).

At a meeting of the National Council July 6, 1903, the Committee on Investigations and Appropriations reported at length on the desirability of strengthening the Bureau of Education, and of enlarging its organization and facilities with the view of securing its erection into a separate administrative department, and its adequate equipment and financial support (see Minutes of Council, Boston volume of *Proceedings*, pp. 306, 309).

The committee already appointed by the Department of Superintendence, as above stated, was approved and continued by the Council; and an appropriation of $1,000, or so much thereof as might be necessary for the expenses of the committee, was authorized by the Board of Directors at its meeting July 9, 1900 (see Minutes of Board of Directors, Boston volume of *Proceedings*, pp. 36, 37, 38).

* Appointed July 1, 1904, to succeed Nicholas Murray Butler, resigned.
† Died January 10, 1906.
‡ Appointed chairman September, 1906.
§ Appointed July 1, 1904, to succeed W. T Harris, U. S. Commissioner of Education, resigned.

At the meeting of the National Council at St. Louis, Mo., July 1, 1904, the chairman, President Nicholas Murray Butler, made an oral report of progress on behalf of the committee and tendered his resignation. The resignation of Chairman Butler was accepted and President William R. Harper, of the University of Chicago, appointed to fill the vacancy

Dr. W. T. Harris, United States Commissioner of Education, also resigned as a member of the committee and Lorenzo D. Harvey, superintendent of schools, Menomonie, Wis., was appointed to fill the vacancy.

In the absence of any action by the Board of Directors at the St. Louis convention re-appropriating the $1,000 for the expenses of this committee (no part of which had been used), the same was covered into the treasury under the new rules governing appropriations.

COMMITTEE ON CONTEMPORARY EDUCATION DOCTRINE

PAUL H. HANUS, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass., *chairman.*
*FRANK A. HILL, secretary of state board of education, Boston, Mass.
LEWIS H. JONES, president of State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Mich.
CHARLES B. GILBERT, educational editor, New York, N. Y.
CHARLES H. KEYES, supervisor of schools, south district, Hartford, Conn.
GEORGE S. LOCKE, assistant professor of education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.
D. L. KIEHLE, ex-professor of pedagogy, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.
CALVIN N. KENDALL, superintendent of schools, Indianapolis, Ind.
JAMES H. VAN SICKLE, superintendent of schools, Baltimore, Md.
ELMER E. BROWN, professor of theory and practice of education, University of California, Berkeley, Cal.
W. T. HARRIS, Commissioner of Education of the United States, Washington, D. C.

This committee was originally appointed as a committee of nine by the Department of Superintendence at its meeting in Chicago in 1902 (see Minutes of Department of Superintendence, Minneapolis volume of *Proceedings*, pp. 156, 157). At the meeting of the Department of Superintendence in Cincinnati in 1903 it was increased to eleven members (see Minutes of Department of Superintendence, Boston volume of *Proceedings*, p. 140).

At the meeting of the National Council July 9, 1903, the Committee on Investigations and Appropriations recommended that this committee designate a subcommittee of three of their own number to report to the Council in 1904 (*a*) a detailed and specific statement of the field of proposed investigation, (*b*) a precise indication of the method or methods to be pursued, (*c*) a careful estimate of the cost of the proposed investigation and the time it will probably consume; and also recommended that an appropriation of $750 be asked for the expenses of the subcommittee and to meet the expense of the work already done by the full committee (see Minutes of the National Council, Boston volume of *Proceedings*, pp. 309).

The Board of Directors at its meeting July 9, 1903, authorized the appropriation of $750 for the use of said committee (see Minutes of Board of Directors, Boston volume of *Proceedings*, pp. 37, 38).

No meeting of this Committee was held during the year 1904–5 or in the year 1905–6.

COMMITTEE ON UNIVERSAL SYSTEM OF KEY NOTATION

E. O. VAILE, editor of *Intelligence*, Oak Park, Ill., *chairman.*
F. LOUIS SOLDAN, superintendent of instruction, public schools, St. Louis, Mo.
THOMAS M. BALLIET, dean of School of Pedagogy, New York University, New York City.
*WILLIAM R. HARPER, president of the University of Chicago.
AARON GOVE, ex-superintendent of schools, Denver, Colo.
†MELVIL DEWEY, Lake Placid Club, Essex Co., N. Y.

This committee was appointed by the Department of Superintendence at its meeting in Cincinnati, O., in 1903 (see Minutes of Department of Superintendence, Boston volume of *Proceedings*, p. 140). A report was made to the same department at its meeting at Atlanta, Ga., in 1904 (see minutes of Department of Superintendence, St. Louis volume of *Proceedings*, p. 175).

*Deceased.

†Appointed, May 10, to succeed William R. Harper.

The Board of Directors, at its meeting June 30, 1904, granted an appropriation of $200 as a contribution toward the expenses of this committee in conference with committees of the Modern Language Association and of the American Philological Association in regard to a universal system of key notation for indicating pronunciation and to recommend a Phonetic Alphabet (see Minutes of the Board of Directors, St. Louis volume of Proceedings, p. 39).

This committee presented thru E. O. Vaile, chairman, a report of the Committee on Conference of the American Philological Association, the Modern Language Association, and the National Educational Association at the Milwaukee Meeting of the Department of Superintendence, March, 1, 1905 (see p. 158 of the volume of *Proceedings* for 1905). The report has not yet been printed by the National Educational Association.

COMMITTEE ON INSTRUCTION IN NORMAL SCHOOLS IN LIBRARY ADMINISTRATION

James H. Canfield, Librarian, Columbia University, New York City, *chairman.*
Melvil Dewey, state director of Libraries, Albany, Lake Placid Club, N. Y.
Mary E. Ahern, editor of *Public Libraries*, Chicago, Ill.
Electra C. Doran, Head Instructor in the Library School, Cleveland, Ohio.
Martin Hensall, librarian of Public School Library, Columbus, Ohio.

At the meeting of the Board of Directors at Asbury Park and Ocean Grove, July 6, 1905, James H. Canfield, chairman, reported that the above named committee was a committee of co-operation between public schools and public libraries, representing the American Library Association and the National Educational Association, and that the committee was preparing a report on the subject of instruction in Normal Schools in Library Administration. The Committee on Investigations and Appropriations of the National Council recommended that an appropriation of $300.00 be made for the expense of this committee in preparing the report. This recommendation was adopted by the Board of Directors provided the report should be formulated and prepared for publication during the current year.

This report was prepared by Miss Elizabeth G. Baldwin, librarian of the Teachers College of Columbia University and was published in a special pamphlet of seventy pages and widely distributed to the school libraries, public libraries, and school authorities throughout the country. It was also printed in the anniversary volume for 1906.

Respectfully submitted

Irwin Shepard, *Secretary.*

NECROLOGY

From January 1906 to May 1907

Reports of the death of the following named life and active members have been received during the past year; the date of decease follows each name.

JOHN JACOB ANDERSON (March 14, 1906) . . . . . Brooklyn, N. Y.
WILLIAM N. BARRINGER (February 4, 1907) . . . . . Newark, N. J.
Miss DOROTHEA BEALE (November 7, 1906) . . . . . Cheltenham, England
WILLIAM ALLEN BELL (December 10, 1906) . . . . . Indianapolis, Ind.
HENRY L. BOLTWOOD (January 23, 1906) . . . . . Evanston, Ill.
ELLIS W. BROWN (July 4, 1905) . . . . . Washington, D. C.
MARY A. CAHALAN (April 9, 1906) . . . . . Birmingham, Ala.
B. H. CALDWELL (August 3, 1906) . . . . . Nashville, Tenn.
AUGUSTUS J. CHENEY (February 27, 1907) . . . . . Oak Park, Ill.
OLIVER D. CLARK (July 28, 1906) . . . . . Tompkinsville, L. I., N. Y.
RUTH COHEN (March 9, 1906) . . . . . Quincy, Ill.
GEORGE H. CONLEY (December 21, 1905) . . . . . Boston, Mass.
ARTHUR COOPER (November 14, 1906) . . . . . New York, N. Y.
BELA TORMAY DE NADUDVAR, (December 29, 1906) . . . . Budapest, Hungary.
JOHN EATON (February 9, 1906) . . . . . Washington, D. C.
FRANCES A. ELMER (January 5, 1906) . . . . . Winona, Minn.
W. B. FERGUSON ( ) . . . . . Middletown, Conn.
A. H. FLETCHER (June 16, 1906) . . . . . River Falls, Wis.
ANNA FOOS (March 26, 1906) . . . . . Omaha, Nebr.
JOSEPH K. GOTWALS (October, 1905) . . . . . Norristown, Pa.
HIRAM D. GROVES (November 16, 1905) . . . . . Fayette, Mo.
NELSON HAAS (December, 1905) . . . . . Hackensack, N. J.
WILLIAM R. HARPER (January 10, 1906) . . . . . Chicago, Ill.
WALTER B. HILL (December 28, 1905) . . . . . Athens, Ga.
W. A. HODGDON (June 14, 1906) . . . . . St. Louis, Mo.
FRANCIS E. HOWARD (January 1, 1906) . . . . . Bridgeport, Conn.
Mrs. MARY H. HUNT (April 24, 1906) . . . . . Boston, Mass.
CHARLES EDWARD HUTTON (October 4, 1906) . . . . . Los Angeles, Cal.
WILBUR S. JACKMAN (January 28, 1907) . . . . . Chicago, Ill.
CLARA E. JENNISON (October 29, 1905) . . . . . Minneapolis, Minn.
ALBERT G. LANE (August 26, 1906) . . . . . Chicago, Ill.
JOHN S. LOCKE (December 5, 1906) . . . . . Saco, Mo.
ALBERT PRESCOTT MARBLE (March 25, 1906) . . . . . New York, N. Y.
KATE L. McCOY (August 2, 1906) . . . . . New Brunswick, N. J.
FRANK McINTYRE (July 24, 1906) . . . . . Glenwood, Minn.
CHARLES D. McIVER (September 17, 1906) . . . . . Greensboro, N. C.
D. A. McMILLAN (March 4, 1906) . . . . . Mexico, Mo.
PAUL P. PELTIER (November 17, 1905) . . . . . St. Louis, Mo.
HARRIET M. SCOTT (February, 1906) . . . . . Pasadena, Cal.
HENRY D. SHIDELER (February 15, 1906) . . . . . Huntington, Ind.
IRVING B. SMITH (May 12, 1906) . . . . . Warsaw, N. Y.
JAMES H. STINE (October 10, 1906) . . . . . Washington, D. C.
THOMAS B. STOCKWELL (February 9, 1906) . . . . . Providence, R. I.
JAMES B. UPHAM (November 25, 1905) . . . . . Malden, Mass.
ALBERT J. VOLLAND (December 29, 1906) . . . . . Grand Rapids, Mich.
ANDREW J. WHITESIDE (October, 1906) . . . . . New York, N. Y.
PHILO JESSE WILLIAMS (March 21, 1907) . . . . . Everett, Mass.
FREDERICK C. WOODRUFF (May 16, 1906) . . . . . St. Louis, Mo.
CHARLES F. A. ZIMMERMAN (June 20, 1906) . . . . . Milwaukee, Wis.

LIST OF LIFE, ACTIVE, AND CORRESPONDING MEMBERS

ARRANGED BY STATES, CLASSES, AND YEARS OF CONTINUOUS MEMBERSHIP

REVISED TO APRIL 1, 1907

The marginal figures indicate the *year of enrollment* as active members by those whose names immediately follow. The indented figures indicate *year of appointment* to present educational position. The value of this list as an educational directory depends upon its accuracy and completeness; all members are invited to contribute to this end by furnishing corrections of errors, however slight, and by supplying omitted data.

The institutions enrolled as members will be found grouped at the end of the list for each state; the arrangement is alphabetical by years in the order of enrollment.

CORRESPONDING MEMBERS

ENGLAND

1898 MICHAEL ERNEST SADLER, A.M., Trinity Coll. and Christ Church, Oxford; LL.D. (honorary), '02, Columbia Univ.; A.M., '05, Univ. of Manchester.

Secretary of the Oxford University Extension Delegacy, 1885–95; Student and Steward of Christ Church, Oxford, 1890–95; Member of the Royal Commission on Secondary Education, 1893–95; Director of Special Inquiries and Reports in the Education Department, 1895–1903; Professor of History and Administration of Education, Victoria University of Manchester, since 1903; Officier de l'Instruction Publique, 1904. *Address:* Eastwood, Weybridge.

E. LYULPH STANLEY, A.B., '62, A.M., '63, Oxford (Lord Stanley of Alderly).

Member of the Royal Commission on Education, 1886–87; Member of the London Schoo Board since 1876, formerly Vice-Chairman of that body, 1897; Author of various articles on Educational Subjects. *Address:* 18 Mansfield St., Portland Place, London. W.

1901 CLOUDESLEY S. HENRY BRERETON, A.B., '96, A.M., '90, St. John's Coll., Cambridge; B. ès L., L. ès L., Univ. of Paris; Officier d'Académie.

Divisional Inspector to the London County Council for Modern Languages; Vice-President of the International Jury for Primary Education at the Paris Exposition, 1900; Appointed to inquire into the Teaching of Modern Languages in Ireland, 1901; Writer on Education in "Fortnightly Review," "The Times," "Saturday Review," etc.; Author of various Reports; Addressed the National Educational Association of the United States at Detroit, Mich., 1901, on "The Educational Crisis in England." *Address:* 7 Cannon Place, Hampstead, London, N. W.

FABIAN WARE, B. ès. Sc., '94, Universities of London and Paris.

Ten Years Assistant Master in Secondary Schools (Bradford, 1895–99); occasional Examiner to the Civil Service Commission; occasional Inspector of Secondary Schools to the Board of Education, and contributor to "The Morning Post," 1899–1901; Representative of the Education Committee of the British Royal Commission at the Paris Exposition, 1900; Assistant Director of Education, Transvaal, 1901; Acting Director of Education, Transvaal, January to June, 1903; Member of the Transvaal Legislative Council, 1903–5; Director of Education, Transvaal, 1903–5. *Address:* 64 Victoria St., S. W., London.

SCOTLAND

1898 SIMON SOMERVILLE LAURIE, A.M., LL.D., Univ. of Edinburgh, F.R.S.E.; Hon. Fellow of the Educational Institute of Scotland, and of the Comenius Society, Germany.

Professor of the Institutes and History of Education, Edinburgh University, since 1876; Visitor and Examiner to Dick Bequest (educational) Trust since 1856; Secretary to the Endowed Schools (Scotland) Commission, 1872; Secretary to Association for Promoting Secondary Education in Scotland, founded 1876; at one time President of Teachers' Guild of Great Britain and Ireland; Member of Edinburgh University Court; Author of various Philosophical and Educational Books and Articles. *Address:* 22 George Sq., Edinburgh.

FRANCE

1898 FERDINAND BUISSON.
Professor of Education at the Sorbonne. *Address:* 30 rue Bobillot, Paris.

J. J. GABRIEL COMPAYRÉ, Ph.D., 1873.
Professor of Philosophy, Lycées de Pau, 1865—de Poitiers, 1868—de Toulouse, 1871; Professor of Philosophy, Faculty of Letters of Toulouse, 1874; Professor of History of Education, Normal School of Fontenay aux Roses, 1880—Normal School of St. Cloud, 1881; Member of Chambre des Députés, 1881–89; Rector of the Academy of Poitiers, 1890–95; Rector of the Academy and University of Lyons, 1895; Corresponding Member of the Institut de France, 1901; Rector at the University of Lyons. Inspector général de l'Université de France. *Address:* Avenue de Breteuil, 80, Lyons, France.

PIERRE EMILE LEVASSEUR, Doctor (ad Honoris), Univ. of Columbia and Univ. of Budapest; Litt.D., '56.
Professor of Letters and Rhetoric, and of History, at several Lyceums, 1868; Professor at the College of France since 1868; Professor at the Institute of Arts and Trades, 1871–96, and at the School of Political Science; President of the Association for the Secondary Instruction of Young Girls at the Sorbonne since 1881; President of the Statistical Commission of Primary Instructors since 1876; Corresponding Member of the Academies of Prussia, Sweden, Hungary, and of the American Academy of Political and Social Science. *Address:* 26, rue Monsieur-le-Prince, Paris.

1901 CHARLES BAYET.
Professor of History and Archæology of the Middle Ages at the University of Lyons, 1876; Rector of Academy of Lille, 1891; Director of Primary Education to the Minister of Public Instruction, 1896; Member of the Higher Council of Public Instruction, 1900; Author of various works on Archæology and History of the Middle Ages; of a volume on Byzantine Art; of various articles on Teaching. *Address:* 27, rue Gay-Lussac, Paris.

LÉON BOURGEOIS.
Formerly Minister of Public Instruction; Member of the Chamber of Deputies. *Address:* rue Palatine Paris.

ELIE RABIER.
Fellow in Philosophy, 1866–69; Professor of Philosophy in the Lyceum of Montauban, 1869–72; of Tours, 1872; of Charlemagne at Paris, 1873–81; Professor of the Department of Philosophy at the Superior Normal School, 1881; Director of Secondary Education in the Ministry of Public Instruction, 1889; Author of various Philosophical Treatises. *Address:* 27, rue de Fleurus, Paris.

CAMILLE SÉE.
Counselor of State; Author of the Law of December 21, 1880, which created the Secondary Instruction of Young Women; Author of the Law of June 29, 1881, which created the Normal School; Member of the Committees and Jury at the Universal Expositions of 1878, 1889, and 1900. *Address:* 65, avenue des Champs-Élysées, Paris.

GERMANY

1898 FRIEDRICH PAULSEN, Ph.D., '71, Berlin.
Professor of Philosophy and Pedagogics, University of Berlin, since 1877. *Address:* Steglitz Fichtestrasse 31, Berlin.

ITALY

1898 LUIGI BODIO, LL.D.
Counselor of State; formerly Commissioner General of Emigration; President of the Superior Council of Statistics; Member of various Statistical Societies in France, England, Germany, and America; Senator of the Kingdom of Italy; General Secretary of the International Institute of Statistics. *Address:* 153 Via Torino, Rome.

RUSSIA

1901 EUGRAPH P. KOVALEVSKY.
Graduate of the University of Moscow; Secretary of the Imperial Senate since 1890; Officer of the Special Missions at the Ministry of Public Instruction, 1893; Delegate to the World's Columbian Exposition, at Chicago, 1893; Director of the Pedagogical Section of the National Exhibition at Nijni Novgorod, 1896; same at Stockholm, 1897; Director of the Pedagogical Commission at the Paris Exposition and member of the International Jury of Awards, 1900; President of the Permanent Commission of the Popular Conferences and Lectures, 1903; Author of various papers on Educational Subjects. *Address:* Catherine Canal 14, St. Petersburg.

ARGENTINE REPUBLIC

1901 JOSEPH BENJAMIN ZUBIAUR, LL.D., '84, Univ. of Buenos Ayres.
Professor and Assistant Supervisor of Normal Schools and National Colleges, 1881–84; Inspector of the Normal Schools and National Colleges, 1885–91; Delegate sent by the Minister of Public Instruction to the World's Exposition at Paris in 1889; Principal of the National College of Concepcion del Uruguay, 1892–98; Director of the Section of Education, 1899; Member of the National Board of Education, 1899; Delegate to the Pan-American Exposition from the Province of Entre Rios and General Board of Education of the Province of Corrientes, also Commissioner to Study the Elementary Schools and Adult Evening Schools of the United States, 1901. *Address:* care of National Board of Education, Buenos Ayres, Argentine Republic.

REPUBLIC OF CHILE

1901 Carlos Silva Cruz, Graduate, Univ. of Chile, 1899.
Professor of Spanish and Composition at the "Liceo Miguel Luis Amunátegui, "Santiago, 1895; and at the "Institute Nacional de Chile." 1898; Chief of Section of Secondary, Superior, and Special Instruction of the Ministry of Public Instruction of Chile, 1899; Commissioner in charge of the Educational and Library Department of the Chile exhibit at the Pan-American Exposition of Buffalo, N. Y., and to study the organization of Educational Service of the United States, 1901. *Address:* 351 Breton St., Santiago Chile.

Giullermo Freudenburg Cristi, Ph.B., '97, B.L., '00, Univ. of Santiago, Chile.
Director and Chief of the School Department, Patronato Santa Filomena, 1896; Commissioner Assistant of Chile to the Pan-American Exposition (educational department); Special Commissioner to Study the Educational Systems in the United States and Europe, 1901. *Address:* Casilla 841, Santiago, Chile.

REPUBLIC OF GUATEMALA

1901 Dr. Joaquin Yela.
Physician and Surgeon of the Faculties of Guatemala and San Francisco, Cal.; Founder and ex-Dean of the Guatemalan College of Pharmacy and Medicine; Guatemalan Commissioner to the Paris (1878) and Buffalo Expositions; Delegate to the Second and Third Pan-American Medical Congresses; Member of the Caballeros Hospitalarios Españoles of Madrid, Spain; Member of the Académie Nationale of Paris, France; Consul General of Guatemala. *Address:* Guatemala City, Guatemala, C. A.; *consular address:* 2 and 4 Stone St., New York, N. Y.

REPUBLIC OF COSTA RICA

1901 Don Joaquin Bernardo Calvo.
Minister of Costa Rica, 1329, 18th St., N. W., Washington, D. C.

LIFE DIRECTORS, LIFE AND ACTIVE MEMBERS

ALABAMA

ACTIVE MEMBERS

1881 John Massey, A.B., '62, A.M., '75, LL.D., '79, Univ. of Ala.
1876, President of Alabama Conference Female College, Tuskegee.

1882 Julia Shudwick Tutwiler.
1886, Principal of Alabama Normal College, Livingston.

1888 John Herbert Phillips, A.M., LL.D., '05, Marietta Coll.; Ph.D., Southern Univ.; LL.D., '06, Univ. of Ala.
1883, Superintendent of Schools, 2720, 12th Ave., N., Birmingham.

1895 J. B. Cunningham.
1898, Principal of High School, 1028 S. 21st St., Birmingham.

Robert Alexander Mickle, A.B., '86, Davidson Coll.
Supervisor of Jefferson Street Primary and Grammar School, 1007 Texas St., Mobile.

James Knox Powers, A.M., '73, LL.D., '97, Univ. of Ala.
1901, Representative of the B. F. Johnson Publishing Co., 619 Wesleyan Ave., Florence.

1898 Robert Venable Allgood, B.Sc., '90, Southern Univ.; A.M., '93, Univ. of Nashville.
1894, Superintendent of Public Schools, 4312, 2d Ave., S., Avondale, Birmingham.

Charles A. Brown, C.E., Ala. Poly. Inst.
1897, Principal of Henley School, 1126, 13th St., S., Birmingham.

Joseph D. Matlock.
Representative of American Book Co., 2227 7th Ave., Box 462, Birmingham.

1899 Daniel Pinkney Christenberry, Pd.B., '87, A.M., '88, Southern Univ.
1892, Professor of English Southern University, Greensboro.

1900 John William Abercrombie. A.B., '86, Oxford Coll.; LL.B., '88, LL.D., '04, Univ. of Ala.; LL.D., '05, Univ. of S. C.
1902, President of University of Alabama, University P. O.

Lucien P. Giddens, A.B., Southern Univ.
Greensboro.

Charles B. Glenn, M.Sc., '92, Ala. Poly. Inst.; A.B., '96, Harvard Univ.
1899, Principal of Paul Hayne School, 1215 S. 12th St., Birmingham.

Willard J. Wheeler.
1896, President of Wheeler Business College, 1909½–1917½, 1st Ave., Birmingham.

Marshall Clark Wilson, C.E., '76, Univ. of Va.
1897, President of State Normal College, 648 Poplar St., Florence.

1901 Joseph M. Dill, A.M., Howard Coll.
1901, Superintendent of Schools, 124 S. 22d St., Bessemer.

Isaac William Hill, A.B., '80, A.M., '83, Emory Coll.; LL.D., '06, Univ. of Ala.
Ex-State Superintendent of Education, 427 S. Perry St., Montgomery.

James Alexander Moore, B.P., Southern Univ.
1906, Acting President of Alabama Girls' Industrial School, Montevallo.

Hepson Owen Murfee, B.Sc., '02. Marion Mil. Inst.; A.B., A.M., '07, Univ. of Va.
1906, Superintendent of Marion Military Institute, Marion.

ALABAMA—*Continued*

1901 FRANCIS M. PETERSON, A.M., D.D., '00, Southern Univ., LL. D.
1899, President of Alabama Girls' Industrial School, Montevallo.

MRS. J. H. PHILLIPS.
2720, 12th Ave., N., Birmingham.

1902 GEORGE WILLIAM BROCK, A.B., '00, Univ. of Ala.
1902, Superintendent of City Schools, Opelika.

S. R. BUTLER.
1893, Superintendent of Public Schools Huntsville.

CHARLES LEWIS FLOYD, A.B., Univ. of Ga.
1889, Superintendent of City Schools, 205 High St., Montgomery.

HARRY C. GUNNELS, A.B., '86. A.M., Oxford Coll.; LL.B., '91, Univ. of Ala.
1906, State Superintendent of Education, Capitol, Montgomery.

WALTER EVANS STRIPLIN, A.B., '91, Oxford Coll.
1903, Superintendent of Public Schools, Gadsden.

1903 JANE E. CLARK, A.B., '01, Oberlin Coll.
1902, Dean of the Woman's Department, Tuskegee Institute, Tuskegee.

RICHARD A. CLAYTON.
Business Manager of "Educational Exchange," Birmingham.

STONEWALL JACKSON COLE.
1891, Agent for Ginn & Co., 2214, 12th Ave., N., Birmingham.

WILLIAM J. EDWARDS.
Principal of Snow Hill Normal and Industrial Institute, Snow Hill.

JAMES H. FOSTER, A.B., '84, Howard Coll.; LL.B., '91, State Univ. of Ala.
1893, Superintendent of Schools, 907, 10th St., Tuscaloosa.

JOHN Y. GRAHAM, B.Sc., '92, M.Sc., '94, Princeton Univ.; Ph.D., Munich.
1897, Professor of Biology, University of Alabama, University P. O

WILLIAM CORNELIUS GRIGGS, A.B., '98.
1904, Secretary of the Alabama Educational Association, Brewton.

ROBERT O. MEEK, A.B., '92, A.M., '93, Southern Univ.
1904, Superintendent of Public Schools, Attalla.

SAMUEL S. MURPHY, A.B., '90, A.M., '92, Univ. of Ala.
1900, Superintendent of Schools, Conti St., bet. Laurence and Cedar Sts., Mobile.

T. W. PALMER, A.M., LL.D., '06, Univ. of Ala.
1883, Professor of Mathematics and Dean of Faculty, University of Alabama, University P. O.

THOMAS RICHARD WALKER, B.Sc.
1906, Superintendent of City Schools, 2308 Ave. F, Ensley.

HENRY JONES WILLINGHAM, A.B., A.M., '93, Howard Coll.
Secretary of State Board of Examiners, Department of Education, Montgomery.

1904 EDWARD FRANKLIN BUCHNER, A.B., '89, Western Coll.; Ph.D., '93, Yale Univ.
1903, Professor of Philosophy and Education, University of Alabama, University P. O.

HENRY J. FUSCH.
1904, President of Eighth District Agricultural School, Athens.

1905 FLAVIUS T. APPLEBY, B.Sc., '01, Univ. of Tenn.
1906, Superintendent of City Schools, Tuscumbia.

CHARLES PRESCOTT ATKINSON, B.Sc., '88, A.M., '90, Southern Univ.
1904, Professor of Moral Philosophy and History, Southern University, Greensboro.

GEORGE WEBSTER DUNCAN, M.Sc., Ala. Poly. Inst.
General Agent of University Publishing Co., Auburn.

WILLIAM FRANCIS FEAGIN, B.Sc., M.Sc., Ala. Poly. Inst.
Secretary and Member of State Board of Examiners of Alabama Department of Education, Montgomery.

FRANK TAYLOR LONG, A.B., '04, Mercer Univ.
1905, Assistant Principal of Public School, Union Springs.

ISAAC W. MCADORY.
1904, County Superintendent of Education, 2512, 7th Ave., Birmingham.

LEONARD L. VANN, A.M., '91, Howard Coll.
1907, President of Fifth District Agricultural School, Wetumpka.

WILLIAM COKE WATSON.
1904, Teacher of English and History, Leighton Avenue Public School, Box 712, Anniston.

1906 JAMES V. BROWN, B.Sc., '94, M.Sc., '95, Ala. Poly. Inst.
Superintendent of City Schools, N. Foster St., Dothan.

D. S. BURLESON, A.B., '91, A.M., '98, Milligan Coll.; A.M. Latin and Greek, '98, Univ. of Va.
1898, Professor of Latin and English, State Normal College; res., 615 Wesleyan Ave., Florence.

JOEL CAMPBELL DU BOSE, A.B., '78, A.M., '82, Univ. of Ala.
1906, Associate Professor of Secondary Education, University of Alabama, University P. O., express office, Tuskaloosa.

JOSEPH MILO FRICKS.
1906, Principal of High School, Box 73, Epes.

J. R. E. LEE.
Director of Academic Department, Tuskegee Institute, Tuskegee Institute P. O.

PERRY M. MCNEIL, A.B., '93, A.M., '01, Univ. of Nashville.
Superintendent of Schools, Pratt City.

ALABAMA—*Continued*

INSTITUTIONS

1897 ALABAMA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE.
President, Charles Coleman Thach; Librarian, J. R. Rutland, Auburn.

1899 STATE NORMAL SCHOOL AT JACKSONVILLE.
President, William Clarence Daugette, Jacksonville.

1901 STATE NORMAL COLLEGE.
Principal, E. M. Shackelford, Troy.

1903 ALABAMA GIRLS' INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL.
President, Francis M. Peterson; Secretary, J. Alex. Moore, Montevallo.

1906 "EDUCATIONAL EXCHANGE."
Business Manager, R. A. Clayton, 501–2 Title Guarantee Building, Birmingham.

SOUTHERN UNIVERSITY, LIBRARY.
President, H. M. Hosmer; Librarian, D. P. Christenberry, Greensboro.

ARIZONA

ACTIVE MEMBERS

1890 FERRIS S. FITCH, A.B., '77, Univ. of Mich.
Weldon.

1895 CHARLES F. PHILBROOK.
1904, Superintendent of City Schools, Bisbee.

1899 WILLIAM J. ANDERSON, B.Sc., '97, National Univ., Chicago.
1899, Art Department, Territorial Normal School, Tempe; res., 246 S. 12th Ave., Phœnix.

A. J. MATTHEWS.
1900, President of Tempe Normal School of Arizona, Tempe.

1902 GEORGE E. KRINBILL.
Supervisor of Music, Bisbee and Douglas; address, Box 1533, Bisbee.

1904 J. B. JOLLY.
1900, County Superintendent of Schools, Prescott.

FRANCIS ERNEST LLOYD, A.B., '91, A.M., '95, Princeton Univ.
1906, Member of Staff, Desert Botanical Laboratory, Carnegie Institution of Washington; address, Tucson.

ARNOLDAS H. MCCLURE, A.M., Ph.D.
1905, Superintendent of City Schools, Yuma.

1905 AMANDA HALLBERG RUNQUEST.
Missionary, Presbyterian Home Board, Indian School, Tucson.

1906 CHARLES W. GOODMAN.
Superintendent of U. S. Indian Industrial School, Phoenix.

OLAF HALVORSON, A.B., '02, Univ. of Minn.
1904, Principal of High School, Clifton.

WILLIAM MORRISON RUTHRAUFF, A.B., '02, A.M., '05, Wittenberg Coll.
1906, Superintendent of Public Schools, Tucson.

J. F. STILWELL, A.B., '99, A.M., '04, Newberry Coll.
Superintendent of Public Schools, Phoenix.

INSTITUTIONS

1901 NORTHERN ARIZONA NORMAL SCHOOL.
President, A. N. Taylor, Flagstaff.

TEMPE NORMAL SCHOOL OF ARIZONA.
President, A. J. Matthews, Tempe.

ARKANSAS

ACTIVE MEMBERS

1887 THOMAS A. FUTRALL, A.M., West Tenn. Coll.; LL.D., '00, Univ. of Ark.
1906, Superintendent of Arkansas School for the Blind, Little Rock.

1895 GEORGE B. COOK, A.M.
1890, Superintendent of City Schools, 200 Garden St., Hot Springs.

1896 JOHN H. HINEMON, A.M., '94, Arkadelphia Coll., and '02, Univ. of Nashville.
1906, President of Henderson College, Arkadelphia.

1897 JOHN HUGH REYNOLDS, A.B., '93, Hendrix Coll.; A.M., '97, Univ. of Chicago.
1902, Professor of History and Political Science, University of Arkansas, Fayetteville.

1901 J. H. CALDWELL.
1903, Principal of High School, Prairie Grove.

1902 B. W. TORREYSON.
Superintendent of City Schools, 8th and Louisiana Sts., Ft. Smith.

1903 JEFFERSON G. ISH.
1892, Principal of Capitol Hill High School, 1600 Scott St., Little Rock.

1904 WM. L. SKAGGS, A.B., '87, Carleton Coll.; M.Sc., '95, Ohio Univ.; Pd.B., '00, Univ. of Mo.
1901, Superintendent of Public Schools, Paragould.

1905 F. C. NOLEN, A.B., '99, Vanderbilt Univ.
Principal of Fort Steele School, Little Rock.

JAMES W. KUYKENDALL.
1905, Superintendent of City Schools, 109 N. 17th St., Fort Smith.

ARKANSAS—*Continued*

1905 F. W. Miller, A.B., '89, Hendrix Coll.
1905, Superintendent of Public Schools, 1611 Pecan St., Texarkana.

1906 William A. Crawford, A.B., '01, Univ. of Ark.
1901, Superintendent of Schools, Arkadelphia.

John J. Doyne.
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1901 PRINCIPALS' ROUND TABLE, WILMINGTON.
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WILMINGTON INSTITUTE FREE LIBRARY.
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1906 WILLIAM M. HOLLOWAY.
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1895, Principal of High School, 31 S. 15th St., Richmond.

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1903, Superintendent of City Schools, 221 E. North St., Greenfield.

ERNEST O. HOLLAND, A.B., '95, Ind. Univ.
1905, Associate Professor of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington.

INDIANA—*Continued*

1903 RICHARD OTTO JOHNSON.
1889, Superintendent of Indiana State School for the Deaf, cor. State and Washington Sts., Indianapolis.

CHARLES ALLEN PROSSER, A.B., DePauw Univ.; B.L., Univ. of Louisville.
1900, Superintendent of Schools, 1220 Elm St., New Albany.

ELLSWORTH ROBEY.
1904, Superintendent of County Schools, and Member of State Board of Education, Kokomo.

LEON LEWIS TYLER, LL.B., '00, Univ. of Mich.; A.B., '06, Earlham Coll.
1901, Principal of Fairmount Academy, Fairmount.

1904 HAROLD BARNES, A.B., '92, Kans. St. Univ.
1903, Superintendent of City Schools, Princeton.

ELMER B. BRYAN, A.B., '93, Ind. Univ.
1905, President of Franklin College, Franklin.

HARRY O. BUZZAIRD.
Superintendent of Monroe County Schools, 412 E. 4th St., Bloomington.

JOHN C. HALL, A.B., '00, Univ. of Ill.
1900, Superintendent of City School, 210 La Porte Ave., Whiting.

JACOB W. HOLTON, A.B., '02, Ind. Univ.
1906, Superintendent of Schools, Sullivan.

WILLIAM A. STECHER.
1904, Director of Physical Training, Public Schools, 1723 Broadway, Indianapolis.

SAMUEL WERTZ, A.M., Hartsville Coll.
1888, Principal of High School, 1202 Pearl St., Columbus.

1905 WILLIAM E. BAUGH, A.B., '02, Howard Univ.
1904, Teacher in City Schools, 1122 Fayette St., Indianapolis.

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1899, Professor of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington.

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Principal of High School, 113 Powell Ave., Evansville.

HOMER L. COOK.
1903, Superintendent of County Schools, 2301 W. Washington St., Indianapolis.

WINFIELD AUGUSTUS DENNY, A.B., A.M., Ind. Univ.
1905, Principal of High School, 135 W. 8th St., Anderson.

FREDERICK LOUIS FAGLEY, B.Sc., '05, Moore's Hill Coll.
Professor of History and Science of Education, and Head of Normal Department, Moore's Hill College, Moore's Hill.

LULA COBLEIGH GROVE.
1904, Supervising Principal of City Schools, 25 The Wyandot, Indianapolis.

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1895, Teacher of Mathematics, High School, 168 N. Jefferson St., Huntington.

C. MCHENRY MARBLE, Ph.B., '85, B.Pd., '00.
1904, Superintendent of Public Schools, 414 E. Chestnut St., Jeffersonville.

MARY S. MULLIGAN.
1901, Supervisor of Instruction, 304 W. 13th St., Anderson

ALVA OTIS NEAL, B.Sc., '92, M.Sc., '95, Franklin Coll.
1905, Superintendent of City Schools, 611 E. 2d St., Madison.

MRS. JAMES M. NOEL.
1895, Teacher in Public Schools, 313 E. St. Clair St., Indianapolis.

EITEL RUSKIN RAY, A.B., '01, A.M., '02, Ind. Univ.
Supervising Principal of Public Schools, 2419 Talbott Ave., Indianapolis.

WILLIAM H. SANDERS, A.B., '95, A.M., '96, Ind. Univ.
1905, Superintendent of City Schools, 323 S. Grant St., Bloomington.

JOSEPH HIRAM SCHOLL, Grad., '93, Ind. St. Nor. Sch.; A.B., '98, Ind. Univ.
1904, Superintendent of Schools, 635 N. Jackson St., Rushville.

1906 FRANCIS E. ANDREWS, A.B., '74, A.M., '84, Marietta Coll.; Grad. '94, Ind. St. Nor. Sch.
1904, Principal of High School; res., 421 Mechanic St., Jeffersonville.

MARY L. CLARK.
1896, Supervisor of Primary Instruction, Public Schools, 26 Matilda St., Huntington.

CHARLES CLIFFORD COLEMAN, Ph.B., '04, A.M., '05, DePauw Univ.
1906, Superintendent of City Schools, 622 S. 3d St., Clinton.

WILBER R. CURTIS, B.Sc., '95, Valparaiso Univ.
1905, Superintendent of Lake County Schools, Crown Point.

ELLIS BURKE GIBBS, A.B., Ind. Univ.
1905, Superintendent of Schools, North Manchester.

ROBERT F. HIGHT, A.B., '88, Ind. Univ.
Superintendent of Schools, Columbia Flats, Lafayette.

LOUIS W. KEELER, Ph.B., '00, Univ. of Mich.
Superintendent of Public Schools, 211 E. 6th St., Michigan City.

MARY A. KERR, A.B., '05, Ind. Univ.
1901, Principal of Central School; res., 416 E. 2d St., Bloomington.

W. P. MORGAN, A.B., '00, Ind. Univ.
1906, Superintendent of City Schools, 1633 S. 5th St., Terre Haute.

INDIANA—*Continued*

1906 J. Edward Newell, A.B., '97, A.M., '04, Otterbein Univ.
1905, Principal of High School, East Chicago.

J. F. Nuner.
Superintendent of City Schools, Mishawaka.

Carl B. Sputh.
1906, Physical Director, Butler College; res., German House, Indianapolis.

J. W. Stott, A.B., '03, Ind. Univ.
1905, Superintendent of Schools, Brookville.

INSTITUTIONS

1895 Wabash College.
President, William P. Kane; Librarian, H. S. Wedding, Crawfordsville.

1897 Indiana State Library.
State Librarian, Demarchus C. Brown, State House, Indianapolis.

Indiana State Normal School.
President, William W. Parsons, Terre Haute.

Valparaiso University.
President, H. B. Brown; Librarian, O. P. Kinsey Valparaiso.

1899 Indiana University, Library.
President, William Lowe Bryan: Librarian, W. E. Jenkins, Bloomington.

1900 Butler College, Library (Bona Thompson Memorial).
President, Scot Butler; Librarian, Margaret Carlisle, Indianapolis.

1904 Elkhart Carnegie Library.
Librarian, Ella F. Corwin, Elkhart.

High School, Anderson.
Superintendent, James B. Pearcy, 412 W. 12th St., Anderson.

1906 Emeline Fairbanks Memorial Library.
Librarian, Mrs. Sallie C. Hughes, Terre Haute.

INDIAN TERRITORY

LIFE MEMBERS

1884 George Beck, M.Sc., '63, Univ. of Mich.
1901, U. S. School Supervisor, Chickasaw Nation, Tishomingo.

1886 G. I. Harvey.
Wagoner.

ACTIVE MEMBERS

1900 Elihu B. Hinshaw, A.B., '86, A.M., '90, Hiwassee Coll.
1897, Superintendent of Bloomfield Seminary, and (1901) Chickasaw National Normal Director and President of Examining Board, Colbert.

1901 Edgar A. Allen, B.Sc., '87, Kans. Agri. Coll.
U. S. Indian Service, Wyandotte.

1902 John Downing Benedict.
1899, Superintendent of Schools for Indian Territory, Muskogee.

1903 A. Grant Evans.
1898, President of Henry Kendall College, Muskogee.

Charles Evans, B Sc., Lebanon.
Superintendent of City Schools, Ardmore.

1904 Mary F. Russell.
1906, Monitress in Public School, Sallisaw.

1906 Calvin Ballard.
1899, United States School Supervisor, Choctaw Nation in Indian Territory, South McAlester.

IOWA

LIFE MEMBERS

1884 William A. Willis, A.B., '62, A.M., '65, Beloit Coll.
Proprietor and Principal of Iowa City Academy, 308 Church St., Iowa City.

1889 Rt. Rev. John J. Keane, D.D., Laval; LL.D., Harvard Univ.
1900, Archbishop of Dubuque, Dubuque.

ACTIVE MEMBERS

1884 Hamline H. Freer, B.Sc., '69, M.Sc., '78, A.B., '80, A.M., '83, Cornell Coll.
1870, Professor of Economics and Sociology, Cornell College; res., 603, 6th St., Mt. Vernon.

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1863, President of Cornell College, Mt. Vernon.

1889 Henry Sabin, A.M., Amherst Coll.; LL.D., '93, Drake Univ.; '94, Cornell Coll.; '95, State Univ. of Iowa.
Ex-State Superintendent of Public Instruction, 210 Manhattan Block, Des Moines.

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1866, President of St. Nor. Sch., 2304 Normal St., Cedar Falls.

1890 Ozro Patterson Bostwick, A.B., '78, Lombard Coll.
1889, Superintendent of Schools, 313, 8th Ave., Clinton.

IOWA—*Continued*

1894 ASHLEY VAN STORM, Ph.B., '98, Ill. Wes. Univ.
1906, Superintendent of City Schools, 1033 Woodlawn St., Iowa City.

1895 JAMES JOHNSON BILLINGSLEY, B.Sc., '92, Valparaiso Coll.
Superintendent of Schools, Paullina.

E. D. Y. CULBERTSON, B.D., '89, St. Nor. Sch., Cedar Falls, Ia.
R. F. D. 5, Fairfield.

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1895, Superintendent of City Schools, 602 N. Maple St., Creston.

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1892, Director of Music, Public Schools, 729 Franklin St., Keokuk.

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1901, Superintendent of Public Schools, 1724 B Ave., Cedar Rapids.

J. J. NAGEL, Ph.B., '98, Ill. Wes. Univ.
1870, Principal of Grammar School No. 4, 906 W. Locust St., Davenport.

FRANKLIN T. OLDT, A.M., Lafayette Coll.
1895, Superintendent of City Schools, 1240 Locust St., Dubuque.

ETTA SUPLEE.
Supervisor of Primary Training, State Normal School, Cedar Falls.

1896 AMPLIAS HALE AVERY.
1902, Superintendent of City Schools, Spencer.

RICHARD C. BARRETT, A.M., '94, Cornell Coll.; LL.B., '04, Drake Univ.
1904, Professor of Civics, State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts; res., 912 Story St., Ames.

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HATTIE ADELIA PHILLIPS.
1894, Supervisor of Kindergartens, 1159, 26th St., Des Moines.

J. B. YOUNG, A.B., '61, A.M., '64, Middlebury Coll.
1878, Superintendent of Schools, 422 E. 14th St., Davenport.

1897 HORACE T. BUSHNELL.
1873, Principal of Grammar School No. 8, 330 South Ave., Davenport.

IRENE GARRETTE.
1897, Principal of Jefferson School, 708, 3d Ave., Cedar Rapids.

B. J. HORCHEM.
1898, Principal of Audubon School, 315 Bluff St., Dubuque.

F. E. LARK.
1896, Superintendent of Schools of Monona County Onawa.

GEORGE EDWIN MACLEAN, Ph.D., '83, Univ. of Leipzig; LL.D., '95, Williams Coll.
1899, President of the State University of Iowa, Iowa City.

V. L. WILSON.
General Agent for American Book Co., Ottumwa.

FINLEY M. WITTER, B.Sc., A.M. '76, Univ. of Iowa.
1901 Superintendent of Schools of Muscatine County, 4th and Cherry Sts., Muscatine.

1899 EDWIN DILLER STARBUCK, A.B., Ind. Univ.; A.M., Harvard Univ.; Ph.D., Clark Univ.
1906, Professor of Philosophy, State University of Iowa; res., 7 E. Bloomington St., Iowa City.

1900 FREDERICK E. BOLTON, B.Sc., '93, M.Sc., '96, Univ. of Wis.; Ph.D., '98, Clark Univ.
1900, Professor of Science and Art of Education, State University of Iowa, 1019 College St., Iowa City.

WILLIAM F. CRAMER, A.M. and M.Sc., Cornell Coll.
Superintendent of Public Schools, 601 Corning St., Red Oak.

I. C. HISE.
1898, Superintendent of Plymouth County Schools, Le Mars.

THOMAS B. HUTTON, B. Sc., '91, Iowa St. Coll.
1904, Superintendent of City Schools, 1312 Court St., Le Mars.

C. H. MAXSON, B.Sc., '91, B.D., '99, St. Univ. of Iowa.
1906, Superintendent of City Schools, Ackley.

CHARLES ELDRED SHELTON, A.M., '82, LL.D., '02, Iowa Wes. Univ.
1899, President of Simpson College, Indianola.

1901 HILL MCCLELLAND BELL, A.B., '90, A.M., '91, Drake Univ.; LL.D., '05, Simpson Coll.
1903, President of Drake University, 1091, 26th St., Des Moines.

FRANCIS M. FULTZ, Ph.B., '86, A.M., '89, St. Univ. of Iowa.
1899, Superintendent of City Schools, 1018 Jefferson St., Burlington.

J. M. HUSSEY, M.Sc., Chillicothe Nor. Sch.; Pd.B., Western Nor. Coll.
1893, President of the Western Normal College, Shenandoah, and of Southern Iowa Normal School, Bloomfield; res., Shenandoah.

KATHARINE IRWIN HUTCHISON, A.B., '81, A.M., '84, Monmouth Coll.
1905, Dean of Women and Professor of Pedagogy and History, Parsons College, Ballard Hall, Fairfield.

J. C. KING.
Superintendent of City Schools, 120 Story St., Boone.

O. J. MCMANUS, B.Didac., '94, M.Didac., '96.
1900, County Superintendent of Schools, and (1902) Member of State Board of Educational Examiners, 1110 E. Pierce St., Council Bluffs.

IOWA—*Continued*

1901 ADNAH CLIFTON NEWELL, B.Sc. in E.E., '02, Univ. of Mich.
1894, Supervisor of Manual Training, Public Schools, West Des Moines; res., 1011, 18th St., Des Moines.

ANNIE E. PACKER, M.Sc., '74, Whittier Coll.
1900, Superintendent of Schools of Henry County, E. Washington St., Mt. Pleasant.

Z. C. THORNBURG, B. Didac., '93, M. Didac., '96.
1902, Superintendent of Schools of Polk County, 1212 E. 12th St., Des Moines.

1902 CLARENCE DWIGHT BAKER, A.B., Macalester Coll.
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Principal of High School, 304 N. Lincoln St., Creston.

CLARMAE BUDDE, Grad., '05, St. Nor. Sch., Winona, Minn.
Teacher in Public Schools, Marcus.

WILLIAM FRANKLIN CHEVALIER, A.M., Marietta Coll.
1901, Superintendent of Schools, 217, 4th St., Muscatine.

J. W. DICKMAN, Ph.B., '88, Ph.M., '91, Upper Iowa Univ.; A.M., '04, Cornell Coll.
1898, Professor of Economics and Sociology and Vice-President, Upper Iowa University, Fayette.

F. W. ELSE, A.B., '96, Penn Coll.; A.M., '97, Haverford Coll.; M.Didac., '01, Iowa St. Nor. Sch.
1905, Superintendent of City Schools, 301 N. A St., Oskaloosa.

CLEMENTINE JACOBS.
Teacher in Primary Grade, Public Schools, Guttenberg.

W. H. MCCAULEY.
President of Capital City Commercial College, 4th St. and Grand Ave., Des Moines.

CAP E. MILLER, M.Didac., Iowa St. Nor. Sch.
1902, Superintendent of Schools of Keokuk County, Sigourney.

W. M. STEVENS.
Superintendent of City Schools, 1911 Pierce St., Sioux City.

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1903 ETHELDA BURGE, Ph.B., '89, Cornell Coll.
1906, Teacher in Public Schools, Palouse, Wash.; home address, Mt. Vernon.

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1897, Professor of Vocal Music, Iowa State Normal School, 2416 Normal St., Cedar Falls.

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1903, Superintendent of City Schools, Fayette.

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1902, Superintendent of City Schools, 1029 Central Ave., Fort Dodge.

A. W. STUART, A.B., '63, A.M., '66, Bowdoin Coll.
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1892, Teacher in Public Schools, 612, 4th Ave., Clinton.

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WILLIAM ALDRICH.
1904, Superintendent of City Schools, Board of Education Office, Keokuk.

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1905, Director of Manual Training, State Normal School; res., 709 Tremont St., Cedar Falls.

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1903, Superintendent of City Schools, 318 E. 7th St., Washington.

W. P. JOHNSON, B.Sc., Nor. Ind. Nor. Sch.
1900, Superintendent of City Schools, Carroll.

MRS. ELIZA G. KLEINSORGE, Pd.M., '04, St. Nor. Sch., Greeley, Colo.
Des Moines.

THOMAS B. MARKSBURY.
1903, Superintendent of Schools, Moravia.

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1904, Head of Kindergarten Department, Rochester Normal Training School, 208 East Ave., Rochester, N. Y.; home address, "Bluff View," South 12th Ave., Marshalltown.

HOWARD T. PORTS.
1906, Superintendent of Schools, Prairie City.

CHARLES F. PYE, B.Sc., '02, Cornell Coll.
1902, Superintendent of Schools, Guttenberg.

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1904, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1001, 20th St., Des Moines.

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1902, Professor of Public Speaking, 1110 West St., Grinnell.

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Editor of Department of Home Study, "Midland Schools," Des Moines.

ALBERT BOYNTON STORMS, A.M., '93, Univ. of Mich.; D.D., '00, Lawrence Univ.; LL.D., '03, Drake Univ.
1903, President of Iowa State College, Ames.

IOWA—*Continued*

1905 Wesley N. Clifford, B.Sc., '98, Des Moines Coll.
Superintendent of City Schools, 306, 5th Ave., Council Bluffs.

May Genevieve Long.
1903, Supervisor of Physical Education, Public Schools, 204 W. Miller St., Mason City.

William Otis Riddell, A.M., Bellevue Coll.
1905, Superintendent of Schools, 500 Good Block, Des Moines.

1906 W. F. Barr, Ph.B., '03.
1904, Dean of Normal School, Drake University, 2514 Kingman Ave., Des Moines.

W. A. Brandenburg, Ph.B., Drake Univ.
Superintendent of City Schools, 205 S. College St., Mason City.

Hugh S. Buffum, A.B., '01, A.M., '02, B.Didac., '04, Ph.D., '06.
Instructor in Education, State University of Iowa; res., 622 E. Jefferson St., Iowa City.

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Representative of American Book Company, Des Moines.

Merton E. Crosier.
1902, Superintendent of Schools, Avoca.

Oliver Morton Elliott, A.B., Marietta Coll.
1903, Superintendent of Schools, 813, 6th St., Sheldon.

E. W. Fellows, A.B., '94, Iowa Coll.
1905, Superintendent of City Schools, Denison.

William E. Hamilton, A.M., '70, Iowa Wes. Univ.; D.D., '91. Simpson Coll.
1886, Professor of Philosophy, Simpson College, Indianola.

Joseph S. McCowan, Ph.B., '95, A.M., '00, Iowa Coll.
Assistant to the President, Iowa College, Grinnell.

Fred D. Merritt, A.M., '99, Ph.D., '01, St. Univ. of Iowa.
1906, Superintendent of Schools, Waterloo (East).

Aaron Palmer.
1907, Superintendent of City Schools, Marshalltown.

Maurice Ricker, B.S., '92, Drake Univ.
1906, Principal of West High School, 2833 Brattleboro Ave., Des Moines.

E. L. Rickert, A.B., '01, Univ. of Wooster.
1907, Superintendent of City Schools, Maquoketa.

Frank L. Smart, A.B., '96, Harvard Univ.
1906, Assistant Superintendent and Principal of High School; res., 625 E. 14th St., Davenport.

C. C. Willard, Ph.B., '03, Drake Univ.
1905, Teacher of History, High School, Spencer.

John E. Winter, A.B., '02, Hope Coll.; A.B., '06, Univ. of Mich.
Instructor in Greek and English, Northwestern Classical Academy, Box 141, Orange City.

INSTITUTIONS

1897 State Normal School, Cedar Falls.
President, H. H. Seerley, Cedar Falls.

State University of Iowa.
President, George Edwin MacLean; Librarian, M. G. Wyer, Iowa City.

1900 Iowa College.
President, J. H. T. Main; Secretary, J. S. McCowan, Grinnell.

1901 Iowa State College, Library.
President, A. B. Storms; Librarian, Vina E. Clark, Ames.

1903 Coe College, Library.
President, W. Wilberforce Smith; Librarian, Mary I. Amidon, Cedar Rapids.

Iowa State Library
State Librarian, Johnson Brigham, Des Moines.

1906 Davenport Public Library.
Librarian, Grace D. Rose, Davenport.

KANSAS

LIFE DIRECTOR

1886 A. V Jewett, A.B., '57, Middlebury Coll.
Abilene.

LIFE MEMBERS

Anderson Griffith Campbell.
Council Grove.

Nathaniel Coover.
Attorney at Law, Wilson.

Edward T. Fairchild.
1907, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Topeka.

Henry G. Larimer, LL.B., '81, Univ. of Mich.
Attorney at Law, 535 Kansas Ave., Topeka.

A. H. Limerick.
Secretary of Chautauqua Assembly, 1303 E. 11th Ave., Winfield.

John MacDonald.
Editor of "Western School Journal," 734 Kansas Ave., Topeka.

KANSAS—*Continued*

1886 J. H. Miller.
Secretary of Extension Work, Kansas Agricultural College, Manhattan.

Thomas Watson Roach, A.B., '70, M.Sc., '90, Mt. Union Coll.,
1903, President of Kansas Wesleyan University, Salina.

George E. Rose, B.D., '83, Univ. of Kans.; M.Sc., '98, Kans. St. Agri. Coll.
1903, Superintendent of Schools, Rosedale.

Thomas A. Sawhill, A.B., '74, Amherst Coll.
Postmaster Concordia.

Aaron Schuyler, A.M., '69, O. Wes. Univ.;LL.D., '73, Otterbein; Ph.D., '98, Kans. Wes. Univ.
Professor of Philosophy and Higher Mathematics, Kansas Wesleyan University, 1316 S. Santa Fé St., Salina.

Edmund Stanley, A.M., '91, Penn Coll.
1898, President of Friends' University, 1813 University Ave., Wichita.

D. C. Tillotson.
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ACTIVE MEMBERS

1884 Jasper N. Wilkinson.
Ex-President of State Normal School, 1127 Rural St., Emporia.

1886 Arvin S. Olin, A.B., '92, Ottawa Univ.; A.M., '94, Univ. of Kans.
1899, Professor of Education, University of Kansas, 1134 Louisiana St., Lawrence.

1891 Frank Russell Dyer, A.M., '88, M.Pd., '93, Ohio Nor. Univ.; A.M., '92, Ohio Wes. Univ.
1903, Assistant State Superintendent of Public Instruction, 609 N. Topeka Ave., Wichita.

1893 Francis Huntington Snow, A.B., '62, A.M., '65, Ph.D. '81, Williams Coll.; LL.D., '90, Princeton Univ.
1866, Professor of Organic Evolution, Systematic Entomology, and Meteorology, University of Kansas, 1345 Louisiana St., Lawrence.

1894 Elva Enola Clarke.
1893, Librarian of State Normal School, 1025 Constitution St., Emporia.

O. P. M. McClintock.
1897, Principal of Clay School, 1311 Buchanan St., Topeka.

1895 Fenella Dana.
1889, Principal of Ward School, 913 Tyler St., Topeka.

L. H. Murlin, A.B., '91, S.T.B., '92, De Pauw Univ.; D.D., '97, Cornell Coll.; S.T.D., '97, Denver Univ.; B.D., '99, Garrett Biblical Inst.
1894, President of Baker University, Baldwin.

Miss C. S. Newell.
1890, Teacher in Public Schools, 917 W. 14th St., Topeka.

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Principal of Decatur County High School, Oberlin.

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1902, Superintendent of City Schools, 330 E. 10th St., Newton.

Nathan T. Veatch, Grad., '81, St. Nor. Univ., Ill.
1901, Superintendent of City Schools, 525 Mound St., Atchison.

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1896, Principal of Atchinson County High School, Effingham.

1897 Mrs. Gaston Boyd.
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1893, Director of Department of Music, State Normal School, 831 Constitution St.,Emporia.

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1896, Superintendent of City Schools, 617 Exchange St., Emporia.

H. B. Peairs.
Superintendent of Haskell Institute, Indian Industrial Training School, Lawrence.

Frank P. Smith, A. B., '78, Ind. Univ.; A.M., '90, Baker Univ.
1894, Superintendent of City Schools, 1026 Ohio St., Lawrence.

1898 George E. Knepper, A.M.
President of Highland University, Highland.

1899 Frederick B. Abbott, Ph.D., '98, Martyn Coll.
1898, Teacher of Manual Training, State Normal School, 1015 Constitution St., Emporia

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1906, Field Manager, Scientific American Compiling Department, 105 S. Juliette Ave., Manhattan.

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1891, Superintendent of City Schools, 1212 Menor St., Winfield.

1900 Thomas B. Henry, A.B., '98, Univ. of Kans.
315 N. 9th St., Independence.

1901 Carrie Goddard.
1901, Principal of Garfield School, 420 W. 10th St., Topeka.

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1902, Head of Department of School Administration, Kansas State Normal School, 1127 Market St., Emporia.

1902 Insley Le Yantis Dayhoff.
Ex-State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Topeka.

KANSAS—*Continued*

1902 ROBERT F. KNIGHT, Ph.B., '97, Chaddock Coll.
1901, Superintendent of City Schools, City Hall, Wichita.

FRANK STRONG, A.M., Ph.D., Yale Univ.
1902, Chancellor of University of Kansas, Lawrence.

1903 ELIZABETH G. FLAGG, A.B., '98, St. Univ. of Wyo.
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1900 Hillsdale College.
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1906, Superintendent of City Schools, Hebron.

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1902, Professor of Greek and Latin, Grand Island College, Grand Island.

ELIZABETH KINGSBURY, Ph.B., '87, Buchtel Coll.; A.M., '04, Univ. of Nebr.
1900, Teacher of Latin and German, Nebraska Normal College, Wayne.

GERTRUDE NORTON ROWAN, A.B., '05, A.M., '06, Univ. of Nebr.
1906, Teacher of History and Mathematics, High School; res., 1645 K St., Lincoln.

W. A. YODER, A.B., Nebr. St. Univ.
Superintendent of Douglas County Schools, Omaha.

INSTITUTIONS

1897 BELLEVUE COLLEGE.
President, Rev. Guy W. Wadsworth; Librarian, Rachel Ferguson, Bellevue

1898 OMAHA PUBLIC LIBRARY.
President, Lewis S. Reed; Librarian, Edith Tobitt, Omaha.

UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA.
Chancellor, E. Benjamin Andrews; Librarian, Walter K. Jewett, Lincoln.

1901 DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, STATE OF NEBRASKA.
Superintendent, J. L. McBrien, Capitol, Lincoln.

1902 CREIGHTON UNIVERSITY.
President, Rev. M. P. Dowling; Librarian, Gilbert Garraghan, Omaha.

DOANE COLLEGE.
President, David B. Perry; Librarian, Wm. E. Jillson, Crete.

NEBRASKA STATE NORMAL SCHOOL at Peru.
President, James W. Crabtree, Peru.

1905 NEBRASKA WESLEYAN UNIVERSITY, LIBRARY.
Librarian, May Ingles, University Place.

1906 LINCOLN CITY LIBRARY.
President of Library Board, S. L. Geisthardt; Librarian, E. Joanna Hagey, Lincoln.

NEVADA

ACTIVE MEMBERS

1894 JOSEPH C. TEMPLETON, A.B., '99, Leland Stanford Jr. Univ.
1906, Principal of Public Schools, 1001 N. Nevada St., Carson City.

1895 JOSEPH EDWARD STUBBS, A.B., '73, A.M., '76, D.D., '90, LL.D., '05, Ohio Wes. Univ.
1894, President of Nevada State University, Reno.

1897 GEORGE BENJAMIN HAGGETT, B.Sc., '75, Grand River Inst.
1906, Superintendent of U. S. Indian Industrial Training School, Owyhee.

1904 ORVIS RING, A.B., '60, A.M., Wheaton Coll.
State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Carson City.

NEW HAMPSHIRE

LIFE MEMBER

1886 JAMES E. KLOCK.
1900, Principal of State Normal School, Plymouth.

NEW HAMPSHIRE—*Continued*

ACTIVE MEMBERS

1898 CHARLES F. COOK, A.B., '91, St. Lawrence Univ.
1906, Principal of High School, 52 Pleasant St., Concord.

1899 JOHN AUGUSTUS BROWN, A.B., '79, Harvard Univ.
1886, Member of School Board and (1889) Trustee, Robinson Female Seminary, 33 Pine St., Box 144, Exeter.

1900 HENRY C. MORRISON, A.B., '95, Dartmouth Coll.; M.Sc., '06, New Hampshire Coll.
1904, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, State Library, Concord.

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1900, Superintendent of Schools, 1077 Union St., Manchester.

1902 ERNEST L. SILVER, B.L., '99, Dartmouth Coll.
1905, Superintendent of Schools, Portsmouth.

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1905, Principal of High School, 76 Pine St., Franklin.

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Principal of the Phillips Exeter Academy, Exeter.

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P. O., Hudson; ex. off., Thornton's Ferry.

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1905, Principal of Robinson Seminary, 87 Front St., Exeter.

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1904, Principal of High School, 168 Court St., Keene.

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1905, Superintendent of Schools, Claremont.

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1905, Professor of Philosophy, Dartmouth College, Hanover.

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1903, Principal of Nute High School, Milton.

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Superintendent of Schools, Dover.

HARRY L. MOORE, A.B., '01, Bates Coll.
1907, Assistant Principal of State Normal School, Plymouth.

NORMAN J. PAGE, A.B., '95, Dartmouth Coll.; A.M., '99, Boston Univ.
1905, Supervising Principal of Woodsville Union Schools, Woodsville.

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1905, Principal of High School, 98 Wakefield St., Rochester.

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1899, Instructor in Chemistry, Phillips Exeter Academy, Exeter.

1905 JOHN C. KIRTLAND, JR., A.B., '90, A.M., '93, Hobart Coll.
1897, Professor of Latin, The Phillips Exeter Academy, Exeter.

INSTITUTIONS

1898 NEW HAMPSHIRE STATE LIBRARY.
Librarian, Arthur H. Chase, Concord.

1902 DARTMOUTH COLLEGE, LIBRARY.
Librarian, Marvin Davis Bisbee, Hanover.

NEW HAMPSHIRE COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE AND MECHANIC ARTS, LIBRARY.
President, William D. Gibbs; Librarian, C. W. Scott, Durham.

1903 NEW HAMPSHIRE STATE NORMAL SCHOOL.
Principal, J. E. Klock, Plymouth.

1906 CITY LIBRARY, Manchester.
Librarian, F. Mabel Winchell, Manchester.

PUBLIC LIBRARY, Dover.
Librarian, C. H. Garland, Dover.

NEW JERSEY

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1889, Principal of State Normal and Model Schools, 55 N. Clinton Ave., Trenton.

LIFE MEMBERS

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1889, Supervisor of Drawing, Public Schools, 645 Bergen Ave., Jersey City.

1884 SARAH A. STEWART.
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NEW JERSEY—*Continued*

ACTIVE MEMBERS

1887 Ebenezer Mackey, A.B., '78, Mercersburg Coll.
1902, Supervising Principal of City Schools, 314 Hamilton Ave., Trenton.

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1901, Superintendent of Schools of Hudson County, Manual Training Building, Hoboken.

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1877, Principal of Primary School No. 8, 99 Mercer St., Jersey City.

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1906, Principal of 18th Avenue School, 625 Mt. Prospect Ave., Newark.

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1892, Superintendent of Schools, 661 W. 7th St., Plainfield.

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1901, Superintendent of Schools, 915 S. 16th St., Newark.

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1874, Superintendent of Schools, 276 Claremont Ave., Montclair.

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1865, Principal of School No. 6, 550 Summit Ave., Jersey City.

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1879, Principal of Grammar School No. 1, W. 5th St., Bayonne.

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1893, Principal of Primary Department, Public School No. 23, cor. Romaine and Pavonia Aves., Jersey City.

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1878, Principal of Joseph Wood School, 136 E. Front St., Trenton.

1894 Richard Case, A.M., '81, Brown Univ.
1898, Superintendent of Schools, Trenton Ave., Point Pleasant.

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1900, Director of Groszmann School for Nervous and Atypical Children, Watchung Crest, Johnston's Drive, Plainfield.

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1899, Supervising Principal of Public Schools, East Brunswick Township; res., cor. Main and School Sts., P. O. Box 43, Milltown.

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1881, Principal of Schools, Bound Brook.

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1885, Principal of Public School, Box 26, Blackwood.

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1867, Principal of Morrell Street School No. 2, 31 Morrell St., Elizabeth.

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1882, Principal of High School, 534 E. 27th St., Paterson.

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1884, Professor of Mathematics, Dr. Julius Sachs' Collegiate Institute, 38 W. 59th St., New York City; res., Haworth.

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1892, Superintendent of Public Schools, 42 Madison Ave., Jersey City.

1895 Eugene Bouton, A.B., '75, A.M., '81, Yale; Ph.D., '82, Syracuse Univ.
1904, Supervising Principal of Schools, 12 Winsor Pl., Glen Ridge.

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1901, Head Master of Newark Academy, 544 High St., Newark.

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1895, Superintendent of Schools of City of Elizabeth and County of Union, 1100 Anna St., Elizabeth.

1896 Charles J. Baxter, A.M., '05, Rutgers Coll.
1896, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, 949 W. State St., Trenton.

NEW JERSEY—*Continued*

1896 Mrs. Lydia A. Bennett.
1895, Principal of School No. 3, Midland Township, cor. Broad St. and Harold Ave. Box 103, Leonia, Bergen County.

Harry B. Boice, M.D., '88, New York Univ. Med. Sch.
1891, State Normal School, Trenton; address, Titusville.

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E. R. Johnstone.
1900, Superintendent of New Jersey Training School for Feeble-Minded, Vineland.

Edwin C. Merrill.
Publisher, Maynard, Merrill & Co., 44–60 E. 23d St., New York; res., 33 Washington St., East Orange.

O. I. Woodley, M.Pd., '01, Mich. Nor. Coll.; A.B., '01, Albion Coll.; A.M., '02, Columbia Univ.
1904, Superintendent of Schools, Passaic.

1897 Margaret Bancroft.
Principal of Haddonfield Training School, Main St., Haddonfield.

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1893, Principal of Cadwalader School No. 21, 310 W. State St., Trenton.

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1894, Principal of Central Avenue Grammar School, 103 S. 11th St., Newark.

Ira Winthrop Travell, A.B., '90, Williams Coll.
1893, Principal of High School, Plainfield.

1898 S. V. Arrowsmith.
1897, Superintendent of Schools, 103 Maple Ave., Red Bank.

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1901, Teacher of Pedagogy, Newark Normal and Training School, Newark.

1899 Mrs. A. W. Dresser, Grad., '90, Kraus Sem. for Kindergartners, New York.
226 High St., Burlington.

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1891, Principal of Eastern School, 87 N. Munn Ave., East Orange.

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1891, Supervising Principal, 57 McFarlan St., Dover.

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1905, Preceptor in Philosophy, Princeton University, Princeton.

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1901, Superintendent of Public Schools, 43 Ross Place, Westfield.

J. Alfred Wilson, B.Sc., '97, M.Sc., '05, Rutgers Coll.
1906, Principal of Elizabeth Avenue School, Newark.

1900 Vernon L. Davey, A.B., Cornell Univ.
1890, Superintendent of Schools, 32 Munn Ave., East Orange.

James L. Hays.
President of New Jersey State Board of Education, 104 Clinton Ave., Newark.

1901 Henry C. Krebs.
1905, Superintendent of Public Schools, North Plainfield; and (1902) Superintendent of Schools of Somerset County; res., 23 Fairview Ave., North Plainfield.

John C. McLaury, Ph.B., '99, Ph.D., '01, Ill. Wes. Univ.; Pd.B., '95, Pd.M., '97, St. Nor. Coll., Albany, N. Y.; Pd.D., '05, N. Y. Univ.
1900, Principal of Seventh Avenue School, Newark; res., 42 S. Maple Ave., East Orange.

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113 Prospect Ave., Newark.

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1885, Principal of Public School, Raritan.

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1898, Principal of Normal and Training School, 459 High St., Newark.

Mrs. H. Brewster Willis.
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1902 Frank W. Bowen.
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1899, Superintendent of Schools, 412 Linden St., Camden.

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1895, Head of Department of History and Civics, State Normal School, 521 E. State St., Trenton.

1903 Arthur Pierce Butler, A.B., '88, Harvard Univ.
1898, Associate Principal of Morristown School, Morristown.

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Superintendent of Monmouth County Schools, and Principal of High School, 39 Court St., Freehold.

NEW JERSEY—*Continued*

1903 SAMUEL A. FARRAND, A.M., '60, Princeton, '70 Williams, '76, N. Y. Univ.; Ph.D., '79, Princeton.
1859, Headmaster of Newark Academy, 544 High St., Newark.

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1889, Superintendent of Schools, 410 Broadway, Station B, Long Branch.

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1904, Superintendent of Schools, 44 Bay Ave., Bloomfield.

PHILO G. NOON, A.B., '95, Harvard Univ.
1901, Vice-Principal of Grammar School, 114 S. 12th St., Newark.

GEORGE RIPLEY PINKHAM, A.B., '87, A.M., '90, Brown Univ.
1905, Supervising Principal of South St. School, Newark, and Graduate Student in Education, Teachers College, Columbia University; res., Stella Apartments, 22 W. Kinney St., Newark.

FRED S. SHEPHERD, A.B., '84, A.M., '87, Beloit Coll.; Ph.D., '97, Univ. of Pa.
1899, Superintendent of Public Schools, High School Building, Asbury Park.

WILLIAM H. SMITH, A.B., '95, Harvard Univ.
1905, Principal of Stockton School, 173 S. 3d St., South Orange.

LOUIS FRANKLIN SNOW, Ph.B., '87, Brown Univ.; A.B., '89, A.M., '90, Harvard Univ.; Ph.D., '03, Columbia Univ.
160 Market St., Newark.

FRANK A. TIBBETTS.
1906, Head of Business Department, High School, 31 Park St., Jersey City.

H H TUCKER, A.B., '83, A.M., '86, Bates Coll.
1903, Principal of Lawrence Street School, Newark; res., 413 Richmond Ave., South Orange.

WILLIAM A. WETZEL, A.B., '91, Lafayette Coll.; Ph.D., '95, Johns Hopkins Univ.
1900, Principal of Public High School, Trenton.

FRANCIS CALL WOODMAN, A.B., '88, Harvard Univ.
1898, Head Master of Morristown School, Morristown.

1905 JULIA A. ASAY.
1901, First Assistant in Garfield Grammar School, 115 N. 27th St., Camden.

J. BROGNARD BETTS.
1876, Assistant State Superintendent of Public Instruction, State House, Trenton.

WILLIAM BISHOP, B.Sc., '80, Haverford Coll.
Member of Committee in Charge of Westtown Boarding School, Milton Ave. and Broad St., Rahway.

CHARLES W. BLAKESLEE, A.B., '86, A.M., '89, Wesleyan Univ., Conn.
1893, Vice-Principal of Chattle High School, 207 Chelsea Ave., Long Branch.

LENA R. BOWEN.
1899, Kindergarten Teacher, Public Schools, 36 Arlington Ave., East Orange.

CHARLES B. BOYER.
Superintendent of Public Schools, 31 S. Stenton Pl., Atlantic City.

R. J. BOYNTON.
1896, Principal of School, 680 E. 25th St., Paterson.

EVA E. BRIGGS, B.Sc., '04, Columbia Univ.
Head of Department of Mathematics, High School; res., 201 4th Ave., Asbury Park.

JOSEPHINE K. BRUNYATE, A.B., A.M., Dickinson Coll.
1903, Teacher in High School, 30 N. Delaware Ave., Atlantic City

CLARA STEWART BURROUGH.
1900, Principal of Manual Training and High School, 605 N. 2d St., Camden.

MARY A. BURROUGH, B.E., '92, Nat. Sch. of Elocution and Oratory.
1901, Supervising Principal of Public Schools, 544 Penn St., Camden.

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1906, Principal of High School; res., 42 Ridge Road, Rutherford.

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1877, Vice-Principal of High School, 504, 7th Ave., Asbury Park.

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AGNES M. CRAWFORD.
1903, Teacher in Public School No. 20, 11a Lembeck Ave., Jersey City.

W. JAMES CRIST, Ph.B., '97, A.M., '99.
1905, Supervising Principal of Public Schools, Hackettstown.

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1905, Principal of Grammar School, No. 2, Hackensack.

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1906, Preceptor in History, Politics, and Economics, Princeton University; res., 9 Madison St., Princeton.

NEW JERSEY—*Continued*

1905 W. B. Du Rie, A.B., Nat. Nor. Univ.
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1904, Principal of High School, 727 Central Ave., Ocean City.

Griselda Ellis.
Critic Teacher in Model School, State Normal School, 209 S. 6th St., Newark.

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1898, Teacher in Grammar School, 504, 4th Ave., Asbury Park.

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Teacher in Public School 21, 535 Pavonia Ave., Jersey City.

Lydia K. Ennis.
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Powell G. Fithian.
1900, Director of Music, Public Schools, 405 Linden St., Camden.

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Director of Psychological Research, New Jersey Training School for Feeble-Minded Boys and Girls, Vineland.

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Matthew Carter Hamilton, A.B., '01, Thiel Coll.; A.M., '05, New York Univ.
1902, Teacher of Mathematics and Science, and Vice-Principal Irvington High School; res., 80 Elizabeth Ave., Newark.

W. L. R. Haven, A.M., '67.
1869, Superintendent of Schools, 7 Maple Ave., Morristown.

Daniel Tilton Hendrickson, Ph.B., Providence Univ.; A.M., '06, Ewing Coll.
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Mrs. Lydia Morford Hendrickson.
1885, Principal of School No. 5, Middletown.

Jessie May Herring.
1900, Teacher in Columbian School, 36 N. Arlington Ave., East Orange.

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1897, Supervising Principal of Schools, Hammonton.

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1905, Supervising Principal of Schools, Livingston; res., 292 Main St., Madison.

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1866, Principal of Grammar School No. 8, 61 Sherman Ave., Jersey City.

Katharine A. Hughes.
1893, Principal of School No. 8, 721 Grove St., Elizabeth.

A. M. Hulbert.
1901, Principal of Schools, Park Ridge.

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1902, President of Stevens Institute of Technology, Hoboken.

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1904, Supervising Principal of Schools, 215 N. 4th St., Camden.

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1868, Assistant in Ann St. School, 100 Pacific St., Newark.

Frank Howard Lloyd.
1903, Principal of School No. 6, Perth Amboy; res., Main St., Matawan.

Margaret T. Magee.
Principal of J. W. Starr Grammar School, Pine St. above 8th St., Camden.

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1903, Teacher in Public Schools, 293 Clifton Ave., Newark

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Emma A. McCoy,
1896, Teacher in High School, Somerset Pl., New Brunswick.

Ernest T. McNutt, A.B., '98, West. Md. Coll.
1904, Supervising Principal of Public Schools, Belvidere.

George E. Megargee.
Supervising Principal of Chester Township Public Schools, Moorestown.

NEW JERSEY—*Continued*

1905 M. Alice Metcalf.
Kindergartner, 44 Montgomery Pl., Trenton.

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1888, Principal of School No. 2, 244, 7th St., Jersey City.

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1902, Supervisor of Schools, 127 Fourth St., Lakewood.

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1896, Librarian of New Jersey State Normal School, 907 Edgewood Ave., Trenton.

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Joseph W. Pincus, Agri.B., '98, Conn. Agri. Coll.
Agricultural Director, and President of Board of Education, Woodbine.

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Susan A. Reilly.
1895, Instructor in Geography, State Normal School, Trenton; res., 53 Main St., Lambertville.

Ida E. Robinson.
1897, Principal of School, 265 Franklin St., Bloomfield.

Walter M. Sage, A.M., '02, Dickinson Coll.; Ph.B., '00.
1904, Principal of North Haledon Public School, Haledon.

Andrew Scarlett.
1893, Principal of Oakwood Ave. School, Orange; res., 56 S. 11th St., Newark.

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1898, Principal of Blair Academy, Blairstown.

Elmer C. Sherman, A.B., '82, A.M., '85, Hamilton Coll.; Ph.D., '92, New York Univ.
1904, Superintendent of City Schools, Englewood.

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1904, First Assistant in History, Stuyvesant High School, 225 E. 23d St., New York.

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1902, In charge of Preparatory Department, Syms School, 265 Circuit Road, New York.

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1903, Teacher in Charge of School No. 50, Queens, 48 Union Ave., Jamaica, L. I.

MOSES YEATON.
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1906 ELIZABETH M. BALL.
Principal of Public School No. 18, Bronx, 501 Courtlandt Ave., New York

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1893, Professor of English, Teachers College, New York,; res., Park Hill, Yonkers.

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1906, Superintendent of Schools, 520 W. 3d St., Elmira.

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With D. C. Heath & Co., Publishers, 225, 4th Ave., New York.

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1904, Instructor in Psychology, Teachers College, Columbia University; res., 557 W. 124th St., New York.

SUSAN S. OSGOOD.
Third Vice-Principal, and Head of History Department, High School; 78 Dickinson St., Binghamton.

ELIZABETH SAGE.
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Philologist, Etymologist, Lexicographer; Etymological Editor of the Century Dictionary; (1883) Secretary of the Simplified Spelling Board, 1 Madison Ave. New York; res., 150 Woodworth Ave., Yonkers.

GEORGE D. STRAYER, A.B., '03, Johns Hopkins Univ.; Ph.D., '05, Columbia Univ.
Instructor in Elementary Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.

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1906, Institute Conductor, State of New York, Dundee.

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1885, Head of Latin Department, Polytechnic Preparatory School; res., 56 Montgomery Pl., Brooklyn.

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PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 150, 308 E. 96th St.
Principal, Alice Jackson.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 157, Primary, St. Nicholas Ave. and 126th St.
Principal, Adelaide Haight.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 168, Girls, 105th St., near 2d Ave.
Principal, Cecilia A. Francis.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 169, Audubon Ave., 168th and 169th Sts.
Principal, John T. Nicholson.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 170, Girls, 37 W. 111th St.
Principal, Isabella Sullivan.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 170, Primary, 37 W. 111th St.
Principal, Mrs. Eloise K. Fisher.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 171, 11 E. 103d St.
Principal, Henry Edward Jenkins.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 172, 108th St. East, near 2d Ave.
Principal, Margaret F. Brangan.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 174, 125 Attorney St.
Principal, Elizabeth J. Hofer.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 177, 66 Market St.
Principal, Mary L. Brady.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 179, 140 W. 102d St.
Principal, John P. Conroy.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 184, 31 W. 116th St.
Principal, Cecil A. Kidd.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 192, 137th St. and Amsterdam Ave.
Acting Principal, Samuel Langer.

1904 PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 76, 68th St. and Lexington Ave.
Principal, Mary A. McGovern.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 160, Primary, Rivington and Suffolk Sts
Principal, Lottie A. Norcott.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 161, 105 Ludlow St.
Principal, Mrs. Lizzie F. Spafford.

1905 HIGH SCHOOL OF COMMERCE, 155 W. 65th St.
Principal, J. J. Sheppard.

STUYVESANT HIGH SCHOOL, 225 E. 23d St.
Principal, Frank Rollins.

WADLEIGH HIGH SCHOOL, 114th St., west of 7th Ave.
Principal, John G. Wight.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 6, Boys, 85th St. and Madison Ave.
Principal, Maurice J. Thompson.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 7, Chrystie and Hester Sts.
Principal, William A. Kottman.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 10, Boys, 117th St. and St. Nicholas Ave.
Principal, Ernest R. Birkins.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 11, 314 W. 17th St.
Principal John H. Grotecloss.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 16, 208 W. 13th St.
Principal, Josiah H. Zabriskie.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 20, Boys, 45 Rivington St.
Principal, H. William Smith.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 26, 124 W. 30th St.
Principal, Rufus A. Vance.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 27, 206 E. 42d St.
Principal, Philip H. Grünenthal.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 28, 257 W. 40th St.
Principal, Clara H. Knapp; Librarian, Nora F. Coughlan.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 31, 200 Monroe St.
Principal, Margaret F. O'Connell.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 33, Primary, 418 W. 28th St.
Principal, Alida S. Williams.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 34, 108 Broome St.
Principal, Edwin A. Goldwasser

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 36, 710 E. 9th St.
Principal, Ellen T. O'Brien.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 37, 113 E. 87th St.
Principal, Margaret P. Duggan.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 41, Girls, 36 Greenwich Ave.
Principal, Katherine Bevier.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 46, 915 St. Nicholas Ave.
Principal, William A. Boylan.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 53, Primary, 207 E. 79th St.
Principal, Wilhelmina M. Bonesteel; Librarian, M. Louise Carbin

NEW YORK—*Continued*

1905 Public School No. 59, 228 E. 57th St.
Principal, Mary C. McGuire.

Public School No. 63, Girls, 117–127 E. 3d St.
Principal, Helena A. Hulskamp.

Public School No. 71, 188, 7th St.
Principal, Urania D. Secord.

Public School No. 72, Girls, Lexington Ave. and 106th St.
Principal, Helen M. Fanning.

Public School No. 77, Boys, 400 E. 86th St.
Principal, Edward A. Page.

Public School No. 78, Girls, 362 Pleasant Ave.
Principal, Kate M. Falvery.

Public School No. 83, Boys, Primary, 216 E. 110th St.
Principal, C. Augusta Sanger.

Public School No. 87, Boys, 77th St. and Amsterdam Ave.
Principal, Edward H. Boyer.

Public School No. 93, Girls, Amsterdam Ave. and 93d St.
Principal, Mrs. Emma S. Landrine.

Public School No. 94, Amsterdam Ave. and 68th St.
Principal, Cordelia S. Kilmer.

Public School No. 96, Girls, Ave. A and 81st St.
Principal, Mrs. Eliza S. Pell.

Public School No. 103, 119th St. and Madison Ave.
Principal, Mary Masterson.

Public School No. 104, 413 E. 16th St.
Principal, Isabella F. Wright.

Public School No. 109, 231 E. 99th St.
Principal, Frank J. Coleman.

Public School No. 110, Broome and Cannon Sts.
Principal, Adeline E. Simpson.

Public School No. 113, 7 Downing St.
Principal, Mary F. Maguire.

Public School No. 117, 170 E. 77th St.
Principal, Mary S. Cunningham.

Public School No. 119, Girls, 133d St., 7th and 8th Aves.
Principal, Emma C. Schoonmaker.

Public School No. 121, 227 E. 102d St.
Principal, Teresa C. Burke.

Public School No. 124, 29–31 Horatio St.
Principal, Eugenie C. Levie.

Public School No. 125, 180 Wooster St.
Principal, William J. Harwood.

Public School No. 131, 273 E. 2d St.
Principal, Ellen M. Phillips.

Public School No. 135, 1st Ave. and 51st St.
Principal, Kate M. Stephens.

Public School No. 140, 116 Norfolk St.
Principal, Annie M. Atkinson.

Public School No. 151, 91st St. and First Ave.
Principal, Mrs. Agnes O'Brien.

Public School No. 157, Girls, St. Nicholas Ave. and 127th St.
Principal, Olivia J. Hall.

Public School No. 165, Boys, 240 W. 109th St.
Principal, David E. Gaddis.

Public School No. 166, 132 W. 89th St.
Principal, Thomas Moore.

Public School No. 168, Primary, 105th St., near 2d Ave.
Principal, Millicent Baum.

Public School No. 180, 30 Vandewater St.
Principal, John E. Brown.

Public School No. 183, 419 E. 66th St.
Principal, Anne J. Farley

Public School No. 188, Girls, Lewis, cor. Third St.
Principal, Mary F. McAleer.

Public School No. 190, 303 E. 82d St.
Principal, Sarah Goldie.

BOROUGH OF QUEENS

1903 Jamaica High School, Union and Hillside Ave., Jamaica.
Principal, Charles J. Jennings.

Newtown High School, Chicago Ave., Elmhurst.
Principal, James D. Dillingham.

Public School No. 1, cor. Van Alst Ave. and 9th St., Long Island City.
Principal, John F. Quigley.

NEW YORK—*Continued*

1903 PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 5, Academy St., near Grand Ave., Long Island City.
Principal, Matthew D. Quinn.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 27, 13th St. and 1st Ave., College Point, L. I.
Principal, Henry Delamain.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 76, Montgomery and Congress Aves., Laurel Hill.
Principal, Kate R. Hickey.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 78 and 12, Maurice Ave., Winfield.
Principal, Fred H. Mead.

1905 BRYANT HIGH SCHOOL, Wilbur Ave., Academy and Radde Sts., Long Island City.
Principal, Peter E. Demarest.

FAR ROCKAWAY HIGH SCHOOL, Far Rockaway.
Principal, Sanford J. Ellsworth.

FLUSHING HIGH SCHOOL, 231 Sanford Ave., Flushing.
Principal, John Holley Clark; Librarian, Jean Ely.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 4, Prospect St. and Beebe Ave., Long Island City.
Principal, Robert L. Conant.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 9, Monson St., Long Island City.
Principal, Margaret Scott.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 11, Second and Third Sts., Woodside, L. I.
Principal, Theophilus Johnson.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 17, Myrtle Ave., Corona, L. I.
Principal, Josephine M. Lawlor.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 20, 231 Sanford Ave., Flushing.
Principal, John Holley Clark.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 31, Bell Ave., Bayside.
Principal, Melvin Hix.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 32, Lakeville Road, Little Neck, L. I.
Principal, Anna Brett.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 39, State St. and Roanoke Ave., Far Rockaway.
Principal, Sanford J. Ellsworth.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 44, Boulevard and Academy Ave., Rockaway Beach.
Principal, Wm. M. Gilmore.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 57, Curtis Ave., Morris Park, L. I.
Principal, Frank K. Montfort.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 58, Walker Ave., Woodhaven.
Principal, Cyrus E. Smith.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 61, Elm St., Brooklyn Hills (Richmond Hill P. O.).
Teacher in Charge, Kate M. Westbay.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 68, Evergreen, L. I.
Principal, Frank C. Ellis.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 72, Maspeth Ave., Maspeth.
Principal, Robert Eadie.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 79, 7th Ave., Whitestone.
Principal, Wm. H. Carr.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 80, Greenpoint Ave. and Pearsall St., Long Island City.
Principal, John J. Dempsey.

BOROUGH OF RICHMOND

1903 PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 1, Academy Place, Tottenville.
Principal, Nathan J. Lowe.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 11, Jefferson St., Dongan Hills.
Principal, George Hogan.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 14, Broad and Brook Sts., Stapleton.
Principal, A. Hall Burdick.

CURTIS SCHOOL, PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 19, Greenleaf Ave.
Principal, Charles F. Simons.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 23, Andros Ave., Mariner Harbor, S. I.
Principal, David J. Keator.

1904 PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 17, Prospect Ave., New Brighton, S. I.
Principal, Samuel McK. Smith.

1905 CURTIS HIGH SCHOOL, Hamilton Ave. and St. Marks Pl., New Brighton, S. I.
Principal, Harry F. Towle.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 3, School St., Prince Bay.
Principal, Gould J. Jennings.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 4, Fresh Kill Rd., Kreischerville, L. I.
Teacher in charge, Henry F. Albro.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 6, Rossville Ave., Rossville, S. I.
Teacher in charge, Willis L. Rowlands.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 8, Linwood Ave., Great Kills.
Principal, Esle F. Randolph.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 13, Pennsylvania Ave., Rosebank.
Principal, Sheldon J. Pardee.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 18, Broadway, West New Brighton.
Principal, Timothy F. Donovan.

NEW YORK—*Continued*

1905 PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 20, Heberton Ave., Port Richmond.
Principal, Eugene G. Putnam.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 22, Richmond Ave., Graniteville (Port Richmond P. O.).
Teacher in charge, Edgar W. Robinson.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 26, Richmond Turnpike, Linoleumville.
Principal, Lewis H. Denton.

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 29, Castleton Corners, West New Brighton.
Principal, George Hogan.

NORTH CAROLINA

LIFE MEMBER

1884 ROBERT BINGHAM, A.M., '60, LL.D., '90, Univ. of N. C.
1873, Superintendent of Bingham School, Asheville.

ACTIVE MEMBERS

1898 GEORGE H. CROWELL, Ph.B., '92, Univ. of N. C.; Ph.D., '06, Central Univ., Ill.
1897, Superintendent of Graded Schools, High Point.

JAMES YADKIN JOYNER, Ph.B., '81, Univ. of N. C.
1902, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, 304 E. Jones St., Raleigh.

D. MATT THOMPSON, A.M.
1891, Superintendent of City Public Schools, 325 E. Broad St., Statesville.

LYDIA A. YATES.
1904, Teacher in Public School, N. 4th St., Wilmington.

1900 WILLIAM C. A. HAMMEL.
1888, Director of Manual Arts and Physics, State Normal and Industrial College, Greensboro.

PAUL J. LONG.
1897, County Superintendent of Schools, Jackson.

R. W. MITCHELL, A.B., '95, Nat. Nor. Univ.
1905, Principal of City High School, 8 W. Chestnut St., Asheville.

RICHARD JOSEPH TIGHE.
1900, Superintendent of City Schools, 62 Orange St., Asheville.

1902 GEO. W. CLINTON, A.M., '94, Livingstone Coll.; D.D.
Bishop of A. M. E. Zion Church, and President of Atchinson College, Madisonville, Ky.; home address, 415 N. Myers St., Charlotte.

1903 HENRY W. SPRAY.
Canton.

FRANCIS P. VENABLE, Ph.D., '81, Göttingen; LL.D., '03, Univ. of Pa.; D.Sc., '04, Lafayette Coll.
1900, President of University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill.

1905 JULIUS ISAAC FOUST, Ph.B.
Acting President: Professor of Pedagogy, North Carolina State Normal and Industrial College, 1000 Spring Garden St., Greensboro.

ISAAC C. GRIFFIN.
1903, Superintendent of City Schools, Liberty and Ellis Sts., Salisbury.

G. H. OSBORN.
1906, Superintendent of Schools, Troy.

CHARLES ALPHONSO SMITH, Ph.D., '93, Johns Hopkins Univ.; LL.D., '05, Univ. of Miss.
1902, Professor of English and Dean of Graduate Department, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill.

CORA STRONG, A.B., '03, Cornell Univ.
Assistant in Mathematics, State Normal and Industrial College, Greensboro; address, for 1907, in care of Dr. J. H. Tanner, Ithaca, N. Y.

J. W. THACKSTON.
Representative of American Book Company, Raleigh.

1906 EUGENE C. BROOKS.
Superintendent of Public Schools, 210 S. John St., Goldsboro

INSTITUTIONS

1898 NORTH CAROLINA STATE NORMAL AND INDUSTRIAL COLLEGE.
Acting President, J. I. Foust, Greensboro.

1899 SCOTIA SEMINARY.
President, Rev. D. J. Satterfield, Concord.

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA, LIBRARY.
President, F. P. Venable; Librarian, Louis R. Wilson, Chapel Hill.

1903 SHAW UNIVERSITY.
President, Charles Francis Meserve, Raleigh.

1904 NORTH CAROLINA COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE AND MECHANIC ARTS, LIBRARY.
President, Geo. T. Winston; Librarian, Miss E. W. Stockard, West Raleigh

1906 DAVIDSON COLLEGE.
President, Henry Louis Smith, Davidson.

PUBLIC LIBRARY, GREENSBORO.
Librarian, Bettie D. Caldwell, Carnegie Building, Greensboro

NORTH DAKOTA

ACTIVE MEMBERS

1886 Frederick E. Stratton A.B., '71, A.M., '74, Williams Coll.; Ph.D., '91, Ill. Wes. Univ.
1906, Dean of Fargo College and Professor of Greek, 609, 9th Ave., S., Fargo.

1894 Walter L. Stockwell, B.Sc., '89, Univ. of Minn.
1903, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Bismarck.

Mrs. Helen H. Stockwell, B.L., Univ. of Minn.
Bismarck.

1895 George A. McFarland, B.Sc., '83, M.Sc., '86, A.M., '06, Hiram Coll.
1892, Principal of State Normal School, Valley City.

Webster Merrifield, A.B., '77, A.M., '92, Yale Univ.
1891, President of State University of North Dakota, University.

Lura L. Perrine, A.B., '80, Albion Coll.
1892, Teacher of Natural Sciences, State Normal School, Valley City.

1896 Mrs. Alice W. Cooley.
Educational Author and Lecturer, 104, 4th Ave., S., Grand Forks.

Joseph Kennedy, B.Sc., '86, A.M., '02, Univ. of Minn.
1893, Professor of Philosophy and Education, and Dean of The Teacher's College, The University of North Dakota, 1112 University Ave., Grand Forks.

1897 J. G. Halland, A.B., '84, A.M., '87, Luther Coll.
1903, Professor of History and Political Science, Agricultural College, Agricultural College.

W. E. Hoover, M.Sc., '87, Ohio Northern Univ.
1906, Superintendent of City Schools, 110 S. 8th St., Fargo.

1900 George W. Hanna, B.Didac., '94, M.Didac., '99, Highland Park Coll.
1899, Superintendent of City Schools, 620 Normal Ave., Valley City.

1901 William W. Ewing.
Teacher in U. S. Indian School, Pierre.

A. J. Ladd, A.M., '00, Ph.D., '04, Univ. of Mich.
1905, Professor of Education, University of North Dakota; res., 879 Belmont Ave., Grand Forks.

1902 M. W. Barnes.
1899, Superintendent of Schools of Barnes County, Valley City.

P. S. Berg, B.Sc., '93, Mt. Union Coll.
Superintendent of Schools, Dickinson.

Edith E. Brant, Grad. Nor. Tr. Dept., Conservatory of Music, Detroit, Mich.
1903, Instructor in Music, State Normal School, Mayville.

Ernest R. Brownson.
1905, Superintendent of Schools of Williams County, Williston.

Mrs. Mattie M. Davis.
1904, Superintendent of Schools of Cass County, 388, 7th Ave., S., Fargo.

A. E. Dunphy.
1899, Director of Manual Training, State Manual Training School, Ellendale.

Andrew A. Love, A.B., '88, Oberlin Coll.
Manager of Love Teachers' Agency, Broadway, Fargo.

George S. Thomas, A.M., '79, Univ. of Va.; Ph.D., '88, Univ. of Leipzig, Germany.
1893, Professor of Greek and Latin, University of North Dakota, University.

Clyde R. Travis, Ph.B., '02, Ill. Wes. Univ.
1898, Professor of Mathematics, State Normal School, Mayville.

Daniel Webster Tucker, A.B., '99, A.M., '03, Indiana Univ.
1904, Superintendent of Schools, Bathgate; address for 1907, R. F. D. No. 1, Kappa, Ind

Lake G. Watson, Ph.B., '00, Earlham Coll.; A.M., '02, Columbia Univ.
1903, Supervisor of Training Department, State Normal School, Mayville.

1903 George K. Foster, A.B., '01, Columbia Univ.
1903, Superintendent of Public Schools, Casselton.

J. Nelson Kelly, A.M., Emory and Henry Coll.; LL.B., Lake Forest Univ.
1903, Superintendent of City Schools, 521 S. 5th St., Grand Forks.

Josephyne M. Paulsen.
Superintendent of County Schools, Fessenden.

Mrs. Katrine Belanger Macdonald, A.B., '02, Univ. of N. Dak.
1904, Principal of State High School, Lidgerwood.

Wallace Nelson Stearns, A.B., Ohio Wes. Univ., and Harvard Univ; A.M., D.B., '96, Harvard Univ.; Ph.D., '99, Boston Univ.
Professor of Biblical Languages and Literature, University of North Dakota; res., 409 S. 6th St., Grand Forks.

1904 Neil C. Macdonald, A.B., '00, Univ. of N. Dak.
1903, Superintendent of City Schools, Lidgerwood.

Ida M. Montgomery, A.B., Univ. of Nebr.
Oriska.

Bert E. Groom.
Superintendent of County Schools, Langdon.

1905 Mrs. Una Brasfield Herrick.
1905, Director of Gymnasium and Dramatic and Oratorical Departments, State Normal School, in care of Cottage Dormitory, Valley City.

Fred V. Hutchinson.
1904, Superintendent of County Schools, Lisbon.

NORTH DAKOTA—*Continued*

1905 WALTER M. KERN, A.B., '04, Ind. St. Univ.
1905, President of State Manual Training School, Ellendale

PITT GORDAN KNOWLTON, A.B., '00, Oberlin Coll.; A.M., '02, Harvard Univ.; Ph.D., '96, Leipsic.
1897, Professor of Philosophy and Economics, Fargo College, 413, 7th Ave., S., Fargo.

JOSEPH F. MCLAIN, A. B., '99, Univ. of N. Dak.
1900, County Superintendent of Schools, Grand Forks.

P. D. NORTON, A.B., '97, Univ. of N. Dak.
1905, Superintendent of Schools of Ramsey County, Devils Lake.

LLOYD RADER.
Superintendent of County Schools, Dickinson.

1906 RYLAND M. BLACK, A.B., '95, Ohio Wes. Univ.
1905, Superintendent of Schools of Richland County, Wahpeton.

EDWARD P. ROBERTSON, A.M., '88, D.D., '00, Hamline Univ.
1899, President of Wesley College of North Dakota, 524 Belmont Ave., Grand Forks.

INSTITUTIONS

1896 EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF NORTH DAKOTA.
President, P. S. Berg, Superintendent of Schools, Dickinson; Secretary, A. P. Hollis, Normal School, Valley City.

1899 STATE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH DAKOTA.
President, Webster Merrifield; Secretary, J. W. Wilkerson, University.

1900 STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, MAYVILLE.
President, Joseph Carhart, Mayville.

1902 DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, STATE OF NORTH DAKOTA.
Superintendent, W. L. Stockwell, Bismarck.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL OF NORTH DAKOTA.
Principal, George A. McFarland; Librarian, Mabel G. West, Valley City.

OHIO

LIFE DIRECTOR

1887 OSCAR TAYLOR CORSON, A.M., '87.
Editor of "Ohio Educational Monthly," and Institute Lecturer, 57 E. Main St., Columbus.

LIFE MEMBERS

1866 ULYSSES THOMPSON CURRAN, A.B., '56, Miami Univ.; B.L., '72, Cincinnati Law Coll.
Member of Board of Examiners, City Teachers, 622 Columbus Ave., Sandusky.

1870 WILLIAM H. COLE, A.B., A.M., Ohio Wes. Univ.
Sabina.

L. E. HOLDEN.
Lake Shore Boul., N. E. Bratenahl, Cleveland.

MRS. DELIA LATHROP WILLIAMS, Pd.D., '04, N. Y. State Nor. Univ.
62 S. Liberty St., Delaware.

1880 J. J. BURNS, A.M., '76, Washington and Jefferson Coll.; Ph.D., '86, Ohio State Univ.
1895, Corresponding Secretary of Ohio Teachers' Reading Circle, 628 Holgate Ave., Defiance.

CHARLES C. DAVIDSON, A.M., '87, Ohio Univ.
1891, Trustee of Ohio University, 59 W. Ely St., Alliance.

BETTIE A. DUTTON.
1870, Principal of Kentucky Street School, 94 State St., Cleveland.

MRS. REUBEN MCMILLAN.
218 Spring St., Youngstown.

JOHN BRADLEY PEASLEE, A.B., '63, A.M., '96, Dartmouth Coll.; LL.B., '66, Cincinnati Law Coll.; Ph.D., '79, Ohio State Univ.
3218 Warsaw Ave., Cincinnati.

ESTHER A. WIDNER.
1224 N. Main St., Dayton.

1882 JAMES A. ROBERT, A.M., '67, Yale Coll.; Ph.D., '83, Denison Univ.
2363 Guy St., Cincinnati.

1883 E. W. COY, A.M., '58, Brown Univ.; Ph. D., '86, Princeton Coll.
1873, Principal of Hughes High School, College Hill, Cincinnati.

1884 C. W. BENNETT, A.B., '66, A.M., '69, Ohio Wes. Univ.; Ph.D., '89, Moore's Hill Coll.
1874, Superintendent of Schools, 218 W. Ash St., Piqua.

JACOB ALBRIGHT SHAWAN, A.B., '80, A.M., '83, Oberlin Coll.; Ph.D. (honorary), '94, Muskingum Coll.
1889, Superintendent of City Schools, 1122 Bryden Road, Columbus.

ACTIVE MEMBERS

EDMUND A. JONES, A.B., '65, A.M., '68, Amherst Coll.; Ph.D., '03, Ohio Univ.
1904, State Commissioner of Common Schools 327 E. Broad St., Columbus.

1889 EDWIN B. COX, A.B., '74, Ohio Wes. Univ.
1881, Superintendent of Schools, 205 W. Church St., Xenia.

NATHAN L. GLOVER.
1872, Teacher of Music, Public Schools, 203 E. Mill St., Akron.

1890 MRS. ADA E. LAIRD.
1892, Principal of Waverly School, 4103 Franklin Ave., Cleveland.

OHIO—*Continued*

1890 J. P. SHARKEY.
1898, Superintendent of Schools; (1893), Member of State Board of Examiners, Van Wert.

WILLIAM H. VOGEL.
1899, Superintendent of Drawing, Public Schools, 3535 Fairview Ave., Hyde Park, Cincinnati.

1891 ARTHUR OWEN JONES, B.Sc., '99, Univ. of Cincinnati.
1901, Art Master, Woodward High School, 2315 Highland Ave., Walnut Hills, Cincinnati.

CHARLES WILLIAM SUPER, A.B., '66, Dickinson Coll.; A.M., '82, Syracuse Univ.; Ph.D., '74, Ill. Wes. Univ.; LL.D., '04, Dickinson Coll.
Ex-President, and (1879) Professor of Greek, Ohio University, 44 Union St., Athens.

FREDERICK TREUDLEY, A.B., '78, Univ. of Ind.; A.M., '06, Hiram Coll.
1902, Professor of Philosophy and Sociology, Normal College, Ohio University, 24 Mulberry St., Athens.

1892 CHARLES CHRISTIAN MILLER, A.B., '83, Ph.D., '03, Ohio Univ.
President of Lima College, 701 W. North St., Lima.

MATILDA L. WALKE.
1873, Teacher in Public Schools, 471 Riddle Road, Cincinnati.

1893 CHARLES HAUPERT, A.B., '80, A.M., '83, Heidelberg Univ.; Ph.D., '00, Wooster Univ.
1893, Superintendent of Schools, and (1894) Member of State Board of Examiners, 9 College Ave., Wooster.

M. A. KIMMEL.
1880, Superintendent of Schools, Poland.

H. H. RASCHIG.
1874, Principal of 10th District School, 618 Prospect Pl., Avondale, Cincinnati.

S. D. SANOR, A.M., '98, LL.B., '99, Western Reserve Univ.
1904, Superintendent of Schools, Homeworth.

WILLIAM HENRY SCOTT, A.M., '65, Ohio Univ.; LL.D., '84, Ohio Univ. and Ohio Wes. Univ.
1883, Professor of Philosophy, Ohio State University; address, Clintonville, Franklin Co.

LUCIA STICKNEY, A.M., '95, Oberlin Coll.
1900, Teacher in East High School, 840 Franklin Ave., Cleveland.

1894 WILLIAM W. BOYD, A.B., '84, A.M., '86, Marietta Coll.
1902, Inspector of High Schools for Ohio State University, 791 Bryden Road, Columbus.

EMMA C. DAVIS.
1893, General Supervisor of Public Schools, 466 Rockwell Building, Cleveland.

ARNOLD J. GANTVOORT.
1894, Musical Director, Teacher of Public School Music and Sight Reading, Lecturer on History and Aesthetics of Music, College of Music, Cincinnati.

EDWARD L. HARRIS, A.B., A.M., Ph.B., Syracuse Univ.
1889, Principal of Central High School, 2250 Euclid Ave., Cleveland.

CHARLES P. LYNCH, A.B., '86, A.M., '89, Ph.D., '97, Allegheny Coll.
1906, Principal of West High School, 7300 Franklin Ave., Cleveland.

WILLIAM OXLEY THOMPSON, D.D., '91, Muskingum Coll.; LL.D., '97, Western Univ. of Pa.
1899, President of Ohio State University, Columbus.

GEORGE R. TWISS, B.Sc., '85, Ohio State Univ.
1894, Head of Department of Science, Central High School, 61 Arlington St., Cleveland.

ANNA J. WRIGHT, A.B., '72, Oberlin Coll.
1879, Teacher in High School, 1555 W. 29th St., N. W., Cleveland.

1895 CHARLES S. BARRETT, B.Sc., '85, Hopedale Coll.
1900, Principal of South High School, 78 W. 9th Ave., Columbus.

CHARLES E. BROWN.
With American Book Co., 1335 Schofield Building, Cleveland.

WILLIAM PAXTON BURRIS, Ph.B., '91, A.M., '94, De Pauw Univ.; A.M., '01, Harvard Univ.
Professor of the History and Philosophy of Education, and Dean of College for Teachers, University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati.

CHARLES E. CAREY, Ph.B., A.M., Wesleyan Univ.
1897, Superintendent of Public Schools, 306 Park Ave., Warren.

WILLIAM WALLACE CHALMERS, A.B., '87, Univ. of Mich.; A.M., '89, Eureka Coll.; Pd.B., '91, Mich. State Nor. Coll.; LL.D., '04, Heidelberg Univ.
1898, President of City Board of Examiners, 2220 Maplewood Ave., Toledo.

STEPHEN TRIMBLE DIAL, A.B., '80, A.M., '84, Ohio Wes. Univ.; Ph.D., '94, Syracuse Univ.
1890, Superintendent of Schools, 116 Hillside Ave., Lockland.

CLAYTON L. DICKEY.
North Broadway, Columbus.

WILLIAM HARRIS ELSON, A.B., Indiana Univ.
1906, Superintendent of Instruction, School Headquarters, Cleveland.

GEORGE A. HOWARD.
With American Book Co., 300 Pike St., Cincinnati.

HERBERT THOMAS KINCAID, A.B., '83, Dartmouth Coll.
Classical Department, Steele High School, 39 W. McPherson St., Dayton.

ANNE H. KING, B.L., '92, Univ. of Cincinnati.
1904, Teacher of Mathematics, Walnut Hills High School, 922 Nassau St., Cincinnati.

JULIA C. KOLBE.
1893, Primary Teacher and Teacher of German, Norwood; res., 337 Milton St., Cincinnati.

ANNIE LAWS.
President of the Cincinnati Kindergarten Association, 818 Dayton St., Cincinnati.

OHIO—*Continued*

1895 S. Herrick Layton, B.Sc., B.L., A.M., Ph.D.
1905, Superintendent of Schools, 565 N. Main St., Fostoria.

William Rane Lazenby, B.Agri., Cornell; M.Agri., Iowa Agri. Coll.
1881, Professor of Horticulture and Forestry, Ohio State University, and (1894) Secretary of Ohio Medical University, 348 W. 8th Ave., Columbus.

Charles Louis Loos, Jr., A.B., '69, A.M., '71, Bethany Coll., W. Va.
1899, Principal of Steele High School, 824 N. Broadway, Dayton.

S. H. Maharry, A.M., '90, Muskingum Coll.
1905, Superintendent of Schools, 37 N. Gamble St., Shelby.

S. K. Mardis, Ph.B., Pd.B., '93, Ohio Univ.; Pd.D.
1903, Superintendent of Public Schools, 529 Trenton St., Toronto.

George C. Maurer, Ph.B., Ph.M., '93, Univ. of Wooster.
1893, Superintendent of Schools, 409 W. Ray St., New Philadelphia.

W. W. McIntire, Ph.B., Ph.M., Univ. of Wooster.
1903, Principal of Norwood High School, 2106 Grand St., Cincinnati.

Robert Edgar Rayman, M.Sc., A.M., N. W. Ohio Nor. Coll.
1897, Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1 Pine St., East Liverpool.

William Sherman Robinson, B.Sc., '91, M.Sc., '93, Mt. Union Coll.
1905, State Agent for the Macmillan Co., Kent.

William Sherman Rowe, A.B., '92, De Pauw Univ.
1905, Superintendent of Schools, 215 E. 5th St., Greenville.

Margaret W. Sutherland.
1889, Principal of Columbus Normal School, 45 N. 17th St., Columbus.

Charles F. Thwing, D.D., '88, Chicago Theol. Sem.; LL.D., '94, Ill. Coll., Marietta Coll., Waynesburg Coll., and Washington and Jefferson Coll.
1890, President of Western Reserve University and Adelbert College, 55 Bellflower Ave., Cleveland.

1896 Frank S. Alley, A.M., Moore's Hill Coll.
1906, Salesman for Hopper Stationery Co., Greenfield.

J. J. Bliss, A.B., '81, A.M., '86, Oberlin Coll.
1895, Superintendent of Schools, 512 Rensselaer St., Bucyrus.

George B. Bolenbaugh.
1901, Principal of Robert Fulton School, 565 Delta Terrace, Station C, Cincinnati.

Granville Webster Brumbaugh, M.E., '89, Juniata Coll.
1896, Principal of Garfield School, 1601 W. 2d St., Dayton.

Howard Champlin.
1892, Superintendent of Writing in Public Schools, care Union Bethel, 501 E. 3d St., Cincinnati.

Frank B. Dyer, A.B., '79, Ohio Wes. Univ.; LL.D., '05, Miami Univ.
1903, Superintendent of Schools, 3437 Burch Ave., Cincinnati.

August Frederic Foerste, A.M., Ph.D., '90, Harvard Univ.
1893, Teacher of Physics and Geology, Steele High School, 1017 Grand Ave., Dayton.

Warren L. Fulton, B.Sc., '95, Ohio Wes. Univ.
1900, Superintendent of Public Schools, Alvordton.

Francis Heiermann, S.J.
1900, President of St. John's College, 807 Superior St., Toledo.

M. A. Henson.
Principal of High School, Jackson.

John W. Jones, B.Sc., N. Nor. Univ.; B.P., O. Univ.; A.M., '02, Gallaudet Coll.
1895, Superintendent of the Ohio Institution for the Deaf, Columbus.

Mrs. Frances W. Leiter.
1890, Superintendent of Physical Education, Department of the National W. C. T. U., and National W. C. T. U. Lecturer, 220 W. Park Ave., Mansfield.

Anna Elizabeth Logan, A.M., '06, Miami Univ.
1902, Principal of Training Department, State Normal School, Miami University, Oxford.

J. V. McMillan.
1902, Superintendent of Schools, 313 Washington St., Marietta.

George M. Plumer.
Principal of Ward School, 623, 4th St., Marietta.

John H. Rowland, A.M.
General Agent, American Book Co., 79 N. Ohio Ave., Columbus.

Joseph H. Snyder, B.Sc., '83, Ohio Cent. Coll.; A.M., '93, Heidelberg Coll.
1904, Assistant State Commissioner of Common Schools, State House, Columbus.

Harriet E. Terrel.
1890, Principal of South Case School, 410 Sibley St., Cleveland.

Charles Liggett Van Cleve, A.B., '79, A.M., '82, Ohio Wes. Univ.
1902, Superintendent of City Schools, 43 Marion Ave., Mansfield.

1897 Frank H. Ball.
1905, Director of Manual Arts, Public Schools, Third Floor, City Hall, Cincinnati.

Ella Beistle.
1888, Principal of Van Cleve School, 10th District, 31 E. McOwen St., Dayton.

John W. Carr, A.B., '85, A.M., '90, Ind. Univ.
1905, Superintendent of Instruction, City Schools, 36 Oxford Ave., Dayton.

OHIO—*Continued*

1897 ROSE MORRISON.
1894, Kindergartner and Assistant in City Normal School, 374 Commonwealth Ave., Cleveland.

REV. SYLVESTER F. SCOVEL, A.B., '53, A.M., '56, Hanover Coll.
1883–89, President of University of Wooster; (1883) Professor of Morals and Sociology, University of Wooster, 185 N. Beall Ave., Wooster.

EDWARD MARLAY VAN CLEVE, A.B., '86, A.M., '89, Ohio Wes. Univ.
1903, Superintendent of City Schools, Wells High School Building; res., 319 N. 5th St., Steubenville.

T. HOWARD WINTERS, A.B., '96, Ohio Wes. Univ.
1901, Principal of Kingsbury High School, Ironton.

1898 JAMES M. CARR, B.Sc., '01, Muskingum Coll.
1906, Superintendent of Schools, 509 N. 2d St., Barberton.

JESSE S. JOHNSON, Ph.B., '92, De Pauw Univ.
1900, Superintendent of Schools, 57 Lincoln Ave., Salem.

EDMUND D. LYON, A.B., '82, Ohio Wes. Univ., A.M.
Principal of Woodward High School, Sta. M., Cincinnati.

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DAVID R. MAJOR, B.Sc., '90, Wabash Coll.; Ph.D., '96, Cornell Univ.
1901, Professor of Education, Ohio State University, Columbus.

JAMES E. RANDALL.
1892, Superintendent of Schools, Camden.

W. C. REEDER.
1893, Teacher of Mathematics, Steele High School, R. R. 2, Dayton.

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F. J. ROLLER, A.B., '81, A.M., '83, Mt. Union Coll.
1888, Superintendent of Public Schools, 34 Main St., Niles.

J. F. SMITH. A.B., '85, A.M., '90, Kenyon Coll.
1888, Principal of High School, 130 Hancock St., P. O. Box 577, Findlay.

MARY WALTER.
Primary Teacher, Public Schools, Pomeroy.

OLIVER A. WRIGHT. A.B., '02, Adelbert Coll., Western Reserve Univ.
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1899 HOWARD AYERS, B.Sc., '83, Harvard Coll.; Ph.D., '86, Freiburg; LL.D., '99, Mo. State Univ.
Ex-President of University of Cincinnati, 299 Southern Ave., Mt. Auburn, Cincinnati.

C. L. CRONEBAUGH, B.Sc., '87, Nat. Nor. Univ.
1898, Superintendent of Schools, 24 South East St., Massillon.

CHARLES WILLIAM DABNEY, A.B., '73, Hampden-Sidney Coll.; Ph.D., '80, Göttingen; LL.D., '01, Yale Univ., and Johns Hopkins Univ.
1904, President of University of Cincinnati, 3483 Evans Pl., Clifton, Cincinnati.

HARRISON L. FRANK, A.M., '79, Otterbein Univ.
1901, Superintendent of City Schools, 314 S. State St., Marion.

JOHN A. HEIZER, B.Sc., '90, Nat. Nor. Univ.
1900, Principal of Guilford School, 2016 Hudson Ave., Norwood, Cincinnati.

WILLIAM D. LASH, A.M., '74, Ohio Univ.
1878, Superintendent of Schools, Zanesville.

E. A. FERGUSON PORTER.
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CHRISTIAN F. RAPP.
Principal of Harrison School, Hotel Princeton, Cincinnati.

WILBUR S. STRICKLAND, B.Sc., '87, Nat. Nor. Univ.
1901, Principal of Sherman School, 2005 Hudson Ave., Station H, Cincinnati.

JOHN WESLEY SWARTZ, A.B., '96, Ohio Wes. Univ.
Representative of Ginn & Co., 64 Grasmere St., East Cleveland.

FRANCES E. THOMSON, Ph.B., '95, Oberlin Coll.
1887, Principal of High School, Medina.

JOHN S. WEAVER, A.B., '67, A.M., '70, Wittenberg Coll.
1905, Teacher in High School, 321 N. Fountain Ave., Springfield.

1900 ALEXANDER D. BEECHY, A.B., '80, Mt. Union Coll.; Ph.D., Wooster Univ.
1891, Superintendent of Schools, 20 Summit St., Norwalk.

GEORGE W. BURNS, A.B., Bethany Coll., W. Va.; A.M., Farmers' Coll.
1879, Principal of District School No. 18, 4402 Hamilton Ave., Cincinnati.

NOVETUS H. CHANEY, A.B., '80, A.M., '84, Wilmington Coll.; A.M. '92, Ph.D., '93, Ohio Wes. Univ.
1902, Superintendent of City Schools, 234 Custer Ave., Youngstown.

F. S. COULTRAP, A.B., '75, A.M., '78, Ohio Univ.
1898, Superintendent of Schools, Athens.

J. P. CUMMINS, A.M., Nat. Nor. Univ.
Principal of 22d District School, 3453 Evans Pl., Cincinnati.

NETTIE FILLMORE.
1879, Teacher in Woodward High School, 420 Hopkins St., Cincinnati.

FRANKLIN PAUL GEIGER, B.C.S., A.B., '94, Mt. Union Coll.
1902, Superintendent of Schools, 807 Walnut St., Canal Dover.

OHIO—*Continued*

1900 ALBERT B. GRAHAM.
Superintendent of Agricultural Extension, College of Agriculture, Ohio State University, Columbus.

I. C. GUINTHER, B.Sc., '90, A.M., '00, N. W. O. Univ.
Superintendent of Public Schools, 323 W. Main St., Galion.

J. M. HAMILTON, A.B., '93, Nat. Nor. Univ.
1899, Superintendent of Public Schools, 424 E. Main St., Lebanon.

H. V. HOTCHKISS, Ph.D., Allegheny Coll.
1900, Superintendent of Schools, 436 E. Buchtel Ave., Akron.

SARDINE PRESSLEY HUMPHREY, B.Sc., '95, Rio Grande Coll.; A.M., '06, Ohio Univ.
1897, Superintendent of Public Schools, 222 Park Ave., Ironton.

NORMAN EDWARD HUTCHINSON.
1900, Superintendent of Schools, Kenton.

LURA B. KEAN, Ph.B., '89, Ph.M., '92, Univ. of Wooster.
1897, Principal of High School, 153 N. Buckeye St., Wooster.

LEE R. KNIGHT.
1889, Principal of Perkins Normal School, 373 Carroll St., Akron.

CHARLES A. KROUT, A.B., '87, A.M., '90, Wittenberg Coll.
1900, Superintendent of Schools, Tiffin.

HERBERT R. MCVAY, Ph.B., '90, Ohio Univ.
1902, Superintendent of City Schools, 1025 Walnut Ave., Sidney.

WILLIAM HENRY MECK, A.B., '94, Ohio Wes. Univ.; A.M., '98, Miami Univ.
1895, Teacher of History and Civics, Steele High School, and (1898) Member of State Board of School Examiners, 2118 E. 3rd St., Dayton.

JOHN EVANS MORRIS, B.Sc., '84, M.Sc., '87, Mt. Union Coll.
1892, Superintendent of Public Schools, 208 E. Oxford St., Alliance.

H. W. MUMMA.
Teacher of Mathematics, Steele High School, 51 Drake Ave., Dayton.

ALFRED TYLER PERRY, A.B., '80, A.M., '91, D.D., '01, Williams Coll.
1900, President of Marietta College, 210, 5th St., Marietta.

ARTHUR POWELL, A.B., '80, A.M., '85, Oberlin Coll.; Pd.D., Ohio Nor. Univ.
1903, Superintendent of Schools, 6th and Vandeveer St., Middletown.

EDWARD D. ROBERTS, A.B., '99, Univ. of Cincinnati.
1904, Principal of McKinley School, 1620 Dudley St., Cincinnati.

ELLA A. ROTHE.
Teacher in Third Intermediate School, 2351 W. McMicken Ave., Cincinnati.

WILLIAM MCKENDREE VANCE, A.B., '83, A.M., '86, Ohio Wes. Univ.
1906, Superintendent of Public Schools, 45 Oak Hill Ave., Delaware.

O. PERRY VOORHES, B.Sc., '79, N. Nor. Univ.
1901, Principal of Oyler School, Cincinnati.

ARTHUR H. WICKS, A.B., '95, Baldwin Univ.
1900, Superintendent of Schools, 708 Cherry St., Clyde.

HOMER B. WILLIAMS, A.B., '91, A.M., '94, Ohio Northern Univ.
1898, Superintendent of Schools, and (1904) Member of State Board of School Examiners, 1035 Columbus Ave., Sandusky.

1901 WALTER H. AIKEN.
Superintendent of Music, Public Schools, Station K, Cincinnati.

PETER D. AMSTUTZ.
1898, Superintendent of Riley Township Schools and High School, Pandora.

F. E. ASSENHEIMER, A.B., '95, Capitol Univ.
1902, Principal of Normal Department, Lima College, 521 Jameson Ave., Lima.

FRANK P. BACHMAN, A.B., '96, Univ. of Chicago; Ph.D., '02, Columbia Univ.
Professor of History and Principles of Education, Ohio University, Athens.

JOHN K. BAXTER, A.M., '93, Hiram Coll.
1905, Superintendent of Public Schools, 1104 N. Cleveland Ave., Canton.

T. W. BOOKMYER, B.Sc., '80, Nat. Nor. Univ.
Principal of Business College, 432 Jackson St., Sandusky.

CHARLES J. BROOKS.
1902, Principal of Avondale School, 1550 Ruth Ave., Cincinnati.

EDWIN N. BROWN, A.M., '84, LL.B., '87, Ph.D., '02, Univ. of Mich.
1905, Superintendent of Ohio State School for the Blind, cor. Main and Parsons Ave., Columbus.

FORREST BAKER BRYANT, A.B., '99, Otterbein Univ.
1902, Superintendent of Schools, Richwood.

FRANCIS EUGENE CRANE.
1897, Principal of Columbian School; res, 3643 McCormick Road, Hyde Park, Cincinnati.

WARREN DARST, A.B., '74, A.M., '83, Nat. Nor. Univ.
1902, Lecturer on Pedagogy and English, State Normal School, Oxford; home address 5629 Washington Ave., Chicago, Ill.

BENJAMIN MARSHALL DAVIS, B.Sc., '90, M.Sc., '92, Butler Univ.; Ph.D., '06, Univ. of Cal.
1905, Professor of Natural History, Miami University, Brice Hall, Oxford.

FREDERICK WILLIAM DEARNESS.
1901, Principal of 12th District School, 2654 Harrison Ave., Westwood, Cincinnati.

CHARLES F. DUTTON, JR., A.B., '93, Oberlin Coll.
1894, Teacher of Science, West High School, 1464 W. 77th St., N. W. Cleveland.

OHIO—*Continued*

1901 FRANK ROGERS ELLIS.
Assistant Manager of American Book Co., 300 Pike St., Cincinnati.

ELIZABETH G. EVANS, A.B., '97, Wellesley Coll.
1897, Instructor in English, Steele High School, Dayton; home address, 4126 Chester Ave., Philadelphia, Pa.

CHARLES S. FAY, A.B., Oberlin Coll.
Superintendent of Schools, 325 Reiley Ave., Wyoming, Station R, Cincinnati.

J. M. H. FREDERICK, A.B., '86, Amherst Coll.
1895, Superintendent of Schools, 15 Wagar Ave, Lakewood.

WELLS L. GRISWOLD, Ph.B., '94, A.M., '05, Oberlin Coll.
1901, Principal of Rayen School, 102 Woodbine Ave., Youngstown.

MIRON ELISHA HARD, A.M., Ohio Wes. Univ.
1902, Superintendent of Public Instruction, 194 Church St., Chillicothe.

BENJAMIN B. HARLAN, B.Sc., '76.
1904, Teacher of Mathematics, Steele High School; res., 39 Babbitt St., Dayton.

HENRY HARRISON HELTER, A.B., '91, Ohio Wes. Univ.
1899, Superintendent of Schools, 506 W. Anglaize St., Wapakoneta.

WARREN E. HICKS, Pd.M., '02, Mich. Nor. Coll.
1906, Assistant Superintendent of City Schools, 1719 E. 82d St., Cleveland.

I. N. KEYSER, Ph.B., '90, Baldwin Univ.
1901, Superintendent of Public Schools, 314 Lafayette Ave., Urbana.

WILLIAM H. KIRK, A.B., '87, A.M., '90, Baldwin Univ.
1891, Superintendent of Schools, 28 Grasmere St., East Cleveland.

JOSEPH KRUG.
1872, Professor of German Language and Literature, Central High and Normal Schools, 5811 Thackeray Ave., S. E., Cleveland.

WILLIAM MCCLAIN, JR., A.B., '03, A.M., '05, Ohio Wes. Univ.
1901, Superintendent of Schools, E. High St., London.

JOHN EDWARD MCGILVREY, A.B., '95, Ind. Univ.
1898, Principal of Cleveland Normal School, 167 Whitman St., Cleveland.

HENRY C. MUCKLEY.
1902, First Assistant Superintendent of Schools, 11435 Ashbury Ave., Cleveland.

J. C. OLDT, A.B., '90, A.M., '93.
1890, Superintendent of Public Schools, Put-in-Bay.

CORDELIA L. O'NEILL.
1905, Principal of Marion School, 1701 E. 81st St., Cleveland.

F. B. PEARSON, A.M., '88, Wooster Univ.
Principal of East High School, 125 Wilson Ave., Columbus.

JOHN WILLIAM PERRIN, A.M., '89, Wabash Coll.; Ph.D., '95, Univ. of Chicago.
1905, Librarian of Case Library; res., 80 Bell Ave., Cleveland.

THOMAS P. PIERCE.
Superintendent of Schools, Harrison.

HARRY L. SENGER, A.B., '98, A.M., '05, Univ. of Cincinnati.
1905, Teacher in Woodward High School, 3206 Woodburn Ave., Walnut Hills, Cincinnati.

OSCAR M. SOULE, B.Sc., 92, Nat. Nor. Univ.
1900, Superintendent of Schools, 9 Lake Ave., Franklin.

CHARLES EDWIN STEVENS.
Principal of Association Institute School of Commerce and Finance; res., 1677, 85th St., N. E., Cleveland.

CLARENCE BIRCH STONER, A.B., '96, Otterbein Univ.
Superintendent of Schools, Mt. Gilead.

JOHN L. TRISLER, Ph.D., Heidelberg Univ.; Pd.M., Ohio St. Nor. Univ.
1884, Superintendent of Schools and School Examiner of Hamilton County, 737 Sturges Ave., Hartwell.

CALLIE KING WALLS.
1905, Teacher in Public Schools, 8 Sunnyside Driveway, Athens.

F. D. WARD, B.Sc., '79, N. W. Ohio Nor. Univ.
1905, Principal of Normal Department, Baldwin University, 169 Beech St., Berea.

HENRY G. WILLIAMS, A.M.
1902, Dean of State Normal College, Ohio University, and Editor and Publisher of the "Ohio Teacher," Athens.

JOHN A. WRIGHT, B.Sc., '01, Valparaiso Coll.
1900, Superintendent of Schools and County School Examiner, Liberty Center.

LEWIS EDWIN YORK, B.Sc., '94, Ph.B., '02, Ph.M., '04, Mt. Union Coll.
1902, Superintendent of Public Schools, Lock Box 79, Barnesville.

JOHN W. ZELLER, Ph.M., Mt. Union Coll.; A.M., Ph.D., Findlay Coll.
1877, Superintendent of Public Schools, 311 E. Lincoln St., Findlay.

1902 MILLARD F. ANDREW, B.Sc., '91, Nat. Nor. Univ.
1902, Principal of 25th District School, Sta. L, Cincinnati.

HOWARD E. AXLINE.
1901, Principal of Hicks School, 45 Robinwood Ave., Lakewood.

GUY POTTER BENTON, A.M., D.D., Baker Univ.; LL.D., '06, Upper Iowa Univ.
President of Miami University; res., 312 E. High St., Oxford.

STARR CADWALLADER, A.B., '93, A.M., '96, Hamilton Coll.
1905, Secretary of Cleveland School of Art, 1944 E. 116th St., Cleveland.

OHIO—*Continued*

1902 H. H. Cully, A.B., '87, Mt. Union Coll.
1905, Principal of Glenville High School; res. Sta. H., 318 Doan St., Cleveland.

E. Antoinette Ely, A.M., '92, Univ. of Cincinnati.
Principal of Bartholomew-Clifton School, Evans Pl., Evanswood, Clifton, Cincinnati.

Luther E. Everett, A.B., '96, A.M., 99, Univ. of Wooster.
1901, Superintendent of Schools, 21 E. First St., Uhrichsville.

Elizabeth K. Fairweather.
Teacher of French and English, Norwood High School, 820 Locust St., Walnut Hills, Cincinnati.

Charles S. Howe, Ph.D., '87, Wooster Univ.
1903, President of Case School of Applied Science, Cleveland.

George W. Knight, A.B., '78, A.M., '83, Ph.D., '84, Univ. of Mich.
1885, Professor of American History and Political Science, Ohio State University, 85 Jefferson Ave., Columbus.

E. L. Mendenhall, B.Sc., '91, Nat. Nor. Univ.; A.B., '93, A.M., '94, S. N. Univ.
1905, Superintendent of Old Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home Schools, Xenia.

Harvey C. Minnich, M.Sc., '89, A.M., '00, Ohio Nor. Univ.
1903, Dean of State Normal College of Miami University, Oxford.

Calvin Thomas Northrop.
Superintendent of Schools, 360 Main St., Conneaut.

Ward Higley Nye, A.B., '01, Oberlin Coll.
1903, Superintendent of Schools, Oberlin.

Margaret A. O'Connor.
1899, Principal of Graded Schools, 6 Orchard Grove Ave., Lakewood.

George D. Pettee, A.B., '87, A.M., '93, Yale Univ.
1900, Principal of University School, Cleveland.

Herman S. Piatt, A.B., A.M., Univ. of Ill.; Ph.D., Univ. of Strassburg.
1901, Superintendent of Schools, 323 N. 8th St., Coshocton.

May H. Prentice.
1895, Instructor in City Normal Training School, 126 Courtland St., Cleveland.

Homer C. Price, B.Sc. (Agri.), Ohio St. Univ.; M.Sc. (Agri.), Cornell Univ.
1903, Dean of College of Agriculture and Domestic Science, Ohio State University, Columbus.

Mary A. Venable.
1894, Teacher in Primary Grade, Lakewood Schools, 3603 Archwood Ave., Cleveland.

Elmer Ellsworth Wolfe, A.B., '83, A.M., '86, Bucknell Univ.; Ph.D., '95, Richmond Coll.
1903, Principal of Academy of Marietta College, 232, 5th St., Marietta.

Fred Murlin Youmans, LL.B., Cincinnati Law Sch.
1902, Principal of S. P. Chase School; res., 2612 Erie Ave., Hyde Park, Cincinnati.

1903 Lucy D. Ambrose.
1880, Teacher in Fourth Intermediate School, 912 Dayton St., Cincinnati.

Emily Ball.
1885, Teacher in High School, 35 E. 3d St., Portsmouth.

Elizabeth Day Bell, Ph.M., '90, Otterbein Univ.
1900, Principal of High School, Wellington.

Ella E. Brite.
1901, Teacher of Drawing, Art Department, Hughes High School, 2100 Grand St., Walnut Hills, Cincinnati.

Oscar Chrisman, A.B., '88, A.M., '93, Ind. Univ.; Ph.D., '96, Univ. of Jena.
Professor of Paidology and Psychology, Ohio University, 52 W. Carpenter St., Athens.

Reed P. Clark, B.Sc., '79, Grand River Inst.; A.M., Mt. Hope Coll.
Superintendent of Schools, 1 Prospect St., Ashtabula.

Maria Clinton Collins, B.L., '99, Univ. of Cincinnati.
1901, Principal of Collegiate School for Girls, 1327 McMillan St., Walnut Hills, Cincinnati.

W. P. Cope, A.B., '72, A.M., '75, Hiram Coll.; Ph.D., '90, Univ. of Wooster.
1885, Principal of High School, 933 Dayton St., Hamilton.

Lottie M. Cosner.
Teacher in Public Schools, 1339 Myrtle Ave., Zanesville.

James S. Curry.
1905, Teacher in Commercial Department, Central High School, Cleveland; res., 98 Alameda Ave., Lakewood.

Morton L. Dartt, M.E., '90, St. Nor. Sch., Mansfield, Pa.
1903, Principal of Mayflower School, Cleveland.

George C. Dietrich, Ph.B., '98, Ohio St. Univ.
1903, Principal of High School, 1115 Washington St., Sandusky.

John O. Falkinburg, A.M., '00, Ky. Mil. Inst.
1884, Superintendent of Schools, 9 Independence St., Home City.

Alma S. Fick, A.B., '94, A.M., '98, Univ. of Cincinnati.
1898, Teacher of English, Literature, and Latin, Walnut Hills High School, 1828 Fairfax Ave., Cincinnati.

Edna H. Fick, A.B., '99, Univ. of Cincinnati.
Teacher in High School, Madisonville.

Martin Hensel.
1896, Librarian of Public School Library, Department of Public Instruction, 189 E. Mound St., Columbus.

OHIO—*Continued*

1903 JANNETTE F. JACKSON.
1902, Supervisor of Primary Grades, Public Schools, 68 Mentor Ave., Cleveland.

JENNIE B. JOHNSON.
1890, Principal of Brownell School, 1819 E. 55th St., Cleveland.

DARRELL JOYCE, A.B., '03, Miami Univ.
1903, Superintendent of Schools, 501 Prytania Ave., Hamilton.

RICHARD J. KIEFER, B.Sc., '93, Ohio Nor. Univ.; A.B., '02, Heidelberg Univ.
1903, Superintendent of Schools, W. Walker St., Upper Sandusky.

ANNA FLORENTINE LILLIG.
Teacher in Public Schools, 7607 Sagamore Ave., N. E., Cleveland.

ELISHA S. LOOMIS, Ph.D., '88, Wooster Univ.
1895, Head of Department of Mathematics, West High School, Cleveland; home address, 301 Front St., Berea.

CLARA MAY, A.B., '94, Oberlin Coll.
1903, Assistant Principal of Kindergarten Training School, 59 N. Main St., Oberlin.

MARY MCGOWAN.
Teacher in Intermediate Department, Hyde Park School, Cincinnati; res., Epworth Ave., Madisonville.

BERTHA EMELINE MONTGOMERY, Pd.M., '04, Univ. of City of New York.
1895, Principal of Kindergarten Training School, 96 S. Cedar Ave., Oberlin.

GRACE E. MOWRY.
1906, Miss Howe and Miss Marot's School, 513 W. 1st St., Dayton.

OSCAR E. OLIN, A.M., '97, Kans. Agri. Coll.
1898, Professor of Economics and History and Instructor in Philosophy, Buchtel College, 476 Orchard Court, Akron.

IRA CLARENCE PAINTER, A.B., '99, Denison Univ.
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PENNSYLVANIA—*Continued*

1906 S. H. Replogle.
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1905, Superintendent of Lower Marion Public School, Ardmore.

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Livingston Seltzer.
Superintendent of Schuylkill County Schools, Pottsville.

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1905, Superintendent of Schools of Westmoreland County, Greensburg.

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1895, Teacher in Public Schools, 218 Virginia Ave., Pittsburgh.

Charles W. Stine.
1906, Superintendent of Schools, York Co. Court House, York.

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1893, Superintendent of Schools of Lackawanna Co., 1660 Capouse Ave., Scranton.

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1905, Superintendent of Schools of Clearfield County, Clearfield.

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1899, Department of Science, Clarion State Normal School, Clarion.

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1905, Superintendent of Schools, 642 Broadway, Milton.

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1906, Pennsylvania State Museum, Harrisburg.

Mary S. Zane.
1901, Head teacher in Home for Deaf Children, Belmont and Monument Aves., Philadelphia.

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1889, Principal of Peace Street Grammar School, 43 Adelaide Ave., Providence.

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1894, Department of Household Economics, Technical High School, Providence.

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1905, Principal of Manton Avenue Grammar School, Providence; res., East Greenwich.

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1864, Principal of English High School, 40 Humboldt Ave., Providence.

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1905, State Commissioner of Public Schools, State House, Providence.

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1902, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, 32 Summer St., Providence.

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1899, President of Brown University, Providence.

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1906, Principal of High School, Wapping, Conn.; res., Rockville.

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1899, Principal of Grammar School, 50 Elton St., Providence.

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1895, Superintendent of Schools, 1323 Washington St., Columbia.

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1885, Superintendent of City Schools, 74 Rutledge Ave., Charleston.

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1903, State Superintendent of Education, Capitol, Columbia.

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1897, Superintendent of City Schools, Orangeburg.

1904 JAMES A. B. SCHERER, A.B., '90, A.M., '95, Roanoke Coll.; Ph.D., '97, Pa. Coll.; LL.D., '05, S. C. Coll.
1904, President of Newberry College, Newberry.

1905 REV. LEWIS M. DUNTON, D.D.
President of Claflin University, Orangeburg.

ABRAHAM C. OSBORN, A.B., A.M., D.D., LL.D.
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ROBERT P. PELL, A.B., '81, Litt.D., Univ. of N. C.
1902, President of Converse College, Spartanburg.

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1889, President of State Normal School, and (1905) Professor of History, Madison.

1893 A. WELLINGTON NORTON, A.B., '73, A.M., '76, LL.D., '00, Univ. of Rochester.
1903, Educational Author, Blanche Ave., Madison.

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1893, Teacher in Riggs Institute, Flandreau.

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Clerk of Supreme Court, Pierre.

ANNA B. HERRIG, Grad., Oswego Nor. Sch., N. Y.
1898, Superintendent of Training Department, State Normal School, Madison.

GEORGE M. SMITH, A.B., '73, A.M., '77, Colby Coll.
1891, Professor of Modern Languages, Literature, and Pedagogy, University of South Dakota, Vermilion.

1897 ALEXANDER STRACHAN, A.B., '80, A.M., '82, Univ. of Rochester, N. Y.
1890, Principal of High School and Superintendent of Schools, 9 Van Buren St., Deadwood.

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1904, Professor of Civics and Geography, State Normal School, Washington Ave., Madison.

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1904, Superintendent of City Schools, 121 May St., Lead.

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1903, Principal of High School, Yankton.

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1898, Teacher in Lutheran Normal School, 1124 Norton Ave., Sioux Falls.

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1905, President of State Normal and Industrial School; res., 223, 9th Ave., E., Aberdeen.

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1885, Principal of All Saints School, Sioux Falls.

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1903, Principal of High School, Selby.

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Teacher in Ring Thunder Day School, Rosebud Agency, Rosebud.

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1905, Vice-President, Dean of School of Education, and Professor of the History and Philosophy of Education, Dakota Wesleyan University, Mitchell.

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1901, Day School Inspector, Indian Service, Pine Ridge Agency.

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1902, Principal of Public Schools, Custer.

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1905, Principal of High School, Lead.

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1898, Professor of Literature, Vanderbilt University, Vanderbilt Campus, Nashville.

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1904, Professor of Philosophy and Education, Grant University, and Editor of "Southern Educational Review," Chattanooga.

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1892, Superintendent of City Schools, Tennessee Trust Building, Memphis.

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1899, Superintendent of City Schools, Pulaski.

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1907, Superintendent of Schools, Knoxville.

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1904, President of University of Tennessee, Knoxville.

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1904, Regent of Belmont College, 1 E. Belmont Circle, Nashville.

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1874 ALEXANDER HOGG, A.M., '57, Randolph-Macon Coll.; '74, William and Mary Coll.; '89, LL.D., '00, Univ. of Ala.
1900, Superintendent of City Schools and Editor of "Texas and Pacific Quarterly," 301 Lamar St., Ft. Worth.

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Principal, Thomas G. Harris, San Marcos.

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STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.
State Superintendent of Education, Robert B. Cousins, Austin.

UTAH

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President, George H. Denny, Lexington.

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1902 STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, CHENEY.
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President, Enoch A. Bryan, Pullman.

1906 WASHINGTON STATE LIBRARY.
State Librarian, J. M. Hitt, Olympia.

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WEST VIRGINIA—*Continued*

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State Superintendent of Free Schools, Capitol, Charleston.

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1905, Principal of High School, Mannington.

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MARY REPPETTO.
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1899 WEST VIRGINIA UNIVERSITY.
President, D. B. Purinton; Librarian, Pauline Wiggin Leonard, Morgantown.

1900 STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, WEST LIBERTY.
Principal, Lorain Fortney, West Liberty.

1901 PUBLIC LIBRARY, WHEELING.
Superintendent, Hervey B. Work, Wheeling.

1905 DEPARTMENT OF FREE SCHOOLS.
State Superintendent of Free Schools, Thos. C. Miller, Charleston.

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WISCONSIN—*Continued*

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1887 ALBERT SALISBURY, Ph.D., Milton Coll.
1885, President of State Normal School, Whitewater.

1891 MARY E. DOYLE.
1894, Superintendent of Training, State Normal School, The Broadway Apartments, Superior.

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1895, Professor of the Science and Art of Education, University of Wisconsin, 140 Langdon St., Madison.

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1894 RICHARD B. DUDGEON, A.B., '76, Univ. of Wis.
1891, Superintendent of City Schools, 115 N. Carroll St., Madison.

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1903, Instructor in English High School, Madison.

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1891, President of Milwaukee-Downer College, Milwaukee.

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1884, Inspector of Practice Teaching, State Normal School, 37 Elm St., Oshkosh.

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1896 WALTER ALLEN.
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1903, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Madison.

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1897, Principal of High School, and Superintendent of Public Schools, Mazomanie.

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1900, President of State Normal School; res., 2444 Prairie St., Milwaukee.

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WISCONSIN—*Continued*

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1906, Superintendent of City Schools, Merrill.

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Librarian, Miss B. A. Gardner, Platteville.

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President, W. H. Hickok, Antigo; Secretary and Treasurer, G. F. Loomis, Waupun.

WISCONSIN—*Continued*

1884 County Teachers' Association, Milwaukee County.
President, Herbert J. Piper, 712 Astor St., Milwaukee.

Milwaukee Principals' Association.
President. J. J. Somers; Secretary, J. J. Finan, Milwaukee.

Philadelphian Society of State Normal School at Platteville.
President, Grant A. German; Secretary, Gilbert Brereton, Platteville.

Public School Teachers of Janesville.
Superintendent, H. C. Buell; Secretary, Lizzie A. Paterson, Janesville.

State Historical Society of Wisconsin.
Secretary and Superintendent, Reuben G. Thwaites, Madison.

State Normal School at Platteville.
President, John W. Livingston; Librarian, Miss B. A. Gardner, Platteville.

Teachers' Association of Wisconsin.
President, John F. Sims; Secretary, Katherine Williams, Milwaukee.

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1897 State Normal School, Oshkosh.
President, Rufus H. Halsey; Librarian, Ella Goodwin Parmele, Oshkosh.

1898 Milwaukee Public Library.
Librarian, George W. Peckham, Milwaukee.

State Normal School, Whitewater.
President, Albert Salisbury, Whitewater.

1899 Lawrence University.
President, Samuel Plantz; Librarian, Zelia Smith, Appleton.

1900 Superior State Normal School, Library.
President, I. C. McNeill; Librarian, Harriet L. Eaton, Superior.

1902 Beloit College, Library.
Acting President, Geo. L. Collie; Librarian, James A. Blaisdell, Beloit.

Ripon College, Library.
President, Richard C. Hughes; Librarian, O. J. Marston, Ripon.

1903 Gilbert M. Simmons Library, Kenosha.
President, W. W. Strong; Librarian, Mrs. Clara P. Barnes, Kenosha.

1905 Milwaukee Teachers' Association.
President, Nellie Minehan, 166 Biddle St.; Librarian, Katherine R. Williams, 871 Buffum St., Milwaukee.

University of Wisconsin. Library.
Librarian, Walter M. Smith, Madison.

1906 Arabut Ludlow Memorial Library.
Librarian, Katherine Smock, Monroe.

Kellogg Public Library.
Librarian, O. B. Martin, Green Bay.

State Normal School, River Falls.
President, W. J. Brier, River Falls.

WYOMING

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1894 Estelle Reel, B.Sc., '89, Univ. of Ill. and Univ. of Wyo.
1898, General Superintendent of Indian Schools; address, Room 252, Indian Office, Washington, D. C.

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1902 Francis Edmund Matheny, Ph.B., '98, Berea Coll.; Pd.M., '00, Univ. of Wyo.; A.M., '04, Univ. of Denver.
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PANAMA

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1905, Superintendent of Canal Zone Public Schools, Gorgona, Canal Zone, Isthmus of Panama.

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1901, Division Superintendent of Public Instruction of the Division of Tayabas, Lucena, Tayabas.

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1902, Division Superintendent of Schools, 10 Washington St., Capiz, Panay.

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1905, Industrial Teacher in Normal School, Cebu, Cebu Island.

1904 SENORA MARIA DEL PILAR ZAMORA.
Instructor in Insular Normal School; res., 51 Calle Noria, Sta. Cruz, Manila.

1905 CHARLES E. WRIGHT, B.Sc., '00, A.M., '04, Grove City Coll.
1904, Principal of Provincial School, Capiz, Province of Capiz.

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1906, Division Superintendent of Schools, Pasig, Rizal.

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1903, Examining Superintendent, Department of Education, San Juan.

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Principal of Practice School, Normal Department, University of Porto Rico, Rio Piedras.

1904 ROLAND P. FALKNER, Ph.D., '88, Halle.
Commissioner of Education for Porto Rico, San Juan.

EVERETT W. LORD, A.B., '00, Boston Univ.; A.M., '06.
1902, Assistant Commissioner of Education of Porto Rico, San Juan.

JOSEFINA SABAT MENDIN.
1902, Grade Teacher Cataño School; res., 9 Tanca St., San Juan.

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1902, District Superintendent of Schools, Yauco.

1906 E. N. CLOPPER, B.Sc., '97, Bethany Coll.
1904, Principal of Central High School of Porto Rico, San Juan.

ELADIO VÉLEZ ESPADA.
1906, Acting Principal of Schools, Box 23, Sabana-Grande.

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1906, Acting Principal of Public Schools, Main St., Guayanilla.

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1902, Professor of Surveying, and sometime Acting Professor of Physics, University of Sydney; State Commissioner of Education, Director of Technical Education; res., 28 Bland St., Ashfield, Sydney, New South Wales.

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Senior Inspector of Schools, 54 Watt St., Newcastle, New South Wales.

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1900, Head Master, of McGill Model School, 32 Belmont St., Montreal, Quebec.

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1889, Teacher in Jameson Avenue Collegiate Institute, 46 Dunn Ave., Toronto, Ontario.

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1903, Instructor in English, McGill University, and (1906) Lecturer in Education, McGill Normal School; res., 150 Durocher St., Montreal, Quebec.

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Agricultural Coll., Mich., '02
Agricultural Coll., Minn., '02
Agricultural Coll., Miss., '02
Agricultural Coll., N. H., '02
Agricultural Coll., N. Mex., '02
Agricultural Coll., N C., '04
Agricultural Coll., R. I., '03
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Albin, Joseph T., Kans., '04
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Allen, Walter, Wis., '96
Allen, Wm. C., N. Y., '05
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Allison, J. J., Ill., '93
Allison, William, Utah, '01
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Al. Asso., Milwaukee, Wis., '84
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Ambrose, Lucy D., Ohio, '03
Amen, Harlan P., N. H., '03
Ament. Jas. E., Pa., '06
American, Clara, N. Y., '03
Ames, Chas. H., Mass., '96
Ames, Lewis D., Mo., '03
Amherst Coll. Lib'y, Mass., '97
Amidon, L. E., Mich., '93
Amstutz, Peter D., Ohio, '01
Anderson, Edw., Ill., '05
Anderson, L. F., Mich., '00
Anderson, W. D., N. Y., '00
Anderson, Wm. R., N. Y., '05
Anderson, W. J., Ariz., '99
Andover Theo. Sem., Mass., '02
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Andrew, J. C. S., Mass., '03
Andrew, M. F., Ohio, '02
Andrews, Benj. R., N. Y., '04
Andrews, E. Benj., Nebr., '99
Andrews, E. C., Conn., '05
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Andrews, F. E., Ind., '06
Andrews, John H., Mo., '04
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Antony, Hugo J., Ohio, '06
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Armstrong, Geo. P., Mass., '96
Armstrong, G. W., Mo., '98
Armstrong, James E., Ill., '01
Armstrong, J. C., Pa., '05
Armstrong, R. A., W. Va., '94
Armstrong, Robert, Cal., '00
Armstrong, Wm. D., Ill., '05
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Arnold, Sarah L., Mass., '95
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Ashmore, Otis, Ga., '94
Aspinwall, Wm. B., N. Y., '05
Asplund, Rupert F., N. Mex., '03
Assenheimer, F. E., Ohio, '01
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Atkinson, Chas. P., Ala., '05
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Atkinson, Fred W., N. Y., '94
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Avery, Rachel F., Pa., '79
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Axline, H. E., Ohio, '02
Axtell, U. F., N. Y., '03
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Aylward, John A., Wis., '84
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Ayres, Geo. F., Mo., '04
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Baber. Zonia. Ill., '05
Bachman, Frank P., Ohio, '01
Bacon, Carl E., Ill., '97
Bacon, Louis A., Ind., '03
Bacon, Paul V., Ill., '97
Bader, John H., N. Y., '94
Badanes, Saul, N. Y., '03
Baer, Anna G., Ill., '03
Baer, Clara G., Ia., '97
Bagley, Wm. C., N. Y., '01
Bagnall, F. A., Mass., '01
Bailey, Mrs. B. B., Tex., '03
Bailey, Chas. H., Iowa, '04
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Bailey, M. A., N. Y., '95
Bailey, Walter J., Cal., '95
Bailey, W. F., Wash., '02
Bakeless, O. H., Pa., '00
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Baker, Amy L., N. Y., '03
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Baker, Clarence D., Iowa, '02

Baker, Franklin T., N.Y., '06
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Baker, Jas. H., Colo., '84
Baker, Leonard T., S. C., '03
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Baker, S. S., Pa., '06
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Balch, Burton M., N. Y., '03
Balcom, A. G., N. J., '98
Balcomb, E. E., Okla., '05
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Baldwin, Chas. W., Hawaii, '03
Baldwin, Fred C., Mass., '03
Baldwin, H. J., Cal., '99
Baldwin (M. W.) Sch., Phila., Pa., '05
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Ball, Emily, Ohio, '03
Ball, Frank H., Ohio, '97
Ball, Sheldon F., Oregon, '93
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Ballard, H. H., N. Y., '02
Ballard, N. H., Ga., '05
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Barrett, H. M., Colo., '95
Barrett, R. C., Iowa, '96
Barrett, S. M., Okla., '97
Barron, Albertine, Mo., '03
Barron, Henrietta D., Mo., '03
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Birge, Edward B., Ind., '03
Birmingham Sub. Dist. Sch., Pittsburgh, Pa., '06
Bisbee, Harlan M., N. H., '03
Bishop, E. C., Nebr., '04
Bishop, Eliza A., Pa., '92
Bishop, J. Remsen, Mich., '94
Bishop, Nathan L., Conn., '95
Bishop, William, N. J., '05
Bishop, William R., Idaho, '05
Bishop, Willis T., Mich., '05
Black, Jas. C., Ind., '88
Black, Laura, N. Y., '05
Black, Ryland M., N. Dak., '06
Black, S. T., Cal., '95
Black, S. W., Kans., '05
Black, Wm. H., Mo., '95
Black, Wm. W., D. C., '05
Blackmer, Anna W., Wis., '05
Blackshear, E. L., Tex., '00
Blaich, Lydia R., Ind., '03
Blair, Francis G., Ill., '99
Blaisdell, S. Lillian, Minn., '03
Blaisdell, Thos. C., Mich., '05
Blake, Clarence J., Mass., '03
Blake, Katherine D., N. Y., '03
Blakeley, Gilbert S., N. Y., '05
Blaker, Mrs. E. A., Ind., '96
Blakeslee, Charles W., N. J., '05
Blakesley, O. J., Wyo., '06
Blessing, Chas. W., N. Y., '05
Blewett, Ben, Mo., '97
Bliss, Frederick L., Mich., '95
Bliss, J. J., Ohio, '06
Bliss, Lafayette, Minn., '02
Block, Louis J., Ill., '99
Blodgett, A. B., N. Y., '00
Blood, Annah P., N. Y., '03
Bloodgood, F. H., Ill., '01
Blount, Luther M., Ga., '05
Blydenburgh, Josephine E., N. Y. '05
B. of Ed., Abilene, Kans., '86
B. of Ed., Beloit, Wis., '84
B. of Ed., City of New York, N. Y., '03
B. of Ed., Dodge City, Kans., '86
B. of Ed., Fulton Co., Ga., '01
B. of Ed., Janesville, Wis., '84
B. of Ed., La Crosse, Wis., '84
B. of Ed., Milwaukee, Wis., '84
B. of Ed., Nashville, Tenn., '89
B. of Ed., New Haven, Conn., '01
B. of Ed., Northfield, Minn., '90
B. of Ed., Oshkosh, Wis., '84
B. of Ed., Ottawa, Kans., '86
B. of Ed., Plainfield, N. J., '05
B. of Ed., Sedgwick, Kans., '86
B. of Regents, St. Nor. Sch., Wis. '84
Bodler, Anna, N. J., '98
Bodwell, Edwin J., Nebr., '95
Bogardus, Estella M., N. Y., '03
Boggess, Carey, Ohio, '05
Bohannan, E. W., Minn., '02
Bohn, S. H., Ill., '02
Boice, H. B., N. J., '06
Bolenbaugh, G. B., Ohio, '96
Boleng, L. H., Wis., '04
Bolles, Frederick B., Colo., '06
Bolton, Frederick E., Iowa, '00
Bond, G. G., Ga., '94
Bonnell, E. N., Minn., '02
Bonser, Frederick G., Ill., '04

Bookmyer, T. W., Ohio, '01
Bookwalter, Alfred G., Mass., '05
Boone, Richard G., N. Y., '84
Booth, F. W., D. C., '00
Borden, James B., Wis., '05
Boss, Chas. E.' N. J., '06
Boston College, Mass., '97
Boston University, Mass., '02
Bostwick, O. P., Iowa, '90
Bouelle, Frank A., Cal., '05
Bourgard, Caroline B., Ky., '07
Bourland, Albert P., Tenn., '05
Bouton, Eugene, N. J., '95
Bowen, Cora E., N. Y., '05
Bowen, D. M., Kans., '05
Bowen, Frank W., N. J., '02
Bowen, Lena R., N. J., '05
Bowen, Wm. M., Pa., '05
Bowman, G. L., Wis., '95
Bowman, J. N., Wash., '01
Bowtell, Grace, N. Y., '05
Boyce, Thos. W., Wis., '05
Boyd, David R., Okla., '02
Boyd, Mrs. Gaston, Kans., '97
Boyd, Thos. D., La. ,'05
Boyd, W. W., Ohio, '04
Boyden, Albert G., Mass., '00
Boyden, Arthur C., Mass, '97
Boyden, Wallace C., Mass., '96
Boydstun, James F., N. Y., '03
Boyer, Charles B., N. J., '05
Boyer, Chas. C., Pa., '03
Boyes, W. F., Ill., '04
Boyle, Chas. A., Kans., '97
Boyle, Thomas J., N. Y., '03
Boynton, F. D., N. Y., '01
Boynton, R. J., N. J., '05
Bradford, Mary D., Wis., '02
Bradford, Wm., Utah, '05
Bradley, Chas. A., Colo., '93
Bradley, John E., Mass., '90
Bradley, Milton, Mass., '92
Bradner, J. W., Ky., '01
Brady, Mary J., Mo., '04
Bragdon, C. S., Mass., '03
Braker, Henriette, N. Y., '05
Bramlette, Edgar E., Tex., '02
Brandon, Edgar E., Ohio. '05
Brandenburg, W. A., Iowa, '06
Brandt, Francis B., Pa., '07
Brangan, Margaret F., N. Y., '03
Branson, E. C., Ga., '01
Brant, Edith E., N. Dak., '02
Bratten, Clifton E., Ohio, '06
Brawley, Annie G., Mass., '03
Brayton, Percy S., Mass., '03
Brazier, John S., Ill., '05
Brehaut, James W., Mass., '03
Brelsford, Chas. H., Pa., '01
Brewer, Harry F., Ill., '02
Bricker, Jas. I., Mich., '01
Bridgetown High School, N. J., '05
Brier, Warren J., Wis., '95
Briggs, Eva E., N. J., '05
Briggs, Frank E., Mass., '03
Briggs, Thomas H., Ill., '04
Brigham Young Coll., Utah, '98
Brigham, Agnes O., Wis., '03
Bright, Orville T., Ill., '03
Brightwell, Wm. D., Pa., '05
Brilles, Chas. S., W. Va., '05
Brimhall, Geo. H., Utah, '06
Brislin, Isabel G., Mo., '04
Bristol, E. N., N. Y., '96
Bristol, Homer C., N. Y., '03
Brite, Ella E., Ohio, '03
Brittain, M. L., Ga., '00
Broadway Sch., Camden, N. J., '05
Broadwell, Carrie E., Ohio., '06
Brock, George W., Ala., '02
Brockhausen, Anna, Ind., '03
Brockman, Mrs. Ella M., Mo., '04
Brockton Pub. Lib'y, Mass., '03
Brockway, Clarence E., Mass., '05
Bronson, Minnie, Va., '04
Bronx Borough Teachers' Assoc., N. Y., '05
Brooklyn Pub. Lib'y, N. Y., '01
Brooklyn Tr. Sch. for Teachers, N. Y., '05
Brooks, Charles J., Ohio, '01
Brooks, Edw., Pa., '76
Brooks, Edwin R., N. Y., '05
Brooks, Eugene C., N. C., '06
Brooks, John L., D. C., '03
Brooks, Kendall P., Mich., '05
Brooks, Stratton D., Mass., '01
Broome, Edwin C., N. J., '03
Bross, Jesse F., N. Y., '03
Brough, T. A., Can., '03
Brouse, J. P. W., Ky., '05
Brown Univ. Library, R. I., '01
Brown, Alfred L., Wash., '02
Brown, C. A., Ala., '98
Brown, C. E., Ohio, '95
Brown, Claude, Ill., '00
Brown, Cyrus J., La . '05
Brown, Edwin N., Ohio, '01
Brown, Elizabeth V., D. C., '98
Brown, Elmer E., D. C., '91
Brown, Frances R., N. Y., '05
Brown, Geo. A., Ill., '02
Brown, Geo. L., S. Dak., '05
Brown, Geo. P., Ill., '80
Brown, Geo. W., Mass., '96
Brown, H. B., Ind., '95
Brown, H. L., Minn., '06
Brown, Henry E., Ill., '01
Brown, J. B., Minn., '01
Brown, J. L., Utah, '99
Brown, James V., Ala., '06
Brown, John A., N. H., '99
Brown, John F., Wyo., '96
Brown, J. Stanley, Ill., '97
Brown, Marion, La., '89
Brown, R. E., N. Y., '05
Brown, Timothy O., La., '06
Brown, Wm. W., Pa., '06
Browne, Robert L., N. Y., '05
Browning, Lucy E., Ill., '02
Brownscombe, Fred J., Vt., '05
Brownson, E. R., N. Dak., '02
Brownson, Wm. H., Maine. '06
Brubacher, A. R., N. Y., '06
Brubaker, Wm. B., N. Y., '05
Bruce, Wm. G., Wis., '93
Brumbaugh, G. W., Ohio, '96
Brumbaugh, M. G., Pa., '93
Brundage, Howard D., Wis., '05
Brunner, Beulah, Mo., '04
Brunyate, Josephine K., N. J., '05
Bryan, Elmer B., Ind., '04
Bryan, Jas. E., N. J., '02
Bryan, Wm. J. S., Mo., '99
Bryan, Wm. L., Ind., '93
Bryant High School, New York, N. Y., '05
Bryant, Miss C. L., Colo., '99
Bryant, Forrest B., Ohio, '01
Bryant, Jas. C., Cal., '02
Bryant. W. H. H., Mass., '05
Bryn Mawr Coll., Pa., '99
Bryson Library, Teachers' Coll., N. Y., '98
Buchanan, Geo. V., Mo., '04
Buchanan, J. E., Wash., '04
Buchanan, John T., N. Y., '90
Buchholz, L. W., Fla., '98
Buchner, Edward F., Ala., '04
Buck, B. F., Ill., '03
Buck, Geo.. Ohio, '06
Buck, P. M., Jr., Mo., '04
Buckelew, Sarah F., N. Y., '03
Buckwalter, Geoffrey, Pa., '05
Budd, Mrs. Nellie M., Minn., '01
Budde, Clarmae, Iowa, '02
Buehrle, R. K., Pa., '92
Buffalo Pub. Library, N. Y., '99
Buffum, Hugh S., Iowa, '06
Bugbee, Percy I., N. Y., '01
Bunnell, Elizabeth H., N. Y., '05
Burchell, D. Earle, Wis., '01
Burdett, James H., Mass., '03
Burdick, A. Hall, N. Y., '92
Burge, Ethelda, Iowa, '03
Burgert, Geo., Nebr., '06
Burgess, I. B., Ill., '99
Burgess, Theodore C., Ill., '04
Burk, Frederic, Cal., '02
Burke, J. E., Mass., '95
Burke, Robert E., Mass., '06
Burks, J. D., N. Y., '99
Burleson, D. S., Ala., '06
Burley, John S., Mass., '05
Burlingame, Menzo, N. Y., '03
Burnham, Ernest, Mich., '01
Burnham, Smith, Pa., '01
Burnham, Wm. H., Mass., '04
Burnham, W. R., Conn., '99
Burns, G. W., Ohio, '00
Burns, James A., D. C., '02
Burns, J. J., Ohio, '80
Burr, Henry T., Conn., '03
Burrell, Helen M., Mo., '04
Burris, Wm. P., Ohio, '95
Burritt, Olin H., N. Y., '03
Burrough, Clara S., N. J., '05
Burrough, Mary A., N. J., '05
Burroughs, A. P., N. Y., '03
Burruss, J. A., Va., '06
Burton, Alfred E., Mass., '03
Bush, Edward, N. Y., '05
Bush, Ira B., W. Va., '05
Bushey, A. H., Kans., 05
Bushnell, H. T., Iowa, '97
Butler College, Ind., '00
Butler, Arthur P., N. J., '03
Butler, H. G., Ill., '02
Butler, Nathaniel, Ill., '06
Butler, Nicholas M., N. Y., '85
Butler, S. R., Ala., '02
Butler, W. D., Tex., '02
Butler, Wm. D., Mo., '04
Butler, Wm. M., Mo., '04
Butte Free Pub. Lib., Mont., '00
Butterfield, K. L., Mass., '03
Buttner, Louis N., Cal., '05
Button, Wm. J., Ill., '96
Buttrick, Wallace, N. Y., '02
Buxton, Geo. F., Wis., '05
Buzzaird, Harry O., Ind., '04
Byrne, Christopher J., Ill., '06
Byrnes, James C., N. Y., '05
Cable, Jessie A., Mo., '04
Cabot, Mrs. Ella L., Mass., '03
Cabot, Stephen P., Mass., '03
Cadman, W. S., Ohio, '04
Cadwallader, Starr, Ohio, '02
Cain, A. W., Texas, '04
Cain, Emily, Ohio, '05
Cairns, Mrs. Anna S., Mo., '04
Caldwell, B. C., La., '96
Caldwell, H. W., Nebr., '96
Caldwell, J. H., Ark., '01
Caldwell, Otis W., Ill., '02
Calhoun, John C., Fla., '03
California State Library, '99
Call, Arthur D., Conn., '98
Callahan, John, Wis., '04
Callahan, Henry W., Colo., '03
Callahan, Katharine R., N. Y., '03
Calumet & Hecla Mining Co., Lib'y, Mich., '02
Cambridge Pub. Lib'y, Mass., '02
Cammack, Ira I., Mo., '95
Camp, Anna R., Wis., '02
Camp, David N., Conn., '79
Campbell, A. G., Kans., '86
Campbell, E. M., Can., '03
Campbell, Mary R., Wis., '02
Campbell, W. H., Ill., '95
Campbell, Wm. A., N. Y., '05
Canfield, Jas. H., N. Y., '84
Canisius College, N. Y., '02
Cannon, Geo. L., Colo., '95
Cannon, Honora D., Cal., '99
Canty, Margaret, Wis., '05
Cardiff Free Public Libraries Wales, '00
Carey, C. E., Ohio, '95
Carfrey, J. H., Mass., '97
Cargo, R. M., Pa., '96
Carhart, Paul W., Mass., '05
Carle, Ethel, W. Va., '06

Carleton Coll. Lib'y, Minn., '03
Carlson, Alfred C., Idaho, '02
Carman, Adelaide, Ind., '03
Carman, E. Kate, Ind., '03
Carman, Geo. N., Ill., '00
Carn, W. D., Fla., '04
Carnegie Lib'y, Allegheny, Pa., '01
Carnegie Lib'y, Braddock, Pa., '02
Carnegie Lib'y, Bradford, Pa., '02
Carnegie Lib'y, Fort Worth, Tex., '06
Carnegie Lib'y, Homestead, Pa., '06
Carnegie Lib'y, Iron Mountain, Mich., '06
Carnegie Lib'y, Nashville, Tenn., '06
Carnegie Lib'y, Pittsburg, Pa., '99
Carnegie Lib'y, San Antonio, Tex., '03
Carnell, Laura H., Pa., '03
Caroland, May R., Pa., '05
Carpenter, Estelle, Cal., '01
Carpenter, J. H., Wis., '84
Carr, James M., Ohio, '98
Carr, John P., Miss., '06
Carr, John W., Ohio, '97
Carr, Mary E., Mo., '04
Carrick, C. H., Mich., '06
Carrier, F. W., Vt., '03
Carrington, W. T., Mo., '99
Carroll Sch. Patrons' Asso., Mo. '04
Carroll, C. F., N. Y., '95
Carson, C. H., Jr., La., '00
Carson, Lucy H., Mont., '04
Carter, Charles M., Colo., '03
Carter, Harriet I., Minn., '06
Carter, Joseph, Ill., '99
Cary, C. P., Wis., '97
Case, Richard, N. J., '94
Casey, W. V., Colo., '95
Cassady, Elizabeth, N. J., '05
Cassidy, H. A., Ohio, '05
Caterson, Eliza A., N. Y., '01
Cates, E. E., N. Y., '98
Catholic Univ. of America, D. C., '06
Cattell, J. McK., N. Y., '03
Cavalier, Louise, S. Dak., '04
Caviness, A. L., Nebr., '01
Center Sch., Bloomfield, N. J., '05
Cent. St. Nor. Sch., Mich., '02
Cent. St. Nor. Sch., Pa., '06
Chace, Seth H., Mass., '03
Chadsey, Chas. E., Colo., '95
Challman, S. A., Minn., '02
Chalmers, W. W., Ohio, '95
Chamberlain, A. H., Cal., '07
Chamberlain, Geo. A., Wis., '04
Chamberlain, J. A., D. C., '03
Chamberlain, James F., Cal., '05
Chamberlain, S. Belle, Idaho, '06
Chamberlain, Wm. H., Ill., '05
Chambers, Mrs. Mary D., Ill., '05
Chambers, Will G., Colo., '01
Champion, Anna B., Ill., '06
Champlin, Howard, Ohio, '96
Chancellor, Wm. E., D. C., '00
Chandler, J. A. C., N. Y., '04
Chandler, John W., N. Y., '90
Chaney, Lucien W., Minn., '02
Chaney, N. H., Ohio, '00
Chapin, E. P., Ky., '01
Chapman, C. B., Ga., '05
Chapman, Edith H., Pa., '03
Chapman, F. E., Mass., '94
Chapple, B. P., Minn., '03
Charles, Fred. L., Ill. '06
Charlton, Laura, N. Y., '05
Charters, W. W., Minn., '06
Chase, Lucy M., N. J., '05
Chase, Susan F., N. Y., '98
Chase, Wayland J., Ill., '99
Chatfield, George H., N. Y., '05
Cheever, W. H., Wis., '96
Cheney, Francis J., N. Y., '91
Cheney, H. C., Ill., '01
Cherry, H. H., Ky., '06
Cherry, T. C., Ky., '05
Chevalier, W. F., Iowa, '02
Chicago Pub. Library, Ill., '98
Chickering, John J., N. Y., '02
Childs, Ernest W., Ga., '03
Chilton, Carroll B., N. Y., '05
Chittenden, M. D., Vt., '03
Chrisman, Oscar, Ohio, '03
Christ, Helen C., Mich., '03
Christie, James H., N. J., '06
Christenberry, D. P., Ala., '99
Christenson, D. H., Utah, '01
Chubb, Edwin W., Ohio., '05
Chubb, Percival, N. Y., '05
Church, Emma M., Ill., '05
Church, Geo. E., R. I., '92
Church, Harry V., Ill., '06
Churchill, J. O., Cal., '97
City Lib'y, Manchester, N. H., '06
City Lib'y, Springfield, Mass., '98
Clagg, J. Henry, Mass., '03
Clair, Francis R., N. Y., '94
Clair Sub-Dist. Sch., Pa., '06
Clancy, Albert W., Minn., '00
Clancy, Noel J., Tex., '97
Clapp, George I., Mass., '03
Clark University, Mass., '05
Clark, A. L., Iowa, '06
Clark, Edward O., Mass., '98
Clark, Eliza L., Mass., '03
Clark, Frances E., Wis., '02
Clark, Frank H., Colo., '86
Clark, Mrs. Ida H., Wis., '00
Clark, James E., N. Mex., '03
Clark, Jane E., Ala., '03
Clark, John H., N. Y., '05
Clark, L. H., Wis., '84
Clark, Mary J., Ill., '03
Clark, Mary L., Ind., '06
Clark, M. G., Ill., '06
Clark, Reed P., Ohio, '03
Clark, W. A., Nebr., '95
Clarke, Elva E., Kans., '94
Clarke, Ernest P., Mich., '01
Clarke, Francis D., Mich., '97
Class Tchrs. Organiz. of Brooklyn, N. Y., '05
Classen, Mrs. A. W. H., Cal., '89
Claxton, P. P., Tenn., '98
Clayton, R. A., Ala., '03
Clemmons, Wm. H., Nebr., '05
Clemo, T. W., Mich., '06
Clemson Agri. Coll., S. C., '02
Clendenen, T. C., Ill., '97
Cleveland Pub. Lib'y, Ohio, '97
Cleveland, Leslie L., N. H., '03
Clifford, Chas. C., Ind., '06
Clifford, W. N., Iowa, '05
Clifton, Harry T., Cal., '05
Clinger, D. S., Ky., '05
Clinton, Geo. W., N. C., '02
Clopper, E. N., Porto Rico, '06
Clough, Burton M., Mass., '03
Cloyd, David E., Wash., '02
Clum, George V., Ill., '99
Clum, John E., Ill., '04
Cobb, Chas. N., N. Y., '94
Cobb, H. E., Ill., '03
Cobb, Matie A., Ill., '04
Cobb, Richard, Mass., '02
Coblentz, Oscar B., Md., '06
Coburn Lib'y of Colo. Coll., '05
Coburn, F. F., Mass., '99
Coburn, Oscar E., N. Y., '05
Coburn, Wm. G., Mich., '95
Cochran, R. A., Mich., '02
Cochrane, W. E., N. Y., '98
Coddington, A. O., Ill., '93
Coddington, E. A., P. I., '00
Cody, Alvin N., Mich., '04
Coe College, Iowa, '03
Coe, Emily M., Cal., '80
Coe, George A., Ill., '03
Coe, Ida, N. Y., '05
Coffin, C. W. D., N. Y., '00
Coffin, Mary E., N. J., '05
Coffman, Lotus D., Ind., '02
Cogswell, Hamlin E., Pa., '05
Cohn, Louis B., N. Y., '05
Colburn, Jessie B., N. Y., '05
Colburn, Mina B., Ohio, '06
Colby, E. C., N. Y., '96
Colby, Thomas, N. J., '05
Cole, Aaron H., Ill., '02
Cole, Chas. H., Mich., '98
Cole, Chas. W., N. Y., '92
Cole, Stonewall J., Ala., '03
Cole, Wm. H., Ohio, '70
Colgate University, N. Y., '02
Coleman, Antoinette, Mo., '04
Coleman, John T., S. C., '00
Coley, Sarah E., N. Y., '05
Colfax Sub-Dist. Sch., Pittsburgh, Pa., '06
College, Agri., of Kans., '97
College of Agri. of R. I., '03
College of the City of New York, '06
College, Amherst, Mass., '97
College, Bellevue, Nebr., '97
College, Boston, Mass., '97
College, Brig. Young, Utah, '98
College, Bryn Mawr, Pa., '99
College, Butler, Ind., '00
College, Canisius, N. Y., '02
College, Conn. Agri., '99
College, Davidson, N. C., '06
College, Dickinson, Pa., '99
College, Emory, Ga., '01
College, Ga. Nor. and Indust., '06
College, Geneva, Pa., '06
College for Tchrs., Geo. Peabody, Tenn., '04
College, Hendrix, Ark., '97
College, Hillsdale, Mich., '00
College of the Holy Cross, Mass., '01
College, Iowa, Grinnell, '00
College, Iowa State, Ames, '01
College, Lake Erie, Ohio, '06
College, Lincoln, Ill., '97
College, Manhattan, N. Y., '06
College, Midland, Kans., '99
College, Montana State, '99
College, Mt. Holyoke, Mass., '02
College, Pennsylvania State, '00
College, Pomona, Cal., '99
College, Radcliffe, Mass., '05
College, Ripon, Wis., '02
College, Rockford, Ill., '04
College of St. Francis Xavier, N. Y., '00
College, Smith, Mass., '98
College, South Carolina, '02
College, South Dak. Agri., '99
College, State, of Washington, '05
College, Vassar, N. Y., '98
College, Wabash, Ind., '95
College, Waynesburg, Pa., '02
College, Wellesley, Mass., '00
College, Wells, N. Y., '06
College, Wheaton, Ill., '99
College, Whitman, Wash., '01
College, Williams, Mass., '97
College, Woman's, Md., '99
Collicott, Jacob G., Ind., '05
Collin, C. O. L., Mass., '03
Collins, A. Harvey, Cal., '06
Collins, C. I., Mich., '03
Collins, Ed. D., Vt., '06
Collins, Edward E., S. Dak., '99
Collins, Frank H., N. Y., '04
Collins, Halsey M., N. Y., '02
Collins, J. H., Ill., '95
Collins, John E., Ohio, '06
Collins, John S., Mo., '97
Collins, Jos. V., Wis., '05
Collins, Maria C., Ohio, '03
Collins, Nellie C., Ill., '02
Collister, Laura K., Ohio, '06
Columbia Coll. of Express., Ill., '02
Columbia University, N. Y., '95
Colwell, Nathan P., Ill., 06
Comings, Fannie S., N. Y. '95

Comstock, C. E., Ill., '03
Comstock, E. H., Minn., '01
Comstock, T. B., Cal., '95
Conant, Osmyn P., N. Y., '03
Conant, Roger L., Porto Rico, '05
Conard, H. E., Ohio, '04
Conaty, Thomas J., Cal., '03
Condon, Randall J., Mont., '01
Congdon, C. H., Ill., '94
Congdon F. K., Mass., '06
Conkling, W. E., Mich., '96
Conlin, Francis J., Mass., '03
Conn, G. W., Jr., Ill., '03
Connecticut Agri. College, '99
Connelley, C. B., Pa., '01
Conniff, John R., La., '01
Connolly, John M., Mass., '03
Connors, Alice M., Mo., '04
Conrow, Elizabeth, N. Y., '05
Conrow, Georgiana, N. Y., '05
Conroy, John P., N. Y., '03
Converse, F. E., Wis., '97
Conway, Ella, N. Y., '05
Conway, Thos. W., Okla., '06
Conwell, Russell H., Pa., '01
Cook, A. D., Wyo., '06
Cook, Albert P., Mich., '01
Cook, Albert S., Md., '02
Cook, Chas. F., N. H., '98
Cook, E. H., Pa., '85
Cook, Elizabeth B., Ill., '96
Cook, Fayette L., S. Dak., '75
Cook, Francis E., Mo., '02
Cook, Geo. B., Ark., '95
Cook, H. Moreland, Wash., '01
Cook, Homer L., Ind., '05
Cook, Ida M., Ill., '99
Cook, John W., Ill., '90
Cook, Webster, Mich., '01
Cookson, Charles W., Ohio, '06
Cooley, Anna M., N. Y., '04
Cooley, Mrs. A. W., N. Dak., '96
Cooley, E. G., Ill., '97
Cooley, F. W., Ind., '95
Cooley, L. C., N. Y., '96
Cooley, Robert L., Wis., '05
Coombs, John H., Utah, '06
Cooper, Clara F., Nebr., '04
Cooper, F. B., Wash., '94
Cooper, F. I., Mass., '93
Cooper, J. W., Pa., '06
Cooper, Milton C., Pa., '01
Cooper, O. H., Tex., '94
Coover, John E., Cal., '05
Coover, Nathaniel, Kans., '86
Cope. Henry F., Ill., '06
Cope, W. P., Ohio, '03
Copeland, Chas. H., Ind., '99
Corbett, Henry R., Ill., '90
Corbly, Lawrence J., W. Va., '02
Corcoran, John B., N. Y., '06
Cording, Agnes A., N. Y., '03
Corl, Frederick J., Ky., '04
Corlett, Bessie M., Ohio. '06
Cornell Univ. Library, N. Y., '96
Corney, Evie, N. Y., '05
Cornish, Wm. A., N. Y., '03
Cornman, O. P., Pa., '03
Corson, David B., N. J., '05
Corson, O. T., Ohio, '87
Corthell, W. J., Maine, '92
Cosner, Lottie M., Ohio, '03
Cottingham, Wm. W., Pa., '06
Cotton, F. A., Ind., '98
Cottrell, John B., N. Y., '05
Coughlan, Dora M., N. Y., '05
Coultas, W. W., Ill., '06
Coulter, Minnie, Cal., '99
Coultrap, F. S., Ohio, '00
Co. Teachers' Asso., Wis., '84
Cousins, R. B., Texas, '04
Covey, Claude C., Oregon, '01
Cowles, Dudley R., N. Y., '01
Cowles, Emma M., Wis., '03
Cowles. Pearl R., N. J., '06
Cox, Edwin B., Ohio, '89
Cox, E. Morris, Cal., '96
Cox, Henry C., Ill., '95
Cox, Jean W., N. J., '97
Cox, Martin L., N. J., '05
Cox, Mrs. Mary J., Tex., '03
Coy, E. W., Ohio, '83
Coyne, Francis R., Pa., '06
Crabbe, J. G., Ky., '97
Crabbe, Lelia B., Mich., '03
Crabtree, J. W., Nebr., '95
Craig, Arthur U., D. C., '99
Craig, Katherine L., Colo., '04
Craig, Oscar J., Mont., '92
Craighead, E. B., La., '02
Cram, Nathan D., N. Y., '05
Cramer, W. F., Iowa, '00
Crampton, C. Ward, N. Y., '03
Crandall, Benj. R., Wyo., '03
Crandall, D. A., R. I., '03
Crane, Cornelia S., Ill., '97
Crane, F. E., Ohio, '01
Crane, Frank, S. Dak, '95
Crane, Harriet B., N. J., '05
Crane, Julia E., N. Y., '95
Crane, Wm. A., N. Y., '05
Cranston, John A., Cal., '04
Cranston, R. W., Minn., '96
Crawford, Agnes M., N. J., '05
Crawford, J. Forsyth, Nebr., '05
Crawford, Wm. A., Ark., '06
Crawford, Wm. C., Mass., '03
Crawshaw, Fred D., Ill., '01
Cregin, Rufina A., N. Y., '05
Creighton Univ., Nebr., '03
Crider, W. X., N. Y., '05
Crissy, I. O., N. Y., '98
Crist, Henry M., N. Y., '96
Crist, W. James, N. J., '05
Critchett, E. T., Minn., '98
Crittenton, Lillie, Ill., '02
Crockett, May M., Ill., '95
Crone, John V., Colo., '02
Crone, R. B., Iowa, '04
Cronebaugh, C. L., Ohio, '99
Croner, Sara E., Pa., '06
Cronson, Bernard, N. Y., '05
Crooker, F. F., N. Y., '05
Crooks, H. M., Oregon, '03
Cropsey, Miss N., Ind., '91
Crosby, Dick J., D. C., '01
Crosby, W. E., N. Y., '70
Crosier, Merton E., Iowa. '06
Cross, J. G., Cal., '99
Croswell, Thos. R., Cal., '02
Crouch, Sarah E., Mo., '95
Crouse, Mrs. J. N., Ill., '93
Crouter, A. L. E., Pa., '00
Crowell, Geo. H., N. C., '98
Crowley, Kate E., Mo., '04
Cruikshank, Jas., N. Y., '57
Cubberly, E. P., Cal., '94
Culbertson, E. D. Y., Iowa, '95
Cullen, Chas. E., Mich., '04
Cully, H. H., Ohio, '02
Cumberland Valley St. Nor. Sch., Pa., '06
Cummings, Edw. P., Mich., '01
Cummings, Horace H., Utah, '05
Cummings, M. W., Pa., '06
Cummings, W. H., N. H., '03
Cummins, J. P., Ohio, '00
Cunningham, Catherine A., Mo. '04
Cunningham, J. B., Ala., '95
Cunningham, R. J., Mont., '04
Cuno, Annie E., Mo., '04
Curran, Ulysses T., Ohio, '66
Currier, C. F. A., Mass , '00
Currier, E. H., N. Y., '97
Curry, James S., Ohio, '03
Curtis High School, New York, N. Y., '05
Curtis Sch., New York, N. Y., '03
Curtis, A. E., Mich., '96
Curtis, Chester B., Mo., '04
Curtis, Fanniebelle, N. Y., '05
Curtis, Geo. H., Mich., '05
Curtis, J. W., Phil. Is., '03
Curtis, Virgil G., Pa., '92
Curtis, Wilbur R., Ind., '06
Cushing, Grafton D., Mass., '03
Cushman, Lillian S., Ill., '03
Cutler, H. F., Mass., '02
Cutter, Irving S., Nebr., '02
Dabney, C. W., Ohio, '99
Dafoe, Geo. Eber, Wis., '97
Dailey, M. E., Cal., '98
Dakin, Mrs. Esse B., Ind., '01
Dalborg, Mats, Sweden, '04
Daly, Elizabeth F., Ill., '05
Daly, Ida M., D. C., '05
Dalyrmple, C. M., N. J., '05
Dana, Fenella, Kans., '95
Daniels, J. W., Idaho, '98
Danielsson, Anna H. J., Sweden, '04
Dann, Hollis E., N. Y., '02
Darling, Frank W., Ill., '01
Darst, Warren, Ohio, '01
Dartmouth Coll. Lib'y, N. H., '02
Dartt, Morton L., Ohio, '03
Davenport Pub. Lib'y. Iowa, '06
Davey, Vernon L., N. J., '00
Davidson, Chas. C., Ohio, '80
Davidson College, N. C., '06
Davidson, Margaret, N. Y., '05
Davidson, Wm. M., Nebr., '90
Davis, Allan, D. C., '95
Davis, B. C., Ga., '03
Davis, B. M., Ohio. '01
Davis, Boothe C., N. Y., '96
Davis, Charles S., Okla., '01
Davis, Emma C., Ohio, '94
Davis, F. Dayton, Mich., '04
Davis, George A., Ohio, '04
Davis, Geo. S., N. Y., '96
Davis, Geo. W., Ill., '96
Davis, K. C., Wis., '05
Davis, Mrs. M. M., N. Dak., '02
Davis, Mrs. M. R. G., Conn., '02
Davis, Thomas W., Mass., '03
Davis, T. S., Pa., '05
Davis, Wm. Harper, Pa., '03
Davis, Wm. Holmes, Va., '03
Davis, W. M., Mass., '99
Davison, Frank P., Mass., '01
Dawson, Edgar, N. J., '05
Dawson, George E., Mass., '03
Dawson, H. T., N. Y., '95
Dayhoff, I. L., Kans., '02
Dayton Pub. Lib'y, Ohio, '03
Deahl, J. N., W. Va., '96
Dean, H. A., Ill., '04
Dean, S. H., Pa., '06
Deane, Chas. H., Wash., '04
Deane, Chas. W., Conn., '89
Deane, William J., N. Y., '06
Dearborn, Rufus J., Ind., '00
Dearborn, Walter F., Wis., '05
Dearmont, W. S., Mo., '09
Dearness, F. W., Ohio, '01
Deatrick, W. W., Pa., '92
De Camp, John A., Mass., '05
Decker, Geo. W., Utah, '04
DeGarmo, Chas., N. Y., '89
Deighton, Ida M., N. Y., '06
De Laguna. Theodore, Mich., '06
Delamain, Henry, N. Y., '05
Delano, Edward C., Ill., '95
Delany, Faustin S., Ky., '02
Dell, J. G., Pa., '06
DeLoach, R. J. H., Ga., '04
Demarest, J. B. T., N. Y., '00
Demarest, Peter E., N. Y., '05
Dempsey, Clarence H., Vt., '03
Denbigh, John H., N. Y., '05
Denfeld, Robt. E., Minn., '90
Denison Univ. Lib'y, Ohio, '00
Dennis, Chas. E., Jr., R. I., '02
Denny, Winfield A., Ind., '05
Denton, Lewis H., N. Y., '05
Denton, Minna C., Ill., '03
Dept. of Ed., N. Y., '01
Dept. of Ed., Nova Scotia, '02
Dept. of Ed., Ontario, '02
Dept. of Ed., Porto Rico, '02
Dept. of Ed., Texas, '06
Dept. of Pub. Instr., Ill., '99

Dept. of Pub. Instr., Mich., '02
Dept. of Pub. Instr., Minn., '01
Dept. of Pub. Instr., Nebr., '01
Dept of Pub. Instr., N. Dak., '02
Dept. of Pub. Instr., Va., '05
Dept. of St. Comm'r of Com. Schs. Ohio, '06
Deputy, M. W., Ind., '01
Dern, Mary E. Höhn, Mass., '03
De Turck, W. E., Pa., '06
Deupree, J. G., Miss., '97
Devlin, Bernard J., N. Y., '05
Devlin, Michael E., N. Y., '05
Devoe, Agnes B., N. Y., '05
Dewey, Charles O., N. Y., '03
Dewey, John, N. Y., '97
Dewey, Melvil, N. Y., '02
DeWitt Clinton H. Sch., N.Y., '03
Dexter, E. G., Ill., '98
Dial, S. T., Ohio, '95
Dick, Archibald M., N. J., '06
Dick, Fred, Colo., '95
Dick, Wallace P., Pa., '05
Dickerman, Quincy E., Mass., '03
Dickey, C. L., Ohio, '95
Dickey, Homer B., Ind., '02
Dickinson College, Pa., '99
Dickinson, Frances, Ill., '01
Dickinson, H. N., N. Y., '03
Dickman, J. W., Iowa, '02
Diekenga, Fannie E., Mo., '04
Dietrich, Geo. C., Ohio, '03
Dietrich, John, Colo., '95
Dietrick, W. J., Pa., '05
Dignon, Kate, Wis., '05
Dike, Cornelia A., N. Y., '03
Dill, Joseph M., Ala., '01
Dillin, Susan A., Ohio, '04
Dillon, Mrs. Sarah E., Mo., '04
Dillman, L. M., Ill., '86
Dimick, Orlando W., Mass., '03
Dinsmore, J. W., Ky., '98
Ditchburn, Robt. F., Pa., '06
Dix, Wm. T., Ill., '96
Dixon, B. V. B., La., '97
Dixon, Julia C., N. Y., '03
Doane College, Nebr., '03
Doane, Letitia L., Ill., '97
Dobbs, Ella V., Cal., '04
Dockrill, Jas. C., Ill., '01
Dodge, M. Luella, Ill., '97
Dodge, R. E., N. Y., '98
Dodge, Wm. C., Ill., '96
Donnell, B. H., Cal., '03
Donnelly, Teresa J., Ill., '03
Donohue, Mrs. Mary C., N. Y., '05
Donohue, Thomas M., N. Y., '04
Donovan, Timothy F., N. Y., '05
Donovan, W. N., Mass., '03
Doty, John, N. Y., '03
Dougherty, Mabel E., Ill., '96
Doughty, Walter F., Tex., '06
Douglass, S. A., Mo., '04
Douthett, A. T., Pa., '01
Douthett, Thos. D., Ohio, '05
Dow, Jas. J., Minn., '96
Dowell, Philip, N. Y., '05
Downes, Frederick E., Pa., '05
Downey, I. A., Nebr., '06
Downing, A. S., N. Y., '01
Downing, M. W., N. Y., '01
Doyle, Margaret L., Mass., '03
Doyle, Mary E., Wis., '01
Doyne, John J., Ark., '06
Drake, Ellis H., Ind., '02
Draper, Andrew S., N. Y., '88
Draper, Frank O., R. I., '03
Dreher, E. S., S. C., '96
Dresser, Mrs. A. W., N. J., '99
Drew, Frank, Mass., '03
Driehaus, Irwin W., N. Y., '05
Driscoll, Frances M., N. Y., '05
Driscoll, John J., N. Y., '05
Droppers, Garrett, Ill., '03
Drought, Caroline A., Md., '04
Drushel, A. W., Conn., '02
Drushel, J. A., Mo., '05
Du Bose, Joel C., Ala., '06
Dudgeon, R. B., Wis., '94
Dudley, B. F., La., '06
Duffy, Julia F., Ill., '05
Duggan, S. P., N. Y., '06
Duke, Josephine G., Pa., 05
Dunbar, Wm. F., N. Y., '05
Duncan, Geo. W., Ala., '05
Duncan, James J., S. Dak., '03
Dunhaupt, R. C. F., Mo., '04
Dunlevy, Wm. P., Mass., '03
Dunphy, A. E., N. Dak., '02
Dunton, Charles H., Vt., '01
Dunton, Lewis M., S. C., 05
Du Rie, W. B., N. J., '05
Dutcher, Edw. H., N. J., '99
Dutton, Bettie A., Ohio, '80
Dutton, Chas. F., Jr., Ohio, '01
Dutton, S. T., N. Y., '95
Duval, Maria P., Va., '03
Dwyer, John, N. Y., '03
Dwyer, Margaret, N. Y., '05
Dyche, J. E., Okla., '06
Dyer, F. B., Ohio, '96
Dyer, Frank R., Kans., '91
Dyer, Wm. C., Mo., '04
Dyke, Chas. B., Colo., '99
Dynes, Sarah A., N. J., '02
Dysart, Paul M., Pa., '05
Eakins, Mrs. Millie R., N. J., '96
Earhart, Gertrude, Wis., '02
Earhart, Lida B., N. Y., '02
Earl, Anita M., N. Y., '05
Earle, E. Lyell, N. Y., '05
Earley, Jennie A., Mo., '04
Earnest, W. W., Ill., '04
Earp, Edwin L., N. Y., '05
East. Dist. High Sch., New York, N. Y., '03
E. A. Stevens, G. Gr. Sch., Camden, N. J., '05
E. Ill. St. Nor. School, Ill., '99
Eastman, Wm. R., N. Y., '96
Easton, Warren, La., '95
East Orange Free Public Library, N. J., '04
East Orange High Sch., N. J., '05
E. St. Louis Public Lib'y, Ill., '04
Eaton, F. W., Conn., '03
Eaton, G. A., Utah, '01
Eaton, Ira T., Ill., '94
Eaton, Jeannette M., Pa., '03
Eaton, Roy W., Nebr., 05
Ebaugh, Z. C., Md., '97
Ebeling, Herman L., N. Y., '05
Eberhardt, J. F., Ill., '64
Eberth, Henry J., Ohio, '05
Eby, H. L., Ky., '06
Eccleston, Mrs. Sara C., Argentine Rep., '04
Eckard, Eliz. T., Pa., '05
Eddy, William H., R. I., '02
Eden, Philip, Wis., '84
Edgecomb, Flora F. T., Mass., '03
Edgerly, Jos. G., Mass., '96
Edmonds, F. S., Pa., '98
Edmondson, Mrs. Gertrude, Mo. '04
Edmund, Gertrude, Mass., '97
Edmunds, Henry H., Ill., '02
Edsall, James M., N. Y., '01
Edson, A. W., N. Y., '03
Educational Asso., N. Dak., '96
Educational Exchange, Ala., '06
Education Dept. of Ontario, Can., '02
Edwards, H. R., Minn., '97
Edwards, Thos. A., Pa., '05
Edwards, W. A., Cal., '99
Edwards, Wm. J., Ala., '03
Edwards, W. S., Cal., '99
Egan, J. B., Mass., '03
Eginton, Libbie J., N. Y., '04
Ehinger, Clyde E., Pa., '97
Ehrhart, W. N., Pa., '06
Eiche, Julia L., N. Y., '03
Eikenberry, W. L., Mo., '04
Elder, Ella C., N. Y., '96
Elder, E. W., Colo., '95
Eldridge, Edward H., Mass., '04
Elgas, Mathew J., N. Y., '91
Eliot, Chas. W., Mass., '92
Elkhart Carnegie Library, Ind., '04
Ellabarger, D. R., Ind., '03
Elliff, J. D., Mo., '98
Elliott, A. M., Md., '99
Elliott, C. H., Ill., '04
Elliott, E. C., Wis., '99
Elliott, J. F., Ala., '98
Elliott, L. F., Mass., '03
Elliott, Oliver M., Iowa, '06
Elliott, S. Maria, Mass., '03
Ellis, A. Caswell, Tex., '02
Ellis, Florence E., Ohio., '04
Ellis, Frank R., Ohio, '01
Ellis, George M., N. J., '05
Ellis, Griselda, N. J., '05
Ellis, John C., Ill., '87
Ellis, Leander D., Ill., '05
Ellis, Wm. Austin, Mich., '87
Ellsworth, Henry W., N. Y., '96
Ellsworth, Jesse A., Cal., '01
Ellsworth, Sanford J., N. Y., '05
Elmer, Walter E., Wis., '05
Else, F. W., Iowa, '02
Elson, W. H., Ohio., '95
Ely, E. Antoinette, Ohio, '02
Ely, Sarah Y., N. J., '92
Elwood, DeWitt, Ill., '06
Emberson, R. H., Mo., '02
Emeline Fairbanks Mem. Lib'y, Terre Haute, Ind., '06
Emerson, Henry P., N. Y., '93
Emery, Grenville C., Cal., '04
Emery, Helen R., N. J., '05
Emery, John Q., Wis., '84
Emory College Lib'y, Ga., '01
English, Rebecca F., Cal., '88
Ennis, Laura J., N. J., '05
Ennis, Lydia K., N. J., '05
Enoch Pratt Free Lib'y, Baltimore, Md., '06
Enright, John, N. J., '03
Eppes, Edw. B., Fla., '05
Erasmus Hall H. Sch., N. Y., '03
Erie Public Library, Pa., '03
Ernst, Lillie R., Mo., '04
Errant, Joseph W., Ill., '00
Erskine, S. H., Vt., '03
Erwin, Mrs. Kate A., N. Y., '03
Eschbach, Allen G., Mo., '04
Esilman, Amoritta E., Mass., '03
Espada, E. V., Porto Rico, '06
Estee, Jas. A., N. Y., '96
Estes, Charles S., N. Y., '03
Ethical Culture Sch., N. Y., '05
Evans, A. Grant, Ind. T., '03
Evans, Charles, Ind. T., '03
Evans, Chas. H., Mo., '86
Evans, Elizabeth G., Ohio, '01
Evans, Geo. W., Mass., '03
Evans, Lawton B., Ga., '94
Evans, Margaret J., Minn., '05
Evans, W. G., La., '05
Evans, Wm. P., Mo., '98
Evans, Wm. W., Pa., '06
Evanston Free Pub. Lib'y, Ill., '02
Everett, Grace E., Cal., '03
Everett, John P., Mich., '01
Everett, L. E., Ohio, '02
Ewing, R. D., Colo., '99
Ewing, W. W., N. Dak., '01
Fagley, Fred L., Ind., '05
Failor, Isaac N., N. Y., '05
Fairchild, E. T., Kans., '86
Fairweather, Eliz. K., Ohio, '02
Falkinburg, J. O., Ohio, '03
Falkner, Roland P., P. R., '04
Fall, Delos, Mich., '97
Fallon, Ella A., N. Y., '03
Fant, John C., Miss., '97
Faris, John W., Idaho, '03
Farley, Anne J., N. Y., '97
Farley, D. H., N. J., '96
Farmer, A. N., Minn., '06

Farmer, Arthur E., S. Dak., '01
Farnham, Amos W., N. Y., '01
Farnsworth, Burt M., N. Y., '06
Farnsworth, Fannie P., Minn., '99
Farr, Frank D., Ill., '03
Farrand, Samuel A., N. J., '03
Farrand, Wilson, N. J., '95
Farrell, Edw. D., N. Y., '90
Farrell, Elizabeth E., N. Y., '05
Farrington, Efner A., Cal., '01
Farrington, Frederic E., Cal., '04
Far Rockaway High Sch., New York, N. Y., '05
Faulkner, R. D., Cal., '99
Faunce, Wm. H. P., R. I., '01
Fay, Charles S., Ohio, '01
Fay, Edw. A., D. C., '99
Fay, Mamie, N. Y., '03
Feagin, Wm. F., Ala., '05
Feek, Evelyne A., N. Y., '05
Felker, Allie M., Hawaii, '95
Fell, Anna M., N. J., '97
Fell, Thomas, Md., '98
Fellows, E. W., Iowa, '06
Fellows, Geo. E., Maine, '05
Felmley, David, Ill., '00
Fels, Maurice, Pa., '98
Fendley, J. M., Tex., '95
Fenlon, John F., D. C., '06
Fenton, Geo., N. Y., '92
Ferguson Library, Conn., '03
Ferguson, E. E., Mich., '96
Ferguson, S. J., Ill., '01
Fernald, M. C., Maine, '90
Fernald, W. E., Mass., '03
Ferris, Annette E., Colo., '03
Ferris, W. N., Mich., '99
Ferson, E. B., Ill., '03
Fett, Amalia, Mo., '04
Feussner, Mathilde, Mo., '04
Fick, Alma S., Ohio, '03
Fick, Edna H., Ohio, '03
Fickett, M. Grace, Maine, '03
Fielder, Edwin W., N. Y., '04
Fillmore, Nettie, Ohio, '00
Filer, Paul S., Wyo., '06
Finkler, Elizabeth G., Ill., '03
Finley, John H., N. Y., '96
Finn, Mrs. Lucinda B., N. Y., '05
Finnegan, Margaret L., Ill., '03
Fisher, A. G., Mass., '03
Fisher, C. Edward, R. I., '03
Fisher, Gilman C., Mich., '92
Fisher, H. B., Ill., '04
Fisher, H. W., Pa., '92
Fisher, Laura, Mass., '03
Fisk, Herbert F., Ill., '91
Fiske, Wilbur A., Ind., '01
Fitch, Edw. D., Pa., '05
Fitch, Ferris S., Ariz., '90
Fithian, Powell G., N. J., '05
Fitz Pub. Lib'y, Chelsea, Mass., '03
Fitz, Geo. W., Mass., '98
Fitzgibbon, T. F., Ind., '95
Fitzpatrick, F. A., Mass., '84
Fitzpatrick, Katharine A., Ill., '03
Flagg, Elizabeth G., Kans., '03
Flanagan, A., Ill., '01
Flannery, M. Jay, Ohio, '05
Fleisher, Daniel, Pa., '04
Fleming, Ada M., Ill., '02
Fleming, C. D., N. Y., '03
Fleming, Thos. R., Australia, '06
Fleshman, Arthur C., Ky., '94
Fletcher, Wm. T., Colo., '06
Flickinger, J. R., Pa., '98
Floyd, Charles L., Ala., '02
Floyd, Laura D., Ind., '98
Flushing High Sch., New York, N. Y., '05
Foerste, A. F., Ohio, '96
Fogg, Nathan, N. Y., '05
Folsom, Channing, N. H., '03
Fontaine, Camille, N. Y., '05
Foos, Charles S., Pa., '02
Foote, Mary C., Ill., '97
Forbes Library, Mass., '01
Forbes, Alexander, N. J., '76
Forbes, E. J., Australia, '01
Forbes, George M., N. Y., '02
Forbes, Stephen A., Ill., '03
Ford, Mary E., Md., '05
Fordham University, N. Y., '06
Foresman, H. A., Ill., '96
Foresman, Robt., N. Y., '96
Forrest, J. T., Wash., '95
Foshay, Jas. A., Cal., '93
Foster, Charles M., Mo., '04
Foster, Clara A., N. Y., '05
Foster, Edwin W., N. Y., '03
Foster, Geo. K., N. Dak., '03
Foster, James H., Ala., '03
Foster, W. R., Ill., '06
Foust, J. I., N. C., '05
Fowler, W. K., Nebr., '92
Fox, Wm. F., Va., '94
Francis, Cecilia A., N. Y., '05
Francis, J. H., Cal., '99
Franck, Augusta L., Cal., '01
Frank, Harrison L., Ohio, '99
Franklin, Cornelius E., N. Y., '05
Franklin, Geo. A., Minn., '97
Fraser, Mrs. N. L. D., Hawaii,
Fraser, Wm. I., Mont., '02
Frazee, Geo. B., Ky., '05
Frazee, Victor, R. I., '96
Frazier, Chas. R., Minn., '01
Frederick, J. M. H., Ohio, '01
Frederick, O. G., Mich., '00
Freeman, J. Arthur, Mo., '04
Freeman, J. H., Ill., '95
Freeman, John T., N. Y., '98
Freeman, L. A., Mass., '03
Freer, H. H., Iowa, '84
French, Harlan P., N. Y., '01
French, H. Delmar, N. Y., '03
French, John D., Nebr., '99
French, John S., Md., '03
French, O. E., Iowa, '95
Fricks, J. M., Ala., '06
Fripp, Jos. A., N. Y., '05
Frissell, H. B., Va., '00
Froebel Nor. Inst., N. Y., '05
Frogge, S. L., Ky., '00
Frohard, Henrietta, Mo., '04
Frost, J. M., Mich., '97
Fruchte, Amelia C., Mo., '96
Fry, William W., Pa., '00
Frye, Alexis E., Cal., '03
Fuller, Geo. D., Can., '03
Fuller, Mrs. Hattie S., Minn., '01
Fuller, Sarah, Mass., '00
Fulk, Joseph R., Nebr., '06
Fulmer, C. A., Nebr., '02
Fulton Co. Bd. of Ed., Ga., '01
Fulton, Marion D., R. I., '03
Fulton, Robt. B., Va., '94
Fulton, W. L. Ohio, '96
Fultz, Francis M., Iowa, '01
Funk, Isaac K., N. Y., '05
Fuqua, James H., Sr., Ky., '03
Furst, Clyde, N. Y., '00
Fusch, Henry J., Ala., '04
Futrall, Thos. A., Ark., '87
Gabrio, Joseph B., Pa., '06
Gail Borden Pub. Lib'y, Ill., '01
Gaillard, Edw. W., N. Y., '05
Gallagher, Ellen M., N. Y., '05
Gallup, E. E., Mich., '01
Gambrill, J. M., Md., '04
Gammon, Mrs. M. D., Ill., '97
Gamwell, Irving H., Mass., '02
Gans, W. G., Pa., '05
Gantvoort, A. J., Ohio, '94
Gantz, Arthur L., Ohio, '06
Gardner, Arthur F., N. Y., '03
Gardner, Emma J., Wis., '05
Gardner, Maude, N. Y., '03
Gardner, W. H., Nebr., '01
Garlick, W. N., Wash., '05
Garrett, T. H., Ga., '03
Garrette, Irene, Iowa, '97
Garrigues, Josephine, Mo., '04
Garvin, John B., Colo., '95
Garwood, Ralph S., Mich., '0
Gass, H. A., Mo., '02
Gastman, E. A., Ill., '95
Gaston, Chas. R., N. Y., '01
Gates, Charles L., R. I., '03
Gates, Elmer, Md., '98
Gates, Merrill E., D. C., '99
Gault, F. B., S. Dak., '04
Gay, George E., Mass., '03
Gaylord, E. E., Mass., '02
Gaylord, Gertrude E., Mass., '04
Gaylord, J. S., Minn., '00
Geballe, Pauline L., N. Y., '05
Gehrand, G. W., Wis., '04
Geiger, F. P., Ohio, '00
Geiser, Rudolph, Minn., '05
Gen'l Education B'd, N. Y., '02
Gen'l Lib'y, Univ. of Mich., '98
Geneseo St. Nor. Sch., N. Y., '07
Geneva College, Pa., '06
Genthe, Martha Krug, Conn., '02
Gentle, Thomas H., Wis., '98
George, Almina, Mo., '06
Geo. Peabody Coll. for Tchrs., Tenn., '04
Geo. Washington Univ., D. C., '02
George, Edgar, Minn., '05
Georgia Nor. and Indust. Coll., Ga., '06
Gerling, Henry J., Mo., '04
German, Willard L., Ill., '06
Germann, Geo. B., N. Y., '98
Gerry, Harry M., Conn., '06
Gettemy, Mrs. M. E. F., Ill., '92
Getty, Irene L., Mich., '05
Gibbs, Delia, Mo., '04
Gibbs, Ellis B., Ind., '06
Gibson, A. Grace, N. Y., '05
Gibson, C. B., Ga., '98
Gibson, John A., Pa., '96
Gibson, Thomas L., Md., '06
Gibson, Wm. F., Conn., '03
Giddens, L. P., Ala., '00
Giddings, Margaret, Colo., '04
Gideon, Geo. D., Pa., '99
Gideon, A., Colo., '04
Gies, Fannie G., Minn., '01
Giffin, W. M., Ill., '95
Gilbert M. Simmons Lib'y, Wis., '03
Gilbert, C. B., N. J., '93
Gilbert, D. B., Nebr., '01
Gilbert, Isaac B., Mich., '05
Gilbert, Mrs. M. E., Ill., '99
Gilbert, Newell D., Ill., '95
Gilbert, Sarah H., Pa., '05
Gildemeister, Theda, Minn., '03
Gilhuly, S. B., N. J., '05
Gill, Laura D., N. Y., '03
Gillan, Silas Y., Wis., '95
Gillespie, Mary, Ill., '97
Gilley, Frank M., Mass., '02
Gilman, Daniel C., Md., '96
Gilmore, A. F., N. Y., '05
Gilpin, S. W., Minn., '02
Girls' High School, New York, N. Y., '05
Girton, Wm. W., S. Dak., '99
Given, Miss M. E., D. C., '01
Glass, Edward C., Va., '94
Gleason, Ronald P., Pa., '05
Glenn, A. D., Pa., '06
Glenn, Chas. B., Ala., '00
Glenn, G. R., Ga., '95
Glotfelter, J. H., Kans., '99
Glover, Nathan L., Ohio, '89
Gminder, A. J., Md., '98
Goble, William C., Ind., '03
Goddard, Carrie, Kans., '01
Goddard, Henry H., N. J., '05
Goebel, Emma C., Mo., '04
Goggin, Catherine, Ill. '98
Golden, H. W., Pa., '98
Goodknight, J. L., Ill., '95
Goodman, Chas. W., Ariz., '06
Goodman, Sarah B., Minn., '02
Goodnough, W. S., N. Y., '82
Goodrich, J. F., Mich., '01
Goodwin, E. J., N. Y., '03
Goodwin, E. R., Mass., '01
Goodwin, W. Grant, N. Y., '05

Gordon, David E., Mo., '04
Gordon, G. W., Tenn., '00
Gordy, U. L., Pa., '06
Gordy, W. F., Mass., '98
Gore, Willard C., Ill., '05
Gorton, Chas. E., N. Y., '96
Gould, R. R. N., Mich., '04
Gove, Aaron, Colo., '83
Gove, Mary A., Mass., '03
Gower, Hattie F., Cal., '99
Graham, Albert B., Ohio, '00
Graham, Guy H., Nebr., '04
Graham, Hugh A., Mich., '95
Graham, Jas. D., Cal., '99
Graham, Jeannette E., N. Y., '03
Graham, John Y., Ala., '03
Graham, N. M., Nebr., '06
Gram. Sch., J. W. Mickle, Camden, N. J., '05
Gram. Sch., Richard Fetters, Camden, N. J., '05
Grand Rapids Pub. Lib'y, Mich., '06
Granger, Ruth E., N. Y., '05
Grant, Forrest, N. Y., '05
Grant, Robert A., Mo., '04
Grape, Jacob, Md., '01
Gratz, Simon, Pa., '79
Grawn, Chas. T., Mich., '01
Gray, Andrew J., Jr., Va., '02
Gray, H. W., N. Y., '98
Gray, Nellie A., Wash., '06
Gray, Oliver E., Wis., '06
Gray, Temperance, N. Y., '05
Greeley, J. P., Cal., '88
Green, Clyde C., Pa. '06
Green, Jas. M., N. J., '92
Green, J. Kelso, Pa., '04
Green, Mary W., N. Y., '05
Green, S. M., Mo., '05
Greene, John A., N. Y., '93
Greenfield Pub. Lib'y, Mass., '06
Greening, Burton O., Minn., '04
Greenlee, L. C., Colo., '92
Greenman, A. V., Ill., '97
Greenwood, Geo. W., Va., '05
Greenwood, J. M., Mo., '86
Greer, John N., Minn., '04
Greeson, Wm. A., Mich., '06
Gregory, Benj. C., Mass., '04
Gregory, Christopher, N. J., '03
Grenelle, Wm. H., N. J., '05
Grenfell, Helen L., Colo., '99
Griffin, E. H., Md., '99
Griffin, I. C., N. C., '05
Griffin, John, N. Y., '05
Griffin, Mrs. Mary E., Mo., '01
Griffith, Carrie E., Mo., '04
Griffith, E. W., N. Y., '96
Griffith, Fannie B., Mo., '04
Griffith, George P., Nebr., '04
Griffith, L. H., Ill., '02
Griffith, Sallie W., Mo., '04
Griffith, W. W., Mo., '04
Griffiths, A. F., Hawaii, '03
Griffiths, G. C., Ill., '96
Griggs, Herbert, N. Y., '99
Griggs, Wm. C., Ala., '03
Grisham, G. N., Mo., '00
Griswold, Wells L., Ohio, '01
Groom, Bert E., N. Dak. '05
Gross, Magnus N., N. Y., '03
Groszmann, M. P. E., N. J., '94
Grote, Caroline, Ill., '01
Grove, Cyrus S., Ill., '06
Grove, J. H., Texas, '04
Grove, Lula C., Ind., '05
Grove, M. A., Pa., '97
Grove, W. D., Mo., '02
Grover, Edwin O., Ill., '00
Grussendorf, D. A., Minn., '98
Gruver, E. A., N. Y., '00
Gruver, Harvey S., Ohio, '04
Guerdan, Frances J., Mo., '04
Guilliams, J. M., Ky., '97
Guinther, I. C., Ohio., '00
Guitteau, Wm. R., Ohio, '06
Gulick, Luther H., N. Y., '03
Gulliver, Emma B., Mass., '03
Gunn, A. F., Cal., '99
Gunnels, H. C., Ala., '02
Gunnison, W. B., N. Y., '96
Guss, Roland W., Mass., '95
Gwinn, J. M., Mo., '03
Haddock, F. D., Ill., '02
Hadley, Caroline, Pa., '05
Hadley, Hiram, N. Mex., '01
Hadley, S. H., Pa., '05
Hagemann, J. A., Wis., '99
Hagerty, C. T., N. Mex., '95
Haggett, Geo. B., Nev., '97
Hahn, Henry H., Nebr., '02
Hahn, Ida, N. Y., '03
Haight, Adelaide, N. Y., '05
Haight, R. A., Ill., '95
Hailmann, W. N., Ill., '79
Hale, Elizabeth, N. Y., '06
Hale, Geo. D., N. Y., '91
Hale, Wm. G., Ill., '99
Haley, Margaret A., Ill., '01
Hall, Clarence M., Mass., '06
Hall, C. W., Minn., '02
Hall, Dana W., Ill., '01
Hall, Edwin H., Mass., '99
Hall, Frank H., Ill., '97
Hall, G. Stanley, Mass., '91
Hall, Mrs. Hiram, Mass., '03
Hall, Isaac Freeman, Mass., '95
Hall, John C., Ind, '04
Hall, John W., Ohio, '05
Hall, Loyal Freeman, Pa., '93
Hall, R. Eric, Fla., '05
Hall, Winfield S., Ill., '99
Halland, J. G., N. Dak., '97
Halleck, Reuben P., Ky., '97
Halsey, Rufus H., Wis., '95
Halsted, Harry H., N. Y., '05
Halvorsen, Olaf, Ariz., '06
Hamblin, Nathan C., Mass., '03
Hamilton, Arthur L., Cal., '06
Hamilton, J. M., Ohio, '00
Hamilton, J. W., Ind., '00
Hamilton, Matthew C., N. J., '05
Hamilton, R. I., Ind., '96
Hamilton, Samuel, Pa., '98
Hamilton, Walter I., Mass., '03
Hamilton, Wm., D. C., '98
Hamilton, W. E., Iowa, '06
Hamlin, Cyrus, Miss., '99
Hamman, G. R., Tex., '02
Hammel, J. C., Cal., '99
Hammel, W. C. A., N. C., '00
Hampton Institute, Va., '99
Hampton, Miss C., Fla., '00
Hancock, John A., Minn., '95
Hancock Sch. Faculty, Pittsburgh, Pa., '06
Hand, W. H., S. C., '96
Handler, Hannah, Ohio, '06
Haney, Jas. P., N. Y., '05
Hankinson, Frank, N. Y., '03
Hanley, Geo. L., N. Y., '05
Hanna, G. W., N. Dak., '00
Hanna, John C., Ill., '98
Hannum, Louise M., Colo., '06
Hanson, Margaret C., La., '05
Hanson, Willis E., Mich., '01
Hanszen, Oscar A., Tex., '04
Hanus, Paul H., Mass., '95
Hapgoods, Chicago, Ill., '06
Hapgoods, N. Y., '06
Hard, Henry E., N. Y., '05
Hard, Miron E., Ohio, '01
Hardie, J. H., Tex., '04
Harding, Frank F., N. Y., '03
Hare, Wm. B., Fla., '01
Harlan, B. B., Ohio, '01
Harlan, Richard D., Ill., '02
Harman, David A., Pa., '03
Harrington, C. H., Ill., '03
Harrington, C. L., N. Y., '98
Harrington, Mary T., N. Y., '05
Harris Inst. Lib'y, R. I., '99
Harris, Abram W., Ill., '98
Harris Ada Van Stone, N. Y., '95
Harris, Albert M., Tenn., '03
Harris, Alice L., Ind., '01
Harris, Edw. L., Ohio, '94
Harris, Edwin S., N. Y., '98
Harris, Eliza A., N. Y., '03
Harris, Elizabeth S., N. Y., '03
Harris, George, Mass., '03
Harris, Henry E., N. J., '93
Harris, James C., Ga., '99
Harris, James H., Minn., '98
Harris, Mary E., N. Y., '03
Harris, T. G., Tex., '95
Harris, Wm. T., D. C., '76
Harris, Wm. Taylor, Ohio, '06
Harrison, Elizabeth, Ill., '95
Hart, Albert B., Mass., '95
Hart, B. F., Ill., '02
Hart, Emma C., Cal., '03
Hart, Wm. P., Ind., '93
Hartford Theo. Sem., Conn., '02
Harthorn, Drew T., Maine, '03
Hartigan, Mary S. L., Ill., '95
Hartline, D. S., Pa., '05
Hartman, Carl, Texas, '05
Hartmann, Mary, Ill., '95
Hartranft, W. G., Cal., '02
Hartwell, Chas. S., N. Y., '02
Hartwell, S. O., Mich., '01
Harvard Coll. Lib'y, Mass., '95
Harvey, Anna E., N. Y., '04
Harvey, G. I., Ind. T., '86
Harvey, L. D., Wis., '84
Harvey, N. A., Mich., '97
Harwood, Jas. C., Va., '05
Harwood, Samuel E., Ill., '00
Haskins, C. H., Mass., '99
Hastings, Montana, Mo., '04
Hastings, Wm. W., Mass., '03
Hatch, Dorus R., Colo., '06
Hatch, W. E., Mass., '97
Hatch, W. H., Ill., '95
Hatch, Wm. M., Mass., '03
Haupert, Chas., Ohio, '93
Hausperger, Katharine, Mo., '05
Haven, Caroline T., N. Y., '96
Haven, W. L. R., N. J., '05
Haverhill Pub. Lib'y, Mass., '06
Haviland, Edw. W., Md., '06
Hawkins, Geo. K., N. Y., '00
Hawkins, C. W., N. Y., '05
Hawkins, W. J., Mo., '04
Hayden, H. B., Ill., '97
Hayden, P. C., Iowa, '05
Hays, Dudley G., Ill., '97
Hays, James L., N. J., '00
Hays, Willet M., D. C., '03
Hayward, Edw., N. Y., '95
Hayward, E. L., Mass., '03
Hayward, Emily A., Colo., '84
Hayward, Harriet S., Mass., '03
Hazard, Caroline, Mass., '03
Hazen, Lillian D., Cal., '99
Hazzard, W. C., Wis., '03
Healey, Horace G., N. Y., '05
Heape, Jos. R., Eng., '02
Hearn, Arthur E., Can., '02
Hearst Free Lib'y, S. Dak., '03
Heath, D. C., Mass., '03
Heaton, T. L., Cal., '99
Heatwole, Cornelius J., Tenn., '05
Hebden, Edwin, Md., '00
Hecker, Mrs. Atlanta E., Mo., '04
Heckman, S. B., N. Y., '01
Hedrick, Earle R., Mo., '04
Heermans, Josephine W., Mo., '96
Heeter, S. L., Minn., '05
Hefter, Celia, Ill., '01
Heidenis, Henry J., N. Y., '05
Heidler, S. H., Ill., '97
Heiermann, Francis, Ohio, '96
Heighway, F. F., Ind., '99
Heil, John H., Ill., '06.
Heineken, J. F. D., N. J., '94
Heiney, Wm. M., N. Mex., '06
Heizer, John A., Ohio, '99
Helbig, Emily Mai, Mo., '04
Held, Felix E., Kans., '06
Helena Pub. Lib'y, Mont., '03
Heller, Regenia R., Mich., '01

Helmer, Harry, Ill., '95
Helms, Caroline C., Mo., '04
Helter, Henry H., Ohio, '01
Henderson, Hermann C., Wis., '04
Hendrick, Welland, N. Y., '95
Hendricks, E. L., Ind., '02
Hendricks, Herman E., Minn., '05
Hendrickson, Caroline, N. Y., '05
Hendrickson, Daniel T., N. J., '05
Hendrickson, Mrs. L. M., N. J., '05
Hendrix College, Ark., '97
Henkel, Vandalaine, Mo., '03
Henninger, J. W., Ill., '96
Henry, T. B., Kans., '00
Hensel, Martin, Ohio, '03
Henson, C. C., La., '06
Henson, M. A., Ohio, '96
Hernandez, E. C., P. R., '01
Herr, Paul A., Pa., '03
Herrick, C. A., Pa., '00
Herrick, Horace N., Ill., '03
Herrick, Mrs. Una B., N. Dak., '05
Herriff, Amy I., Ohio, '05
Herrig, Anna B., S. Dak., '95
Herring, Jessie M., N. J., '05
Herron, Schuyler F., Mexico, '03
Hertel, Charles, Ill., '95
Hervey, Henry D., Mass., '09
Hervey, Walter L., N. Y., '95
Herzog, Ottilie, Mo., '04
Herzog, Peter, Mo., '97
Hess, A. B., S. Dak., '05
Hess, Dorothea C., N. Y., '03
Hess, Mary L., Pa., '05
Hess, Wm. C., N. Y., '96
Hester, W. A., Ky., '05
Heumann, F. G., Mich., '02
Heusner, Wm. S., Kans., 05
Hewitt, Kathryn I., N. Y., '01
Hewitt, Walter C., Wis., '04
Heywood, John C., Ohio, '05
Hickok, W. H., Wis., '02
Hicks, Lillie A., Mass., '03
Hicks, W. E., Ohio, '01
Higgins, Leonidas R., Nebr., '06
High Bridge Pub. Sch., N. J., '05
High School of Commerce, New York, N. Y., '05
High School, Anderson, Ind., '04
High School, Bayonne, N. J., '05
High School, Curtis, N. Y., '05
High School, Far Rockaway, N. Y '05
High School, Flushing, N. Y., '05
High School, Girls, Brooklyn, N. Y., '05
High School, Morris, N. Y., '05
High School, Newark, N. J., '05
High School, Red Bank, N. J., '05
High School, Stuyvesant, N. Y., '05
High School, Wadleigh, N. Y., '05
Hight, Rob't T., Ind., '06
Hill, Albert H., Va., '05
Hill, Albert Ross, Mo., '99
Hill, D. A., Miss., '05
Hill, I. W., Ala., '01
Hill, Joseph H., Kans., '06
Hill, Lula A. L., Mass., '03
Hill, Mary, Wis., '96
Hill, Patty S., N. Y., '06
Hill, Willia D., Mich., '05
Hilleboe, H. S., Minn., '02
Hills Lib'y, Newton Theo. Inst., Mass., '03
Hillsdale College, Mich., '00
Hillyer, Thomas A., Minn., '03
Hillyer, Virgil M., Md., '01
Himelick, R. W., Pa., '00
Hine, Charles D., Conn., '03
Hinemon, J. H., Ark., '96
Hingle, Robert E., La., '05
Hinman, Russell, N. Y., '04
Hinshaw, E. B., Ind. T., '00
Hirsdansky, Simon, N. Y., '05
Hise, I. C., Iowa, '00
Hisey, Jos. C., Mo., '04
Histed, Catherine E., Mo., '04
Hitchcock, F. S., Conn., '01
Hitchcock, G. P., Mass., '03
Hitz, John, D. C., '80
Hoag, G. B., Wis., '06
Hoban, C. F., Pa., '06
Hobbs, Charles A., Mass., '03
Hobbs, Franklin W., Mass., '03
Hoboken Free Pub. Lib'y, N. J., '06.
Hockenberry, J. C., Pa., '01
Hogdon, Frederick C., N. Y., '05
Hodgdon, Josephine E., N. Y., '82
Hodge, C. F., Mass., '06
Hodge, George B., N. Y., '04
Hodges, W. R., Minn., '05
Hodgin, Chas. E., N. Mex., '95
Hodgin, Cyrus W., Ind., '95
Hoegelsberger, Nora, D. C., '98
Hofer, Amalie, Ill., '95
Hoff, Freeman H., S. Dak., '03
Hoffman, Gaius, N. J., '94
Hoffsten, Ernest G., Mo., '04
Hogan, Gertrude M., Mo., '04
Hogg, Alex., Tex., '74
Holbrook, Florence, Ill., '01
Holbrook, R. H., Pa., '02
Holden, C. C., N. Y., '98
Holden, Geo. W., Mass., '01
Holden, L. E., Ohio, '70.
Holden, Miles C., Mass., '01
Holdridge, N. C., N. J., '05
Holgate, Thomas F., Ill., '03
Holland, Ernest O., Ind., '03
Hollister, Horace A., Ill., '05
Holloway, Wm. J., Md., '05
Holloway, W. M., Fla., '06
Holmes, Evelyn, Pa., '00
Holmes, H. H., Mo., '04
Holmes, Manfred J., Ill., '00
Holmes School, Pittsburgh, Pa., '06
Holmes, Stanley H., Conn., '03
Holmes, Wm. H., R. I., '03
Holton, Edwin Lee, Kans., '04
Holton, J. W., Ind., '04
Holton, Miss M. A., Minn., '96
Homans, Amy M., Mass., '01
Homewood Sub-Dist. Sch's Pittsburgh, Pa., 06
Hood, Walter D., Conn., '04
Hooper, J. T., Wis., '02
Hooper, Louis L., D. C., '00
Hoose, James H., Cal., '79
Hoover, W. E., N. Dak., '97
Hopkins, A. H., Pa., '01
Hopkins, Frank H., Colo., '03
Hopkins, James F., Md., '03
Horchem, B. J., Iowa, '97
Horn, P. W., Texas, '04
Hornbaker, Wm. R., Ill., '06
Horne, H. H., N. H., '03
Horne, Irving W., Mass., '03
Horne, Perley L., Hawaii, '05
Horsley, Jane V., N. J., '05
Horton, A. D., Pa., '05
Horton, Lyman G., R. I., '03
Hospes, Lydia, Mo., '04
Hotchkiss, E. A., Ohio, '06
Hotchkiss, H. V., Ohio, '00
Houck, Henry, Pa., '97
Hough, Jessie B., Mo., '04
Hough, Theodore, Mass., '02
Houghton, Geo. S., Mass., '03
Houghton, Mary A., Mass., '03
House, Homer G., N. J., '05
Houser, C. W., Ky., '02
Housh, W. H., Cal., '99
Houston, J. R., Ind., '96
Howard, Geo. A., Ohio, '95
Howard Univ. Lib'y, D. C., '06
Howe, Agnes E., Cal., '99
Howe, Charles H., Mass., '05
Howe, Charles S., Ohio, '02
Howe, Geo. H., Ill., '98
Howe, Geo. K., Ga., '03
Howe, Wilbur W., N. Y., '95
Howe, Wm. W., Mass., '03
Howell, Henry B., N. J., '05
Howell, Logan D., N. Y., '94
Howell, Mary H., N. J., '05
Howerth, Ira W., Ill., '99
Howerth, Joseph, Pa., '02
Howes, A. F., Mass., '03
Hoyt Pub. Lib'y, Saginaw, Mich., '03
Hoyt, Charles A., N. J., '05
Hoyt, Charles O., Mich., '97
Hoyt, David W., R. I., '98
Hoyt, Franklin S., Ind., '01
Hoyt, J. W., D. C., '70
Hubbard, Mrs. E. A., Ill., '97
Hubbell, George A., Ky., '01
Hubbs, Geo. E., W. Va., '03
Huber, Philipp, Mich., '04
Hudson, Arthur S., Mich., '01
Huey, J. W., Tenn., '04
Huffman, W. H., Mo., '04
Hughes, Mrs. Ada M., Can., '94
Hughes, Anne M., Minn., '04
Hughes, Chas. C., Cal., '06
Hughes, F. B., Texas, '05
Hughes, Jas. L., Can., '00
Hughes, Katharine A., N. J., '05
Hughes, Mary A., Mo., '04
Hughes, P. M., D. C., '02
Hughes, R. C., Wis., '00
Hughes, R. L., Ill., '00
Hughes, W. F., Cal., '00
Hulbert, A. M., N. J., '05
Huling, Ray Greene, Mass., '91
Hull, John, Wis., '91
Hull, Lawrence C., Mich., '93
Hull, Philip M., N. Y., '99
Hulsart, J. Howard, N. J., '99
Humphreville, Margaret L., Pa., '05
Humphrey, S. P., Ohio, '00
Humphreys, Alex. C., N. J., '05
Humphries, J. H., Pa., '05
Hunt, Henry F., Wash., '06
Hunt, J. N., Ill., '04
Hunt, Mrs. Mary B., Mass., '03
Hunter, Thomas, N. Y., '85
Huntington, Susan D., P. R., '02
Hurd, Geo. B., Ga., '88
Hursh, Samuel B., Ill., '00
Hussey, J. M., Iowa, '01
Hutchinson, Fred V., N. Dak., '05
Hutchinson, J. C., Minn., '02
Hutchinson, Minnie L., N. Y., '05
Hutchinson, Miss K. I., Iowa, '01
Hutchinson, N. E., Ohio, '00
Hutchinson, S. C., Mass., '03
Huth, Alice, Mo., '04
Hutton, A. J., Wis., '84
Hutton, Thos. B., Iowa. '00
Hyde, Martha, N. Y., '01
Hyde, Mary F., N. Y., '92
Hyde, Wm. DeW., Maine, '03
Hyle, Anna, Pa., '06
Ihrig, Roscoe M., Ill., '06
Ikelheimer, Ida, N. Y., '03
Illinois State Lib'y, '02
Illinois State Nor. Univ., '98
Imperial Library of Japan, '00
Indiana Nor. Sch. of Pa., '99
Indiana State Library, '97
Indiana State Nor. Sch., '97
Indiana Univ. Library, '99
Ingerson, Carl I., Mo., '00
Ingrum, McG., Tenn., '03
Iowa College, Grinnell, '00
Iowa St. Coll. Lib'y, Ames, '01
Iowa State Lib'y, Des Moines, '03
Ireland, Joseph W., Ky., '05
Irons, Foster H., Wis., '00
Irvine, V. K., Pa., '01
Irving, Peyton, S. Dak., '06
Irwin, Agnes, Mass., '03
Isaacs, Louis N., Minn., '02
Ish, Jefferson G., Ark., '03
Ives, C. E., La., '06
Ives, Wm. H., Ill., '06
Jack, Frank M., Wis., '01
Jackson, Alice, N. Y., '05
Jackson, B. B., N. Y., '01

Jackson, Cora B., Md., '05
Jackson, Chas. H. S., Ga., '03
Jackson, Edw. F., Mo., '01
Jackson, Janette F., Ohio, '03
Jackson, John, N. J., '06
Jackson, Wm. R., Nebr., '96
Jackson, Wm. T., Ill., '03
Jacob Tome Institute, Md., '06
Jacobs, Clementine, Iowa, '02
Jacobs, Walter Ballou, R. I., '94
Jacoby, Asher J., Mass., '03
Jacoby, Elmer A., Pa., '06
Jamaica High Sch., N. Y., '03
James, Geo. F., Minn., '01
James, Morris C., Cal., '05
Jameson, H. W., N. Y., '97
Jamieson, Wm. H. Wis., '05
Jarman, Joseph L., Va., '03
Jarvis, Frank H., Pa., '06
Jaudon, Thos. P., Jr., Mo., '98
Jay, Lucy, N. Y., '06
Jeffers, F. F., Cal., '04
Jeffers, Fred A., Mich., '01
Jeffrey, J. H., Ind., '01
Jeffries, Edmund W., Ill., '06
Jenkins, Burris A., Ky., '06
Jenkins, Henry E., N. Y., '03
Jenkins, John J., N. Y., '05
Jenkins, O. P., Cal., '99
Jenkins, Sara D., Wis., '95
Jenkins, Willis A., Va., '02
Jenne, Mrs. M. E., Wash., '04
Jennings, Florence E., Conn., '03
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Jepson, Benj., Conn., '03
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Johnson, D. B., S. C., '95
Johnson, Emma A., N. Y., '02
Johnson, Floyd P., Del., '05
Johnson, F. W., Ill., '98
Johnson, Geo. E., Mass., '03
Johnson, Helen L., N. Y., '06
Johnson, Henry, N. Y., '99
Johnson, H. M., D. C., '98
Johnson, James T., Texas, '04
Johnson, Jennie B., Ohio, '03
Johnson, Jesse S., Ohio, '98
Johnson, Joseph F., N. Y., '04
Johnson, O. A., Cal., '06
Johnson, Richard O., Ind., '03
Johnson, Theophilus, N. Y., '05
Johnson, Thos. M., Mo., '03
Johnson, T. S., Kans., '99
Johnson, W. E., Mo., '04
Johnson, W. P., Iowa, '04
Johnston, Emma L., N. Y., '05
Johnston, Mary S., Fla., '01
Johnston, Sara E., Pa., '06
Johnston, T. A., Mo., '01
Johnston, W. A., Mass., '03
Johnstone, E. R., N. J., '96
Joiner, Chas. E., Ill., '06
Jokisch, H. J., Ill., '04
Jolliffe, Wm. M., Mich., '01
Jolly, J. B., Ariz., '04
Jones, Addison L., Pa., '03
Jones, A. Leroy, N. J., '99
Jones, Arthur O., Ohio, '91
Jones, E. C. Lloyd, Wis., '97
Jones, Edmund A., Ohio, '84
Jones, Edward N., N. Y., '84
Jones, Elmer E., Va., '03
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Jones, Frank O., Conn., '02
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Jones, Mattie, S. Dak., '94
Jones, M. Louise, Kans., '05
Jones, Richard, Tenn., '94
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Jones, Thomas L., Wis., '06
Jones, Virgil L., Minn., '06
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Jones, Wm. H., Ill., '04
Jordahl, Sivert A., S. Dak., '01
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Jordan, David Starr, Cal., '98
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Joyce, Darrell, Ohio, '03
Joyce, Martin, N. Y., '05
Joyner, J. Y., N. C., '98
Judd, Chas. H., Conn., '05
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Karlson, C. E., Pa., '03
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Kavanaugh, Catharine F., N. Y., '05
Kaye, James H. B., Mich., '05
Kean, Lura B., Ohio, '00
Keane, John J., Iowa, '89
Keane, Mary F., Ill., '03
Kearns, Carrie W., N. Y., '05
Keating, J. F., Colo., '95
Keating, Mary K., Ky., '05
Keator, Davis J., N. Y., '05
Keeler, L. W., Ind., '06
Keeley, Josiah W. Va., '05
Keeny, John E., La., '06
Keidel, Anna M., N. J., '05
Keister, Wm. H., Va., '00
Keith, Allen P., Mass., '05
Keith, John A. H., Ill., '05
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Kelley, Clarence E., N. H., '03
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Kellogg, Robert J., Ill., '06
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Kelly, Lizzie, La., '02
Kelly, Robert L., Ind., '02
Kempton, Alvan A., Vt., '03
Kendall, C. N., Ind., '95
Kendall, F. A., Ill., '95
Kendall, F. H., Ohio, '04
Kendall, F. L., Mass., '03
Kendrick, Geo. W., Kans., '03
Kennard, Wm. J., N. Y., '05
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Kerr, Henry, Cal., '05
Kerr, Mary A., Ind., '06
Kerr, Nelson, Mo., '05
Kerr, Wm. J., Utah, '95
Keyes, A. H., N. H., '03
Keyes, A. K. N., N. Y., '05
Keyes, Chas. E., Cal., '06
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Kilbourne, Effie J., Ill., '95
Kilmer, Cordelia S., N. Y., '03
Kilpatrick, V. E., N. Y., '03
Kilpatrick, W. H., Ga., '03
Kimmel, M. A., Ohio, '93
Kincaid, Herbert T., Ohio, '95
King, Anne H., Ohio, '95
King, Ella G., S. Dak., '04
King, J. C., Iowa, '01
King, Margaret G., Va., '03
King, Wm. F., Iowa, '84
Kingman, F. W., Mass., '03
Kingsbury, Elizabeth, Nebr., '06
Kingsbury, John A., Wash., '04
Kingsley, Clarence D., N. Y., '05
Kingsley, Homer H., Ill., '01
Kingsley, Nathan G., R. I., '03
Kinkead, R. G., Mo., '04
Kinnaman, A. J., Ind., '05
Kinne, Floyd E., N. Y., '05
Kinney, Burt O., Cal., '99
Kinsley, M. H., N. J., '02
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Kirk, John R., Mo., '01
Kirk, Thos. J., Cal., '95
Kirk, W. H., Ohio, '01
Kirkpatrick, C. T., Tenn., '03
Kirkpatrick, E. A., Mass., '97
Kirkpatrick, Mary D., N. J., '05
Kirtland, John C., Jr., N. H., '05
Kirtland, R. H., Mich., '01
Kissack, R. A., Mo., '05
Kizer, B. F., Mo., '04
Kleeberger, Geo. R., Cal., '95
Klein, Milinca L., N. Y., '05
Klemm, Mrs. Clara D., Ohio, '04
Klinker, J. W., Minn., '02
Klock, J. E., N. H., '86
Kneil, Thos. R., N. Y., '95
Knepper, Geo. E., Kans., '98
Knibbs, Geo. H., Australia, '03
Knight, Geo. W., Ohio. '02
Knight, Lee R., Ohio, '00
Knight, R. F., Kans., '02
Knight, T. H. H., Mass., '03
Knopp, Gideon D., Mo., '04
Knowles, Eloise, Mont., '04
Knowlton, P. G., N. Dak., '05
Knox, Geo. Platt., Mo., '04
Knox, John, N. Y., '06
Knox, Margaret, N. Y., '05
Koehler, Frank, Pa., '06
Kohler, Mrs. Kate Macdona, N. Y., '95
Kolbe, Julia C., Ohio, '95
Koontz, J. A., Mo., '05
Kopmeier, Carolina, Ky., '06
Kottman, Wm. A., N. Y., '05
Krackowizer, Alice M., Colo., '03
Kraege, F. G., Wis., '97
Kratz, Henry E., Mich., '00
Kraus-Boelté, Mrs. M., N. Y., '96
Kraybill, A. E., Pa., '06
Krebs, Henry C., N. J., '01
Krécsy, Bela, Hungary, '93
Kreuzpointner, Paul, Pa., '02
Kriebel, O. S., Pa., '03
Krinbill, Geo. E., Ariz., '02
Kroh, Carl J., Ill., '97
Krout, Chas. A., Ohio, '00

Krug, Joseph, Ohio, '01
Kruse, Edwina B., Del., '91
Kuntz, Elmer E., Pa., '06
Kuntz, P. J., Minn., '04
Kunze, Wm. F., Minn., '02
Kuykendall, J. W., Ark., '05
Kyselka, Frank, Cal., '01
Lachmund, Mrs. Fannie L., Mo. '04
Ladd, A. J., N. Dak., '01
Lagerstrom, Lydia T., Minn., '03
Lagomarsino, Cynthia, N. Y., '94
Laird, Mrs. Ada E., Ohio, '90
Laird, Samuel B., Mich., '96
Lake Erie College, Ohio, '06
Lamar, C. P., Ill., '99
Lamb, Eli M., Md., '94
Lambert, Vashti A., Ill., '95
Lamberton, Mary J., Pa., '92
L'Amoureux, G. H. D., Maine, '03
Lancaster, E. G., Mich., '99
Lancaster, Geo., Wash., '98
Landers, J. S., Oregon, '99
Landgraf, Geo. H., Wis., '04
Landis, Geo. B., '06
Landis, J. Horace, Pa., '05
Landrith, Ira, Tenn., '04
Landrum, L. M., Ga., '97
Lane, Mrs. F. S., Ill., '94
Lane, Horace M., Brazil, '02
Lane, Josephine, N. Y., '03
Lang, Mary A., Cal., '01
Lang, Ossian H., N. Y., '91
Lang, Rosa A., Ill., '01
Langdon, Wm. H., Cal., '05
Lange, D., Minn., '99
Lange, M. A., S. Dak., '03
Langston, Arthur D., Mo., '04
Langzettel, Marion B. B., N. Y., '03
Lansing, Hugh H., N. Y., '05
Lansinger, J. W., Pa., '98
Lantman, E. G., N. Y., '05
Lanza, Gaetano, Mass., '03
Lapey, Louise M., N. Y., '95
Laramy, Robert E., Pa., '05
Larck, F. A., Ill., '01
Largent, S. D., Mont., '99
Larimer, Henry G., Kans., '86
Lark, F. E., Iowa, '97
Larkin, R. R., N. M., '07
Larkins, Chas. D., N. Y., '95
La Rowe, Eugene, Mich., '01
Larsson, Gustaf, Mass., '03
La Rue, J. B., Ky., '03
Lasar, Madeline, Mo., '03
Lash, William D., Ohio, '99
La Taste, Lucien V., Texas, '94
Latham, Annie, Mo., '04
Latham, Mary E., N. Y., '03
Lattimore, John C., S. Dak., '06
Lavers, Enoch C., Pa., '92
Lawlor, Josephine M., N. Y., '05
Lawrence Univ., Wis., '99
Lawrence, B. Malcolm, S. Dak., '05
Lawrence, Isabel, Minn., '94
Laws, Annie, Ohio, '95
Laws, S. S., D. C., '76
Lawson, Wm. C., Tenn., '03
Lawton, Chas. E., N. Y., '96
Lawton, P. R., Ohio, '06
Lawver, Albert B., Mo., '04
Lawyer, Chas. E., Ill., 06
Layton, S. Herrick, Ohio, '95
Lazenby, Wm. R., Ohio, '95
Lea, Watson C., Mass., '03
Leach, Cephas H., Ill., '97
Leadbetter, Florence E., Mass., '03
Leadbetter, Maud G., Mass., '03
Leavell, Richard M., Miss., '96
Leavenworth, P. R., Vt., '01
Leavitt, Frank M., Mass., '03
Leckrone, Chas., Mo., '04
Ledwith, Minnie Q., N. Y., '03
Lee, Carena M., Colo., '01
Lee, Frank W., Wyo., '06
Lee, Glen Max, N. Y., '05
Lee, J. R. E., Ala., '06
Lee, James, N. Y., '92
Lee, L. B., Ill., '01
Lee, Lucius O., Turkey, '01
Lefavour, Henry, Mass., '01
Lefevre, Arthur, Texas, '03
Lehigh University, Pa., '99
Lehnerts, E. M., Minn., '99
Leipziger, Henry M., N. Y., '91
Leismann, Mae, Minn., '02
Leiter, Mrs. F. W., Ohio, '96
Leland Stanford, Jr., Univ., Cal., '07
Lemon, J. E., Ill., '99
Lenfest, B. A., N. Y., '00
Leonard, Albert, Mass., '91
Leonard, H. B., Oregon, '01
LeRow, Caroline B., N. Y., '03
Le Suer, Bert M., Pa., '04
Leslie, Henrietta S., N. J., '94
Leslie, J. O., Ill., '04
Lester, Fred V., N. Y., '03
Leverenz H. F., Wis., '00
Levie, Eugenie C., N. Y., '05
Leviston, Irwen, Minn., '95
Le Vitt, Clarence H., Ill., '06
Levy, Ella, Pa., '06
Lewis, Anna D., Minn., '02
Lewis, B. E., Kans., '04
Lewis, Evangeline E., Ind., '05
Lewis, F. Park. N. Y., '03
Lewis, Hallie C., Fla., '05
Lewis, Homer P., Mass., '03
Lewis, Jane M., N. J., '92
Lewis, Leo Rich, Mass., '03
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Lindheimer, Ida B., N. Y., '05
Lindsay, Samuel McC., Pa., '05
Lindsey, Leah E., N. Y., '02
Ling, Chas. J., Pa., '95
Ling, L. F. A., Ill., '00
Lingle, T. W., Ill., '04
Linsley, Earle G., Calif., '06
Linville, Henry R., N. Y., '05
Linville, R. N., Okla., '06
Little, Clara L., Colo., '95
Little, Dwight R., N. Y., '05
Livingston, Alf., Ky., '02
Livingston, J. W., Wis., '02
Lloyd, Francis E., Ariz., '04
Lloyd, Frank H., N. J., '05
Lloyd, M. J., Pa., '06
Locke, Geo. H., Canada, '01
Locke, John S., Maine '95
Lockett, Emma J., Mo., '05
Lodge, Susan C., Pa., '05
Loeb, Morris, N. Y., '05
Logan, Anna E., Ohio, '96
Logue, Ella M., Mo., '04
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Lomer Gerhard R.,, Can., '06
Long, May G., Iowa, '05
Long, Frank T., Ala., '05
Long, John A., Ill., '06
Long, John L., S. Dak., '06
Long, Paul J., N. C., '00
Longan, G. B., Mo., '97
Longenecker, Abram S., Pa., '05
Longenecker, Gertrude, Mo., '00
Longman, M. W., Mich., '06
Loomis, Elisha S., Ohio, '03
Loomis, G. F., Wis., '06
Loomis, Geo. W., Colo., '05
Loope, John A., N. Y., '05
Loos, Chas. L., Ohio, '95
Lopez, Francisco R., Porto Rico '06
Lopez-Miranda, S., Cuba, '04
Lord, Edward, N. Y., '97
Lord, Everett W., P. R., '04
Lord, Livingston C., Ill., '94
Lose, Chas., Pa. '06
Loud, Frank H., Colo., '03
Lough, James E., N. Y., '03
Louisville Free Pub. Liby., Ky., '04
Love, Andrew A., N. Dak., '02
Lovell, Thos. B., N. Y., '96
Lovett, Andrew J., Kans., '06
Low, Seth, N. Y., '95
Lowe, N. J., N. Y., '03
Lowenstein, S. S., N. Y., '03
Lowrey, R. J., Ky., '05
Lowry, Charles D., Ill., '97
Lowry, Sarah N., Pa., '06
Lowther, L. A., Kans., '97
Loyola School, The, N. Y., '05
Lucas, Helen E., N. Y., '05
Luckey School, Pittsburgh, Pa., '06
Luckey, E. D., Mo., '94
Luckey, G. W. A., Nebr., '95
Ludlum, Mrs. M. H., Mo., '02
Ludwig, Henry, Jr., N. Y., '03
Ludwig, Wm. Y., Ill., '06
Luebke, Emma J., Wis., '97
Lukens, Herman T., Pa., '92
Lull, Herbert W., R. I., '02
Lull, H. Galen, Wash., '01
Luther, E. L., Wis., '06
Lyle, Edward G., Mo., '01
Lyman, Elmer A., Mich., '98
Lynch, Charlotte A., Mo., '04
Lynch, Chas. P., Ohio, '94
Lynch, M. M., Va., '98
Lynch, S. A., Wis., '01
Lynch, Wm. H., Mo., '95
Lyon, Charles, N. Y., '05
Lyon, Edmund D., Ohio, '98
Lyons, G. K., Ohio, '98
Lyte, E. Oram, Pa., '91
Lyttle, Eugene W., N. Y., '98
Mac Alister, Jas., Pa., '95
MacChesney, Frances, Ill,. '05
MacCracken, J. H., N. Y., '01
MacCready, E. E., Ky., '03
MacDonald, A. H., Cal., '98
MacDonald, John, Kans., '86
Macdonald, Mrs. Katrine B., N. Dak., '04
MacDonald, Margaret, Ill., '96
Macdonald, Neil C., N. Dak., '04
MacDuffie, John, Mass., '03
Mace, Wm. H., N. Y., '05
MacGowan, W. L., Pa., '96
Mack, Mary S., Ill., '05
Mack, Wm. S., Ill., '95
Mackey, Cora B., N. Y., '05
Mackenzie, A. S., Ky., '06
MacKenzie, David, Mich., '96
Mackey, E., N. J., '87
Mackey, Wm. A., N. Y., '94
Mackinnon, Duncan, Cal., '05
MacLaren, Donald C., N. Y., '05
MacLean, Geo. E., Iowa, '97
MacLean, Jas. A., Idaho, '01
Mac Millan, D. P., Ill., '04
Macrae, Mary E., N. Y., '03
MacVannel, J. A., N. Y., '01
Maddock, Wm. E., Wis., '05
Maddox, John, Ky., '04
Madison Public Lib'y, N. J., '05
Madison, Marcellus, Ill., '03
Magee, Margaret T., N. J., '05
Magovern, Mary A., N. Y., '96
Maharry, S. H., Ohio, '95
Mahoney, James, Mass., '03
Major, David R., Ohio, '98
Male Tchrs. Assoc., Bronx, N. Y., '05
Manchester Pub. Lib'y, Mass., '03
Manchester, A. L., S. C., '03
Manchester, O. L., Ill., '02
Manhattan College, N. Y., '06
Mann, C. E., Ill., '00
Mann, C. Riborg, Ill., '03
Mann, Nellie L., N. J., '05
Manners, Chas. L., Ill., '01
Manness, S. E., N. J., '92
Manning, John T., N. Y., '05
Mannix, J. E., Ky., '06
Manny, Frank A., N. Y., '05
Mansell, L. B., Ill., '03
Mansfield, Edith, Pa., '01
Man. Tr. H. Sch., Brooklyn, N. Y., '03
Manual Tr. High Sch., Camden, N. J., '05
Maphis, Chas. G., Va., '05
Marble, C. McHenry, Ind., '05
March, Thos. S., Pa., '06
Mardis, S. K., Ohio, '95
Marist College, Ga., '05
Mark, Cecil W., Cal., '98
Mark, Edgar H., Ky., '03
Marker, Geo. E., Wash., '06
Markley, J. H., Mo., '04
Marksbury, Thomas B., Ia., '04
Marlatt, Abby L., R. I., '94
Marot, Mary S., N. Y., '05
Marple, Chas. A., Ohio, '05
Marquis, J. S., S. C., '98
Marquis, W. J., Minn., '03
Marsh, Clinton S., Conn., '01
Marsh, Frank M., Mass., '03
Marsh, Miles E., Ky., '98
Marshall, T. M., W. Va., '77
Martin, Artemas, D. C., '98
Martin, Edgar S., Wis., '04
Martin, Geo. H., Mass., '93
Martin, Geo. N., Mo., '04
Martin, O. B., S. C., '03
Martin, W. H., Mo., '03
Martindale, W. C., Mich., '97
Marvin, Jos. E., Pa., '05
Mason, Alfred DeB., N. Y., '05
Mason, Clara B., Nebr., '03
Mason, Jas. E., N. Y ., '02
Mason, Wm. A., Pa., '98
Mass. Inst. Technology, '00
Massee, J. Edman, N. Y., '96
Massey, John, Ala., '81
Matawan Gr. Sch., N. J., '05
Matheny, F. E., Wyo., '02
Mathes, Edward T., Wash., '05
Matlock, J. D., Ala., '98
Mathews, M. H., Ohio, '06
Matthews, A. J., Ariz., '99
Matthias, L. B., Conn., '03
Mattinson, Hannah L., N. Y., '03
Maurer, G. C., Ohio, '95
Maxson, C. H., Iowa, '00
Maxson, Henry M., N. J., '92
Maxwell, Fred B., Ill., '03
Maxwell, Guy E., Minn., '00
Maxwell, Wm. H., N. Y., '92
May, Clara, Ohio, '03
May, Mary C., Utah, '01
Maycock, Mark M., N. Y., '96
Mayer, Anna L., Ill., '01
Mayer, Clara, Ohio, '05
Mayer, Mary H., Pa., '00
Mayo, Marion J., N. Y., '05
Mays, Vernon G., Ill., '98
McAdory, Isaac W., Ala., '05
McAfee, Lowell M., Mo., '01
McAleer, Mary F., N. Y., '05
McAllister, Alec G., N. Y., '05
McAndrew, Wm., N. Y., '00
McBrien, J. L., Nebr., '05
McBroom, J. K., Minn., '04
McCabe, Isabella, N. Y., '05
McCahan, John E., Md., '91
McCallie, J. M., N. J., '05
McCallum, Arthur N., Tex., '03
McCann, Blanch H., Pa., '06
McCarthy, Edw. C., Mich., '01
McCarthy, Margaret, Ohio. '06
McCarthy, W. G., Wash., '02
McCartney, Livingstone, Ky., '95
McCartney, Thos. B., Ky., '06
McCaslin, E. E., Mo., '98
McCauley, W. H., Iowa, '02
McClain, Wm., Jr., Ohio, '01

McClellan, Belle C., N. Y., '05
McClelland Pub. Lib'y, Colo., '06
McClenon, R. B., S. Dak., '05
McClintock, O. P. M., Kans., '94
McClung, John W., Fla., '03
McClure, Arnoldas H., Ariz., '04
McClure, Chas. W., Ohio, 05
McClure, Rebecca, N. J., '05
McClymonds, J. W., Cal., '99
McCoart, Rose L., Ohio. '06
McConkey, Bertha M., Mass., '03
McConnell, J. J., Iowa, '95
McConnell, J. M., Minn., '02
McCormick, Eliz. R., Wis., '03
McCowan, Joseph S., Iowa, '06
McCowen, Mary T., Ill., '97
McCoy, Emma A., N. J., '05
McCulloch, Mary C., Mo, '92
McCullough, J. F., Ill., '96
McCurdy, J. H., Mass., '03
McCurdy, W. A., Ohio, '05
McDaniel, C. M., Ind., '96
McDevitt, Rev. P. R., Pa., '00
McDonald, Jas. H., Mich., '04
McDonald, J. R., Mass., '03
McDonough, Henry G., N. Y., '05
McDonough, Thos. B., Colo., '04
McDuffee, W. V., Mass., '03
McElroy, Edward M., Mich., '06
McElroy, M. R., Ill., '03
McFarland, Geo. A., N. Dak., '95
McFarland, Wm. D., Pa., '06
McFarlane, C. T., N. Y., '01
McGee, George A., Mich., '05
McGilvrey, J. E., Ohio, '01
McGinnes, L. E., Pa., '03
McGinnis, Edward F., Mich., '04
McGlynn, J. J., Ill., '95
McGowan, Mary, Ohio, '03
McGuigan, Francis S., Pa., '0
McIntire, E. E., Minn., '02
McIntire, W. W., Ohio, '05
McIntyre, Daniel, Can., '06
McIver, M. N., Wis., '05
McKay, Alexander, Can., '03
McKay, Francis M., Ill., '04
McKeag, Anna J., Mass., '04
McKee, J. Milford, N. Y., '95
McKee, James H., Pa., '05
McKenny, Chas., Wis., '97
McKenzie, A. D., Australia, '05
McKillop, Anna, Ill., '97
McKnight, L. A., Ind., '01
McLachlan, A. C., N. Y., '04
McLachlin, E. H., Maine, '03
McLain, Joseph F., N. Dak., '05
McLauchlin, A. L., Nebr., '95
McLaughlin, J. M., Pa., '06
McLaury, John C., N. J., '01
McLean, C. S., N. Y., '02
McLean, J. Arnott, Nebr., '01
McLean, Margaret, Minn., '03
McMahan, J. J., S. C., '99
McManus, John T., Mich., '05
McManus, J. B., Ill., '02
McManus, O. J., Iowa, '01
McMichael, Thos. H., Ill., '04
McMillan, John H., Ill., '05
McMillan, J. V., Ohio, '96
McMillan, Mrs. R., Ohio, '80
McMurry, Chas. A., Ill., '90
McMurry, F. M., N. Y., '95
McMurry, Mrs. L. B., Ill., '96
McMurry, Oscar L., Ill., '05
McNeese, John, La., '06
McNeil, Perry M., Ala., '06
McNeill, I. C., Tenn., '92
McNutt, Ernest T., N. J., '05
McQuirk, Mary E., N. Y., '05
McReynolds, Mary Y., Pa., '06
McVay, Herbert R., Ohio., '00
Mead, Fred. H., N. Y., '02
Meck, Wm. H., Ohio, '00
Medford Public Lib'y, Mass., '06
Mee, Kate A. N., N. Y., '05
Meek, Chas. S., Ind., '01
Meek, Jas. R., Ill., '01
Meek, Robert O., Ala., '03
Meeker, G. W. L., Ill., '04
Meeks, Mrs. Frances P., Ill., '03
Meese, John D., Pa., '06
Megargee, Geo. E., N. J., '05
Meland, E. C., Wis., '97
Melcher, George, Mo., '03
Melendy, Royal L., Ohio, '06
Meleney, C. E., N. Y., '96
Mendenhall, E. L., Ohio, '02
Mendin, Josefina, P. R., '04.
Mentzer, John A., Ill., '07
Mercantile Lib'y Assoc., New York, '06
Mercantile Lib'y Co., Philadelphia, Pa., '03
Mercantile Lib'y, St. Louis, Mo., '03
Mercer Univ. Lib'y, Ga., '99
Mercer, J. A., Ill., '03
Meriam, Junius L., Mo., '04
Merica, Francis M., Ind., '07
Merrifield, Webster, N. Dak., '95
Merrill, Chas. E., N. Y., '94
Merrill, Edwin C., N. J., '96
Merrill, Geo. A., Cal., '00
Merrill, James A., Wis., '97
Merrill, Jenny B., N. Y., '93
Merriman, Eugene D., Ill., '05
Merritt, Fred D., Iowa, '06
Merritt, E. L., N. Y., '01
Merritt, Mary J., N. Y., '05
Merritt, Wm. B., Ga., '02
Merry, Charles M., Ky., '05
Merwin, J. B., Conn., '71
Merz, Henry, Wyo., '95
Meserve, Alonzo, Mass., '95
Messenger, J. F., Va., '04
Metcalf, Henry C., Mass., '03
Metcalf, M. Alice, N. J., '05
Metcalf, Robt. C., Mass., '92
Metcalf, S. H., Wis., '02
Meyer, F. H., Cal., '99
Meyer, John L., Pa., '05
Miami Univ., Ohio, '95
Michener, Elmer E., Pa., '05
Michener, J. H., Pa., '98
Mich. Agri. College, '02
Mich. State Library, '01
Mich. State Nor. Coll., '00
Mickens, Chas., W. Mich., '00
Mickle (J. W.) Gr. Sch., Camden, N. J., '05
Mickle, Robt. A., Ala., '95
Middleton, A. Ill., '99
Midland College, Kans., '99
Mighell, Ida, Ill., '02
Miles, Emily H., Colo., '98
Milholland, Maude E., Pa., '06
Millard, C. N., N. Y., '02
Miller, C. C., Ohio, '02
Miller, C. E., Iowa, '02
Miller, Frank L., Ill., '06
Miller, Franklin P., Pa., '03
Miller, F. W., Ark., '05
Miller, Geo. J., Mich., '01
Miller, Gurdon R., Colo., '96
Miller, James C., Cal., '06
Miller, J. H., Kans., '86
Miller, John E., Ill., '05
Miller, Mary Jean, Ia., '04
Miller, Newman, Ill., '00
Miller, Norman C., Ga., '05
Miller, Thos. C., W. Va., '01
Miller, Walter McN., Mo., '03
Milligan, Alexander R., Ky., '04
Milliken, Mrs. A. E., Cal., '03
Milliken, Orris J., Ill., '05
Millington, Clara, N. Y., '05
Million, John W., Mo., '01
Millis, Wm. A., Ind., '96
Mills, Harriette M., N. Y., '05
Millspaugh, J. F., Cal., '95
Milne, Wm. J., N. Y., '92
Milnor, G. Bruce, Pa., '03
Milwaukee Principals' Assoc., Wis., '84
Milwaukee Pub. Lib., Wis., '98
Milwaukee Tchrs. Assoc., Wis., '05
Minard, Chas. W., Ill., '04
Mingins, Clara W., Mich., '00
Minihan, Julia A., N. J., '05
Minis, Margaret J., Kans., '03
Minneapolis Athenæum, Minn. '08
Minnich, Harvey C., Ohio, '02
Minnie Murdock Kendrick Sch., Philadelphia, Pa., '05
Minor, Edwin, Wash., '04
Minshull, Mrs. Martha J., N. Y., '05
Mischlich, Adolph, N. Y., '05
Missimer, H. C., Pa., '02
Miss. A. & M. College, '02
Missoula Pub. Lib'y, Mont., '06
Mitchel, E. L., Cal., '06
Mitchell, Arthur C., N. Y., '05
Mitchell, Benj. W., Pa., '99
Mitchell, Clifford A., Kan., '05
Mitchell, Isaac, Ky., '99
Mitchell, R. W., N. C., '00
Mitchell, Wm. Hugh, Ohio, '06
Mitchell, W. R., Ill., '03
Mitchill, Theodore C., N. Y., '05
Model Sch., N. Y. Tr. Sch. for Tchrs., N. Y., '03
Moffitt, Clarissa A., Pa., '05
Mohn, Carl J., S. Dak., '02
Mohr, Walter M., N. Y., '03
Moldstad, John A., Ill., '97
Moll, Alex. A., Ill., '03
Monin, Louis C., Ill., '01
Monlux, J. B., Cal., '05
Monroe, Edwin S., Ind., '97
Monroe, Paul, N. Y., '02
Monroe, Will S., Mass., '88
Montague, A. I., Pa., '04
Montana State College, '99
Monteser, Fred., N. Y., '04
Montfort, Frank K., N. Y., '05
Montgomery, Bertha E., Ohio, '03
Montgomery, H. C., Ind., '07
Montgomery, Ida M., Nebr., '04
Montgomery, Jessie B., Wis., '05
Montgomery, Sarah L., Ill., '05
Montgomery, W. S., D. C., '98
Montrose, Otis, N. Y., '96
Montavon, Wm. F., Phil. Is., '06
Moon, A. W., Pa., '89
Mooney, Catherine T., Mo., '04
Mooney, Wm. B., S. Dak., 06
Moore, Augusta D., N. Y., '03
Moore, B. C., Ill., '06
Moore, B. F., Ind., '96
Moore, Chas. S., Mass., '03
Moore, Dora M., Colo., '95
Moore, E. C., Cal., '99
Moore, E. H., Ill., '02
Moore, Frank R., N. Y., '05
Moore, George W., Pa., '03
Moore, Harry L., N. H., '03
Moore, I. N., Pa., '05
Moore, J. A., Ala., '01
Moore, J. E., Iowa, '03
Moore, J. R. H., Mass., '03
Moore, James G., Ill., '06
Moore, M. H., S. Dak., '06
Moore, Stanley H., Mo., '03
Moran, Mary F., N. Y., '03
Moreno, Enrique H., Mexico, '06
Morey, James S., N. Y., '03
Morgan, A. R., Mo., '04
Morgan, J. H., Wash., '99
Morgan, R. T., Ill., '97
Morgan, W. P., Ind., '06
Moriarty, Mrs. A. B., N. Y., '03
Morley, John H., Vt., '03
Morris High Sch., N. Y., '05
Morris, Eugene C., N. Y., '05
Morris, George, N. J., '03
Morris, Harriet N., Cal., '82
Morris, John, Ky., '06
Morris, John E., Ohio, '00
Morrison, Andrew J., Pa., '81
Morrison, G. B. Mo., '99
Morrison, Henry C., N. H., '00
Morrison, Nathan J., Kans., '03

Morrison, Rose, Ohio, '97
Morrison, Wm. J., N. Y., '03
Morrow, H. T., N. Y., '01
Morrow, John, Pa., '06
Morse, Frank L., Ill., '97
Morse, H. H., Mass., '03
Morse, W. A., Mich., '01
Morss, Chas. H., Mass., '95
Morton, W. H., Maine, '03
Morton, W. M., Ill., '02
Mosher, E. H., Cal., '99
Moten, Lucy E., D. C., '01
Mott, Thos. A., Ind., '96
Mt. Albion Schools, Pittsburgh, Pa., '06
Mt. Holyoke Coll., Mass., '02
Mountz, Silas W., Minn., '02
Mower, F. O., Cal., '99
Mowry, Grace E., Ohio, '03
Mowry, Wendell A., R. I., '04
Mowry, Wm. A., Mass., '86
Moynihan, Mary A., Ill., '03
Muckley, H. C., Ohio, '01
Muir, James N., Pa., '06
Mulford, A. Isabel, Mo., '96
Mullin, Geo. H., Iowa, '03
Mullins, Mary H., N. Y., '05
Mulrooney, Julia A., Ohio, '05
Mumford, Luther E., Nebr., '05
Mumma, H. W., Ohio, '00
Munger, Belle M., S. Dak., '03
Munger, O. L., Ill., '05
Munroe, Jas. P., Mass., '95
Murdaugh, E. D., Md., '98
Murdock, F. F., Mass., '98
Murfee, H. O., Ala., '01
Murlin, L. H., Kans., '95
Murphree, Albert A., Fla., '04
Murphy, Mrs. M. K., Conn., '03
Murphy, Samuel S., Ala., '03
Murray, Ellen, N. Y., '04
Murray, Geo. S., Kans., '05
Murray, May E., Mass., '99
Murray, Wm. S., Turkey, '98
M. W. Baldwin Sch., Phila., Pa., '05
Myers, Geo. Wm., Ill., '04
Myers, Irene T., Ky., '04
Myers, Will A., Ind., '97
Mynders, Seymour A., Tenn., '03
Nagel, J. J., Iowa, '95
Nardin, E. C., Mich., '01
Nash, Geo. W., S. Dak., '01
Nash, Louis P., Mass., '99
Naylor, Mrs. E. A., Ill., '03
Neal, A. O., Ind., '05
Neal, H. J., N. J., '05
Nebraska St. Nor. Sch., '02
Nebraska Wes. Univ. Lib'y, '05
Ne Collins, J. E., N. Y., '99
Neligh, John P. S., D. C., '04
Nelson, A. C., Utah, '01
Nelson, B. E., Wis., '99
Nelson, E. B., N. Y., '98
Nelson, Ernesto, N. Y., '04
Nelson, Kate S., Wis., '96
Nelson, Martha F., N. J., '05
Neptune Tp. High Sch., Ocean Grove, N. J., '05
New Britain Inst., Conn., '02
New, Mary A., N. Y., '05
Newark Free Pub. Lib'y, N. J., '03
Newberry Lib'y, Ill., '98
Newburyport Pub. Lib'y, Mass., '03
Newell, A. C., Iowa, '01
Newell, Miss C. S., Kans., '95
Newell J. Edward, Ind., '06
Newhall, Chas. W., Minn., '02
N. H. Coll. of Agri., '02
N. H. St. Lib'y, '98
N. H. St. Nor. Sch., Plymouth, '03
New Haven Pub. Lib'y, Conn., '01
N. J. State Lib'y, '01
N. J. St. Nor. Sch., Trenton, '97
Newkirk, C. F., Ill., '98
Newman, Jos., N. Y., '05
N. Mex. Agri. Coll., '02
New Orleans Nor. Sch., La., '01
New Rochelle Pub. Lib'y, N. Y., '06
Newson, H. D., N. Y., '95
Newton Girls' Sch., Phila., Pa., '05
Newton, Cora A., Mass., '03
Newton, Geo. A., Texas, '03
Newtown High Sch., N. Y., '03
New York Pub. Lib'y, '99
New York St. Ed'n Dept., N. Y., '03
New York Trade School, '04
New York Tr. Sch. for Tchrs., '03
Nichols, Chas. E., N. Y., '99
Nichols Fred. R., Ill., '93
Nichols, Walter H., Colo., '01
Nichols, W. F., Conn., '03
Nicholson, John T., N. Y., '05
Nicholson, Mary E., Ind., '85
Nicholson, Nell G., Mo., '04
Nicholson, Thos., S. Dak., '02
Nicholson, Watson, Conn., '99
Nightingale, A. F., Ill., '86
Nickerson, F. H., Mass., '03
Nissley, Mabel H., Pa., '03
Noble, Edward M., Md., '05
Noel, Alex. H., Mo., '97
Noel, Mrs. Jas. M., Ind., '05
Noetling, Wm., Pa., '98
Nolan, John T., N. Y., '05
Nolan, Mary, Mo., '04
Nolen, A. Eugene, Mass., '01
Nolen, F. C., Ark., '05
Noon, Philo G., N. J., '03
Nor. Sch., Dayton, O., '98
Nor. Sch., Truro, Nova Scotia, Can., '03
Norris, C. Maud, Mass., '03
Norris, Grant, Pa., '06
Norris, Herschel A., Del., '05
Norsworthy, Naomi, N. Y., '06
N. Adams Pub. Lib'y, Mass., '01
N. C. Coll. of A. & M. Arts, '04
N. C. St. Nor. and Ind. Coll., '98
N. Dak. Ed. Association, '06
Nor. Ariz. Normal School, '01
Nor. Ill. St. Nor. Sch., '99
North School, Pittsburgh Pa., '06
North. St. Nor. Sch., Mich., '99
Northrop, Cyrus, Minn., '02
Northrup, Calvin T., Ohio, '02
Northwestern College, Ill., '02
Northwestern Nor. Sch., Alva, Okla., '05
Northwestern Univ., Ill., '02
Norton, A. H., N. Y., '03
Norton, Arthur O., Mass., '02
Norton, A. W., S. Dak., '93
Norton, G. W., N. Y., '05
Norton, P. D., N. Dakota, '05
Noss, Theo. B., Pa., '96
Nosworthy, Emily, N. Y., '03
Noyes, E. C., Pa., '05
Noyes, William, N. Y., '05
Nuner, J. F., Ind., '06
Nusbaum, Louis, Pa., '03
Nutt, H. D., Mich., '06
Nye, Chas. H., Wis., '84
Nye, Ward H., Ohio, '02
Nyhart, H. U., Pa., '06
Nykirk, John B., Mich., '92
Oak Park Pub. Lib'y, Ill., '00
Oberlin Coll, Lib'y, Ohio, '02
O'Boyle, Rose, Mo., '04
O'Brien, Edwin T., Wis., '04
O'Brien, Kate E., Mo., '04
O'Brien, Mary C., N. Y., '03
O'Brien, Mary E., Mich., '03
O'Brien, Octavia, Mo., '04
O'Brien, Thos. S., N. Y., '03
O'Callaghan, W. F., N. Y., '94
O'Connell, Josephine T., Ill., '03
O'Connell, Margaret F., N. Y., '05
O'Connor, D. C., Panama, '94
O'Connor, Eleanor D., Ill., '03
O'Connor, Joseph, Cal., '88
O'Connor, Margaret A., Ohio, '02
Oday, H.A., Pa., '05
O'Dell, Lucien B., Ind., '00
O'Donnell, James A., N. Y., '05
O'Flaherty, Wm., N. Y., '05
Ogden, Robert C., N. Y., '03
Ogelvee, C. S., Ill., '03
Ogg, R. A., Ind., '97
O'Hanlon, R. J., Wis., '97
Ohio St. Lib'y, '02
Ohio State Univ., '97
O'Keefe, Mrs. S. J., Ill., '96
Olds, Mary L., Minn., '94
Oldt, Franklin T., Iowa, '95
Oldt, J. C., Ohio, '01
O'Leary, Kate S., Ill., '95
Olin, Arvin S. Kans., '86
Olin, Oscar E., Ohio, '03
Oliphant, G. F., Ga., '03
Olivenbaum, John E., Ohio, '05
Olmstead, Emma G., N. Y., '03
Olp, Ernest E., Ill., '07
Olsen, John W., Minn., '00
Olsen, Mrs. Mary D., Ill., '02
Omaha Pub. Lib'y, Nebr., '98
Omwake, Geo. L., Pa., '02
O'Neil, Cordelia L., Ohio, '01
O'Neil, Mary J. C., N. Y., '05
O'Neill, Chas. E., N. Y., '05
Oneonta Nor. Sch., N. Y., '03
Opdycke, John B., N. Y., '05
Ordes, Henrietta S., Mo., '04
O'Reilly, Mary, Ill., '02
Ormond, J. A., Fla., '04
Ormsby, F. B., Ill., '96
Orner, Geo. D., Pa., '06
Orr, Susan M., N. Y., '05
Osborn, A. C., S. C., '05
Osborn, G. H., N. C., '05
Osborn, James O., Cal., '06
Osgood, Susan S., N. Y., '06
O'Shea, M. V., Wis., '92
O'Shea, Wm. J., N. Y., '05
Ostien, L. A., Utah, '04
Ostrander, Chas. H., Ill., '02
Oswego Nor. Sch., N. Y., '00
Ott, Harvey N., N. Y., '01
Otterbein Univ., Ohio, '02
Overholser, Chas. E., N. Y., '05
Overman, Wm. F., N. J., '05
Owatonna Pub. Lib'y, Minn., '02
Owen, Herman E., Wis., '05
Owen, Hugh A., N. Mex., '97
Owen, Lincoln, Mass., '96
Owen, W. B., Ill., '96
Ozias, A. N., Minn., '05
Packer, Annie E., Iowa, '01
Padelford, F. M., Wash., '03
Padfield, W. G., Ill., '04
Paessler, V. S., N. Y., '98
Page, Caleb A., Mass., '03
Page, Edw. A., N. Y., '99
Page, Edw. C., Ill., '00
Page, Frank R., Mass., '03
Page, James M., Va., '03
Page, Norman J., N. H., '03
Page, Mrs. Mary B., Ill., '06
Painter, Ira C., Ohio, '03
Painter, J. E., Minn., '02
Painter, Mrs. Nannie E., Kans., '04
Palen, H. O., Cal., '02
Palmer, A. N., Iowa, '96
Palmer, Aaron, Iowa, '06
Palmer, Corwin F., Mass., '03
Palmer, E. D., Mich., '94
Palmer, Frank H., Mass., '01
Palmer, Irving O., Mass., '05
Palmer, James J., Pa., '05
Palmer, Luella A., N. Y., '04
Palmer, T. W., Ala., '03
Parauteau, Clementina, Ill., '04
Park College, Mo., '02
Park, Chas. F., Mass., '03
Parker, Alice N., Va., '98
Parker, B. D., Colo., '04
Parker, Chas. J., Ill., '87
Parker, Chas. V., Colo., '87

Parker, C. M., Ill., '95
Parker, Mrs. C. M., Ill., '05
Parker, George E., Mich., '05
Parker, L. H., Conn., '06
Parker, Mary E., Mass., '02
Parker, W. D., Wis., '84
Parker, W. N., Wis., '02
Parker, W. S., Mass., '96
Parkinson, D. B., Ill., '97
Parkinson, John B., Wis., '84
Parkinson, Wm. D., Mass., '03
Parks, Mrs. Mary B., Mo., '04
Parlin, Frank E., Mass., '01
Parmenter, Chas. W., Mass., '95
Parr, Mrs. Marie B., Ohio, '04
Parratt, Delbert W., Utah, '06
Parrish, Nancy E., Mo., '04
Parrish, Ophelia A., Mo., '01
Parry, Eleanor, N. Y., '03
Parry, Mrs. M. S., Minn., '02
Parson, S. F., Ill., '02
Parsons, Richard, Colo., '04
Pasadena Pub. Lib'y, Cal., '06
Paschallville Sch., Phila., Pa., '05
Passaic Pub. Lib'y, N. J., '03
Pate, Walter T., Miss, '05
Patridge, Lelia E., N. J., '76
Patten, Frank C., Texas, '07
Pattengill, Henry R., Mich., '02
Patterson, Alice B., Kans., '03
Patterson, Isaac F., Ohio, '03
Patterson, James K., Ky., '05
Patton, Cassia, Alaska, '05
Patton, Chas. L., N. Y., '86
Patton, Martha H., N. Y., '05
Paulsen, Josephyne M., N. Dak '03
Pauly, Fred L., Ohio, '06
Payne, Bertha, Ill., '02
Payne, Bruce R., Va., '05
Payne, Wm. H., Mich., '02
Peabody Coll. Univ. of Nashville, Tenn., '04
Peabody, Helen S., S. Dak., '01
Peabody, James E., N. Y., '03
Peacock, Mary C., Pa., '98
Peairs, H. B., Kans., '97
Peak, Chas. N., Ill., '96
Pearcy, Jas. B., Ind., '01
Pearse, A. S., Ill., '03
Pearse, C. G., Wis., '01
Pearson, F. B., Ohio, '01
Pearson, H. C., N. Y., '99
Pearson, Henry, Ga., '98
Pearson, Juliet, N. Y., '99
Pearson, M. E., Kans., '04
Pearson, Paul M., Pa., '06
Pease, Alvin F., Mass., '91
Pease, N. W., N. J., '94
Peaslee, Frank J., Mass., '03
Peaslee, John B., Ohio, '80
Peck Lib'y, Norwich Free Acad. Conn., '04
Peck, A. L., N. Y., '97
Peckham, Allen, N. Y., '05
Ped. Lib'y, Supt. of Schs., Pa., '00
Peed, Mansfield T., Ga., '03
Peet, Cora W., N. J., '05
Peirce, Katherine U., R. I., '03
Peirce, Wm. F., Ohio, '03
Pell, Mrs. Eliza S., N. Y., '05
Pell, Robert P., S. C., '05
Pelton, Anna J., Wash., '03
Pence, John H., Tenn., '04
Penniman, J. H., Pa., '99
Penn. State College, '00
Penn. State Library, '01
Pennsylvania State Museum, '06
Pennypacker, J. L., Pa., '00
Peoria Pub. Library, Ill., '01
Peres, Israel H., Tenn., '00
Perkins Institute, Mass., '97
Perkins, Albertus D., N. Y., '01
Perkins, F. O., Ill., '05
Perkins, John R., Conn., '05
Perkins, R. W., La., '01
Perrin, Mrs. Fannie B., Mo., '03
Perrin, John W., Ohio, '01
Perrin, Marshall L., Mass., '03
Perrine, Lura L., N. Dak., '95
Perry, Alfred T., Ohio, '00
Perry, Annie M., Mass., '03
Perry, Edward P., Mo., '04
Perry, Elizabeth H., Mass., '01
Perry, Wm. H., Ky., '08
Persons, Metta L., N. Y., '03
Peterson, A. E., Conn., '03
Peterson, Francis M., Ala., '01
Peterson, Jorgen C., Mass., '04
Peterson, J. P., Wis., '97
Pettee, George D., Ohio, '02
Phelan, Genevieve, Mo., '04
Phelan, W. W., Tenn., '08
Phelps, Wm. F., Minn., '70
Phenix, G. P., Va., '03
Philadelphian Soc., Wis., '84
Philbrook, C. F., Ariz., '95
Philips, Geo. M., Pa., '79
Philips, H. S., Colo., '99
Phillipps, James D., Mass., '05
Phillips, Anna L., N. Y., '05
Phillips, C. A., Mo., '03
Phillips, Daniel E., Colo., '00
Phillips, Ellen M., N. Y., '05
Phillips, E. M., Minn., '03
Phillips, Geo. W., Pa., '03
Phillips, Hattie A., Iowa, '06
Phillips, Helen M., Mo., '02
Phillips, J. H., Ala., '88
Phillips, Mrs. J. H., Ala., '01
Phillips, Sherman E., N. H., '03
Philomathean Lit. Soc., Pa., '08
Phoenixville Public Lib'y, Pa., '06
Piatt, Herman S., Ohio, '02
Pickard, Josiah L., Cal., '86
Picken, Wm. S., Kans., '04
Pielert, Sarah, Md., '03
Pierce, Edw. T., Cal., '89
Pierce, Mrs. Ella M., R. I., '96
Pierce, Lovick, D. C., '08
Pierce, Mary R., Ill., '97
Pierce, Thos. P., Ohio, '01
Pike, Effie M., Ill., '04
Pike, Joshua, Ill., '91
Pile, J. M., Nebr., '04
Pillsbury, John H., Mass., '03
Pincus, Jos. W., N. J., '05
Pinkerman, J. N., Ohio, '03
Pinkham, Geo. R., N. J., '03
Pinkham, Wm. S. M., Fla., '05
Pippin, Mrs. E. E., Md., '00
Pitman, J. A., Mass., '99
Pittinger, O. M., Ind., '01
Plainfield Pub. Lib'y and Read. Room, N. J., '04
Plaisted, Elizabeth L., N. Y., '05
Plapp, F. W., Ill., '97
Plass, Ada E., Mo., '04
Plimpton, Geo. A., N. Y., '94
Plough, Myron C., N. Y., '03
Plumer, Geo. M., Ohio, '96
Poindexter, Chas. C., N. Y., '04
Poland, A. B., N. J., '92
Pollard, Mary O., Ill., '02
Pollock, Rosalie, Utah, '97
Pollock, Susan P., D. C., '94
Polytechnic Preparatory Sch., Brooklyn, N. Y., '06
Pomeroy, Annie L., Mass., '05
Pomona Coll., Cal., '99
Pool, W. H., Tex., '03
Port Jervis Free Lib'y, N. Y. '99
Porter, C. W., Minn., '02
Porter, E. A. F., Ohio, '99
Porter, Edgar L., Minn., '02
Porter, Mrs. Florence McNeal., Mo., '92
Porter, James P., Mass., '06
Porter, Susan M., Wis., '03
Portland Pub. Lib'y, Maine, '06
Ports, Howard T., Iowa, '04
Posse, Baroness Rose, Mass., '95
Potter, Laura, N. Y., '05
Potter, Milton, C., Colo., '06
Potthoff, F. W., Mo., '04
Potts, D. Walter, Ill., '04
Pound, E. A., Ga., '01
Powell, Arthur, Ohio, '00
Powell, R. H., Ga., '06
Powell, W. F., N. J., '89
Power, Gussie, N. Y., '87
Powers, Emily C., N. Y., '03
Powers, Francis W., N. Y., '05
Powers, Jas. K., Ala., '95
Pratt Inst. Free Lib'y, N. Y., '01
Pratt, Helen M., Colo., '04
Pratt, H. T., Md., '05
Pratt, Isabelle L., N. Y., '05
Pratt, Orville C., Ind., '99
Pratt, R. H., Colo., '98
Pray, James S., Mass., '05
Pray, T. B., Wis., '94
Preece, Mrs. Louise, Minn., '94
Prentice, May H., Ohio, 02
Prentis, H. W., N. Y., '97
Preston, J. R., Miss., '00
Prettyman, Virgil, N. Y., '02
Price, H. C., Ohio, '02
Price, Richard R., Kans., '06
Prichard, Miss M. S., Pa., '98
Prillerman, Byrd, W. Va., '91
Primary Dept., Sch. No. 2, Jersey City, N. J., '05
Prince, John T., Mass., '91
Principals' Round Table, Wilmington, Del., '01
Pritchard, M. T., Mass., '96
Pritchard, Sophia E., Ill., '05
Pritchett, H. C., Texas, '92
Pritchett, Henry S., N. Y., '02
Prosser, Chas. A., Ind., '03
Proudfoot, Mary A., Wash., '03
Providence Pub. Lib'y, R. I., '04
Prov. Nor. Sch., Truro, Nova Scotia, Can., '03
Public High Sch., Red Bank, N. J., '05
Public Libraries, Cardiff, Wales, '00
Pub. Lib'y, Alameda, Cal., '04
Pub. Lib'y, Atlantic City, Free, N. J., '04
Pub. Lib'y, Baltimore, Md., '06
Pub. Lib'y, Boston, Mass., '00
Pub. Lib'y, Brockton, Mass., '04
Pub. Lib'y, Brookline, Mass., '03
Pub. Lib'y, Brooklyn, N. Y., '01
Pub. Lib'y, Buffalo, N. Y., '99
Pub. Lib'y, Butte, Mont., '00
Pub. Lib'y, Calumet and Hecla Mining Co., Mich., '02
Pub. Lib'y, Cambridge, Mass., '02
Pub. Lib'y, Chicago, Ill., '98
Pub. Lib'y, Cincinnati, Ohio, '06
Pub. Lib'y, Cleveland, Ohio, '97
Pub. Lib'y, Dayton, Ohio, '03
Pub. Lib'y, Denver, Col., '03
Pub. Lib'y, Detroit, Mich., '97
Pub. Lib'y, Dist. of Col., '05
Pub. Lib'y, Dover, N. H., '06
Pub. Lib'y, Duluth, Minn. '04
Pub. Lib'y, Free, E. Orange, N.J., '04
Pub. Lib'y, E. St. Louis, Ill., '04
Pub. Lib'y, Egg Harbor City, N.J., '05
Pub. Lib'y, Erie, Pa., '03
Pub. Lib'y, Evanston, Ill., '02
Pub. Lib'y, Fitchburg, Mass., '01
Pub. Lib'y, Fitz, Chelsea, Mass., '03
Pub. Lib'y, Gail Borden, Ill., '01
Pub. Lib'y, Grand Rapids, Mich. '06
Pub. Lib'y, Green Bay Wis., '06
Pub. Lib'y, Greenfield, Mass., '06
Pub. Lib'y, Greensboro, N. C., '06
Pub. Lib'y, Haverhill, Mass., '06
Pub. Lib'y, Hoyt, Saginaw, Mich., '03
Pub. Lib'y, Jersey City, N. J., '97

Pub. Lib'y, Kalamazoo, Mich., '01
Pub. Lib'y, Kansas City, Mo., '05
Pub. Lib'y, Lawrence, Mass., '03
Pub. Lib'y, Lexington, Ky., '06
Pub. Lib'y, Lincoln, Neb., '06
Pub. Lib'y, Los Angeles, Cal., '00
Pub. Lib'y, Free, Louisville, Ky., '04
Pub. Lib'y, Lynn, Mass., '01
Pub. Lib'y, Madison, N. J., '05
Pub. Lib'y, Malden, Mass., '00
Pub. Lib'y, Manchester, England, '02
Pub. Lib'y, Manchester, Mass., '03
Pub. Lib'y, McClelland, Colo., '06
Pub. Lib'y, Medford, Mass., '06
Pub. Lib'y, Milwaukee, Wis., '98
Pub. Lib'y, Missoula, Mont., '06
Pub. Lib'y, Montclair, N. J., '03
Pub. Lib'y, Newark, N. J., '03
Pub. Lib'y, New Bedford, Mass. '01
Pub. Lib'y, Newburyport, Mass. '03
Pub. Lib'y, New Haven, Conn., '01
Pub. Lib'y, New York, '99
Pub. Lib'y, New Rochelle, N. Y., '06
Pub. Lib'y, North Adams, Mass., 01
Pub. Lib'y, Oak Park, Ill., '00
Pub. Lib'y, Omaha, Neb., '98
Pub. Lib'y, Owatonna, Minn., '02
Pub. Lib'y, Pasadena, Cal., '06
Pub. Lib'y, Passaic, N. J., '03
Pub. Lib'y, Peoria, Ill., '01
Pub. Lib'y, Philadelphia, Pa., '97
Pub. Lib'y, Plainfield, N. J., '04
Pub. Lib'y, Portland, Maine, '06
Pub. Lib'y, Providence, R. I., '04
Pub. Lib'y, Rockford, Ill., '99
Pub. Lib'y, Sacramento, Cal., '03
Pub. Lib'y, St. Joesph, Mo., '00
Pub. Lib'y, St. Louis, Mo., '00
Pub. Lib'y, St. Paul, Minn., '01
Pub. Lib'y, Salem, Mass., '00
Pub. Lib'y, SanFrancisco,Cal., '97
Pub. Lib'y, Scranton, Pa., '99
Pub. Lib'y, Seattle, Wash., '01
Pub. Lib'y, Sedalia. Mo., '06
Pub. Lib'y, Somerville, Mass., '00
Pub. Lib'y, Syracuse, N. Y., '98
Pub. Lib'y, Taunton, Mass., '02
Pub. Lib'y, Toledo, Ohio, '05
Pub. Lib'y, Topeka, Kans., '00
Pub. Lib'y, Trenton, N. J., '01
Pub. Lib'y, Wellington, N. Z., '05
Pub. Lib'y, Westford, Mass., '06
Pub. Lib'y, Wheeling, W. Va., '01
Pub. Lib'y, Winona, Minn., '03
Pub. Lib'y, Worcester, Mass., '98
Pub. Lib'y, Yamaguchi, Japan, '05
Pub. Sch. Lib'y, Baltimore, Md., '05
Pub. Sch. Lib'y, Camden, N. J., '05
Pub. Sch. Lib'y, W. Hoboken, N. J., '05
Pub. Sch. Colfax Sub. Dist. Pittsburgh, Pa., '06
Pub. Sch., Luckey, Pittsburgh, Pa., '06
Pub. Sch., South Orange N. J., '05
Pub. Sch. Teachers of Janesville Wis., '84
Pub. Sch's, Bronx, N. Y., '03
Pub. Sch's, Brooklyn, N. Y. '03
Pub. Sch's, Manhattan, N. Y., '03
Pub. Sch's, Queens, N. Y., '03
Pub. Sch's, Richmond, N. Y., '03
Pub. Sch., Sub. Dist. Phila., Pa., '06
Pub. Sch., Homewood Sub. Dist., Pittsburgh, Pa., '06
Pugh, Jas. H., Ill., '98
Pulsifer, Wm. E., N. Y., '99
Purer, Mary I., Ill., '96
Purington, Daniel B., W. Va., '03
Purington, Geo. C., Maine, '03
Putnam, Mrs. Alice H., Ill., '93
Putnam, G. P., Texas, '04
Putnam, Richard R., Mich., '01
Putt, Wilson A., Ohio, '04
Pye, Charles F., Iowa, '04
Quackenbush, Louise S., Ill., '05
Quaintance, H. W., Wyo., '05
Queens Borough Lib'y, N. Y., '01
Quigley, John F., N. Y., '03
Quinn, Arthur H., Pa., '06
Quinn, Honor E., N. Y., '03
Quinn, John B., Mo., '04
Quinn, Mary E., N. Y., '03
Quinn, Matthew D., N. Y., '05
Rabe, John H., Mo., '04
Rabenort, Wm. L., N. Y., '05
Radcliffe College, Mass., '05
Rader, Lloyd, N. Dak., '05
Rafter, Augustine L., Mass., '04
Raines, S. E., Ill., '01
Rall, Edward E., Texas, '03
Ramer, M. M., S. Dak., '93
Ramsey, Geo. J., Ky., '89
Randall, Frances E., N. Y., '04
Randall, J. E., Ohio, '98
Randle, Gilbert P., Ill., '02
Randolph, Esle F., N. Y., '05
Ranger, W. E., R. I., '99
Rankin, A. W., Minn., '93
Rapp, Christian F., Ohio, '99
Rapp, Eli M., Pa., '97
Raschig, H. H., Ohio, '93
Rathmann, C. G., Mo., '01
Ravenhill, Alice, England, '01
Rawlings, Wm. S., Utah, '05
Rawlins, David B., Ill., '04
Rawson, E. B., N. Y., '99
Ray, E. Ruskin, Ind., '05
Ray, Robert M., Fla., '04
Ray, S. Stella. Ohio, '05
Rayman, R. E., Ohio, '95
Raymond, A. V. V., N. Y., '95
Rector, Lizzie E., N. Y., '05
Redfearn, Grace H., Pa., '05
Redfield, Henry A., Ohio, '05
Redman, Elmer S., N. Y., '00
Redway, J. W., N. Y., '00
Reed, A. A., Nebr., '95
Reed, Geo. H., N. J., '05
Reed, Grace, Ill., '02
Reeder, Rudolph R., N. Y., '05
Reeder, W. C., Ohio, '98
Reel, Estelle, Wyo., '04
Reese, W. S., Kans., '06
Reeves, C. F., Wash. '96
Regan, Margaret A., N. Y., '05
Regenstein, Ellsworth, Ky., '06
Reid, Geo. W., La., '06
Reigart, J. F., N. Y., '99
Reiley, Cynthia E., Mont., '95
Reilly, F. J., N. Y., '05
Reilly, Susan A., N. J., '05
Reinhart, J. Albert, N. J., '94
Remson, Ira, Md., '03
Rennie, Robert H., Ill., '07
Replogle, S. H., Pa., '06
Reppetto, Mary, W. Va., '07
Requa, Ella Lee, N. Y., '04
Requa, Emma M., N. Y., '04
Requa, M. Augusta, N. Y., '99
Ressler, Edwin D., Oregon, '92
Reveley, Ellen G., N. Y., '91
Reynolds, Alice E., Conn., '03
Reynolds, Frank E., Ohio, '06
Reynolds, J. H., Ark., '97
Rhoades, F. W., Wash., '03
Rhoads, McHenry, Ky., '91
Rhode Island Coll. of A. and M. Arts, '03
Rhode Island Nor. Sch., '97
Rhodes, J. M., Kans., '06
Rice, Charles I., Mass., '05
Rice, Emily A., N. J., '92
Rice, Gratia L., N. Y., '89
Rice, J. M., N. Y., '95
Rice, Olin R., Md., '05
Rice, Wm. N., Conn., '99
Rich, Wm. E. C., Mass., '03
Richards, A. W., N. Y., '02
Richards, C. O., N. Y., '02
Richards, C. R., N. Y., '98
Richards, Mrs. E. H., Mass., '98
Richards, Mrs. L. A., Nebr., '01
Richardson, B. C., Ill., '04
Richardson, Bertram C., Mass., '01
Richardson, Ira, Mo., '04
Richeson, John, Mo., '07
Richman, Julia, N. Y., '05
Richmond, Sarah E., Md., '76
Ricker, Maurice, Iowa, '06
Rickert, E. L., Iowa, '06
Riddell, Wm. O., Iowa, '05
Riggs, John F., Iowa, '04
Riley Co. Ed. Asso., Kans., '86
Riley, Mrs. M. E., Mo., '90
Ring, Orvis, Nev., '04
Ripley, Mrs. Ellor Carlisle, Mass., '00
Ripley, Fred H., Mass., '03
Ripon College, Wis., '02
Risdon, Sumner, Kans., '03
Riste, Ernest, Wash., '99
Riste, W. G., Kans., '95
Ritchie, Rowland H., Kans., '06
Ritter, Alice E. B., N. Y., '05
Ritter, Lavinia, Ill., '03
Ritter, Matilda A., Ill., '03
Rixstine, Mrs. Amanda, Pa., '05
Roach, T. W., Kans., '86
Robb, Eleanora, Md., '03
Robb, J. Irvin, Pa., '01
Robbins, Carolyn M., Minn., '02
Robbins, Fred W., Pa., '05
Robert College, Turkey, '03
Robert, Jas. A., Ohio, '82
Roberts, Chas. C., N. Y., '05
Roberts, Dimon H., Mich., '98
Roberts, Edw. D., Ohio, '00
Roberts, Flora, Ind., '96
Roberts, G. J., Wis., '06
Roberts, Geo. L., Ind., '01
Roberts, Hester A., N. Y., '94
Roberts, John S., N. Y., '05
Roberts, L. D., Wis., '97
Roberts, T. L., N. Y., '03
Roberts, Wm. E., Ohio, '98
Robertson, Edw. P., N. Dak., '06
Robertson, S. W., N. H., '03
Robeson, L. B., Ga., '03
Robey, Ellsworth., Ind., '03
Robinson, Albert, Mass., '03
Robinson, Bettie M., Ky., '06
Robinson, E. V., Minn., '02
Robinson, Ida E., N. J., '05
Robinson, Lucy, W. Va., '96
Robinson, Margaret M., Md., '05
Robinson, Mrs. Mary E., Mo., '04
Robinson, Oscar D., N. Y., '92
Robinson, S. S., Ky., '05
Robinson, W. S., Ohio, '95
Robson, Mary, Ill., '02
Rocheleau, W. F., Ill., '96
Rochester Athenaeum and Mech. Inst., N. Y., '06
Rockford Coll., Ill., '04
Rockwell, John C., N. Y., '03
Rockwood, Geo. H., Ill., '00
Rockwood, M. L., N. Y., '05
Rodney, Anna E., N. Y., '05
Rogers, A. C., Minn., '99
Rogers, Anna E., Ill., '02
Rogers, Dora B., W. Va., '96
Rogers, Howard J., N. Y., '96
Rogers, Jennie E., Mass., '03
Rogers, J. J., Ohio, '05
Rogers, Josephine E., N. Y., '93
Rogers, Sarah L., Ky., '04
Rogers, Rovillus R., N. Y., '95
Roller, F. J., Ohio, '98
Rollins, Frank, N. Y., '05
Romig, Chas. F., Utah, '06

Romig, Eugene E., Wash., '06
Roop, C. Y., Cal., '86
Roop, H. U., Pa., '04
Roos, Peter, Mass., '03
Root, Chas. C., Mich., '01
Rose, Geo. E., Kans., '86
Rose, Wickliffe, Tenn., '02
Rosier, Joseph, W. Va., '05
Ross, Pete W., Cal., '99
Rosseter, E. C., Ill., '00
Roth, Anna C., Ky., '97
Rothe, Ella A., Ohio, '00
Rothemel, A. C., Pa., '03
Rothemel, Florence, Pa., '03
Rouse, Edwin L., Nebr., '05
Row, R. K., Ill., '99
Rowan, Gertrude N., Nebr., '06
Rowe, F. F., Ga., '03
Rowe, H. M., Md., '96
Rowe, Stuart H., N. Y., '98
Rowe, Wallace G., Mo., '04
Rowe, W. S., Ohio, '95
Rowell, Arthur B., Ill., '06
Rowell, Geo. C., N. Y., '05
Rowland, J. H., Ohio, '96
Roy, Annie L., N. Y., '05
Roy, Victor L., La., '05
Rudd, Channing, D. C., '04
Rudolf, Ida, Ky., '96
Ruetenik, Gustave A., Ohio, '05
Rugg, George, Mass., '03
Rumold, C. F., Ky., '06
Runquest, Amanda H., Ariz., '05
Runyon, Laura L., Mo., '01
Rusk, Rebecca, N. Y., '05
Russell, E. H., Va., '05
Russell, I. H., Pa., '03
Russell, Jas. E., N. Y., '95
Russell, Mary F., Ind. T., '04
Russell, V. M., Wis., '03
Russell, Walter E., Maine, '01
Rust, Annie C., Mass., '03
Rutherford, W. L., Pa., '06
Ruthrauff, Wm. M., Ariz., '06
Rutledge Sch., Phila., Pa., '05
Rutt, A. Reist, Pa., '06
Ryan, John P., Iowa, '04
Ryan, Joseph F., Mass., '03
Ryan, M. Josephine, N. Y., '05
Ryan, Thomas J., N. Y., '05
Ryan, W. C., Mont., '02
Rynearson, Edward, Pa., '03
Ryon, C. M., N. Y., '96
Saben, Alfred S., Mass., '01
Sabin, Albert R., Ill., '84
Sabin, Ellen C., Wis., '95
Sabin, Henry, Iowa, '89
Sachs, Julius, N. Y., '03
Sackett, Adda P., N. Y., '05
Sacramento Free Pub. Lib'y, Cal. '03
Sage, A. H., Wis., '98
Sage, Elizabeth, N. Y., '06
Sage, Walter M., N. J., '05
Sage, W. V., Mich., '96
St. Clair Sub.-Dist. Schs., Pittsburgh, Pa., '06
St. Clair, Flora C., Ill., '04
St. Clair, W. T., Ky., '01
St. John's Univ., Minn., '02
St. Louis Mercantile Lib'y Ass'n, Mo., '03
St. Louis Pub. Lib'y, Mo., '00
St. Louis Univ., Mo., '01
St. Paul Pub. Lib'y, Minn., '01
St. Stanislaus Seminary, Mo., '03
Salberg, Emma J., N. Y., '05
Salem Pub. Lib'y, Mass., '00
Salisbury, Albert, Wis., '87
Salisbury, Grace E., Wis., '05
Sallmon, Wm., H., Minn., '03
Sammis, Edward A., Conn., '03
Sampson, H. C., Wash., '05
Samuel, Wm. H., Pa., '93
Sanders, F. W., Nebr., '97
Sanders, Wm. H., Ind., '05
Sanderson, Jessie, Mo., '04
Sandison, Howard, Ind., '96
Sandwick, R. L., Ill., '06
Sanford, Fernando, Cal., '97
Sanford, Henry R., N. Y., '95
Sanger, C. Augusta, N. Y., '05
Sanor, S. D., Ohio, '93
Sargent, Dudley A., Mass., '96
Saunders, C. E., Miss., '05
Saunders, Sara A., N. Y., '96
Savitz, J. J., N. J., '99
Sawhill, Thos. A., Kans., '86
Sawyer, C. L., Minn., '97
Sawyer, LeRoy R., Mass., '04
Sawyer, Nettie A., Wash., '04
Sayward, S. Janet, Pa., '05
Schaeffer, Nathan C., Pa., '87
Schaffer, Anna E., Wis., '04
Scarlett, Andrew, N. J., '05
Schauffler, Alfred T., N. Y., '95
Schellenger, G. J., S. Dak., '01
Scherer, James A. B., S. C., '04
Schiff, Hannah, Ill., '02
Schiller, J. D., Mich., '96
Schmerker, Charlotte S., Pa., '05
Schmidt, F. A., N. Y., '96
Schmidt, Hans W., Minn., '02
Schmidt, Johanna, Mo., '04
Schmitz, Hubert J., N. Y., '04
Schmucker, S. C., Pa., '92
Schneider, Henry G., N. Y., '95
Schneider, Kate, Mo., '04
Schobinger, J. J., Ill., '99
Schofield, Martha, S. C., '91
Scholfield, Bessie M., R. I., '96
Scholl, Joseph H., Ind., '05
Sch. of Agri., Univ. of Minn., '02
Sch. of Ed., Univ. of Chicago, Ill., '99
Sch. No. 2, Jersey City, N. J., '05
Sch. No. 2, P. D., Jersey City, N. J., '05
Sch. of Ped., N. Y. Univ., N. Y., '99
Schreiber, Mae E., N. Y., '96
Schultze, Arthur, N. Y., '05
Schulz, C. G., Minn., '02
Schurman, J. G., N. Y., '96
Schurtz, Orr, Mich., '05
Schuster, O. J., Wis., '04
Schuyler, Aaron, Kans., '86
Schuyler, E. H., N. J., '94
Schuyler, Wm., Mo., '01
Schwalmeyer, Maud, Fla., '04
Schwaner, Helen, Mo., '04
Scollen, Maude E., Mich., '03
Scotia Seminary, N. C., '99
Scott, C. P. G., N. Y., 06
Scott, Edith A., N. Y., '99
Scott, E. H., Ill., '95
Scott, F. N., Mich., '97
Scott, Izora, Md., '97
Scott, Jas. W., Colo., '93
Scott, Margaret, N. Y., '03
Scott, Mary B., N. Y., '05
Scott, May L., Idaho, '03
Scott, Sarah E., N. Y., '05
Scott, Walter D., Ill., '05
Scott, W. H., Ohio, '93
Scovel, E. C., S. Dak., '01
Scovel, Sylvester F., Ohio, '97
Scranton Pub. Lib'y, Pa., '99
Scribner, E. E., Mich., '01
Scripture, A. M., N. Y., '03
Scroggie, C. R., Ia., '04
Scudder, Myron T., N. Y., '95
Seal, Alfred N., Pa., '03
Search, Preston W., Ohio, '06
Searing, Richard A., N. Y., '05
Searle, F. E., Mich., '99
Searle, Miss S. M., N. J., '93
Sears, A. G., Idaho, '05
Sears, Chas. H., Wis., '03
Searson, J. W., Nebr., '02
Seattle Pub. Lib'y Wash., '01
Seaver, Edwin P., Mass., '93
Sechrist, Frank K., Wis., '05
Sedalia Public Lib'y, Mo., '06
Sedgwick, Wm. T., Mass., '99
Seed, Elizabeth R., Pa., '06
Seeley, Levi, N. J., '90
Seerley, H. H., Iowa, '89
Segerblom, Wilhelm, N. H., '03
Seguin, Mrs. Elsie M., N. J., '05
Seifert, Miss J. E. A., Ill., '03
Seighman, R. B., Mich., '05
Sellew, Edward B., Conn., '03
Seltzer, Livingston, Pa., '06
Selvig, C. G., Minn., '02
Senger, Harry L., Ohio, '01
Senter, H. A., Nebr., '03
Sensening, David M., Pa., '06
Severs, Mary E., Pa., '05
Sexton, E. K., N. J., '97
Sexton, Mamie, Texas, '05
Seymour, A. H., S. Dak., '02
Seymour, F. Grace, N. Y., '04
Shafer, Harry M., Wash., '01
Sharkey, J. P., Ohio, '00
Sharp, Clara E., N. J., '05
Sharpe, John C., N. J., '05
Shaver, Chas. A., N. Y., '00
Shaw University N. C., '03
Shaw, A. L., Mich., '97
Shaw, J. C., W. Va., '03
Shaw, Robert C., Pa., '06
Shaw, Samuel, Wis., '84
Shawan, J. A. Ohio, '94
Shawen, Ernest, Va., '03
Shear, S. R., N. Y., '05
Shearer, W. J., N. J., '95
Shearer, W. S., Ill., '97
Sheats, W. N., Fla., '93
Shedd, Ephraim C., N. Y., '03
Sheehan, Lula V., N. Y., '05
Shelley, Kate, Mont., '01
Shelton, Chas. E., Iowa, '00
Shelton, F. M., Pa., '99
Shepard, E. I., Mass., '00
Shepard, Irwin, Minn., '83
Shepherd, F. S., N. J., '03
Sheppard, James J., N. Y., '01
Sheppe, R. H., Va., '04
Sheridan, Bernard M., Mass., 05
Sherman, Allton H., N. J., '06
Sherman, Chas. M., Wash., '01
Sherman, Elmer C., N. J., '05
Sherman, Eugene B., Nebr., '05
Sherrick, J. R., Wis., '02
Sherwell, Guillermo A., Mex., '05
Sherwood, Mrs. J. C., Cal., '99
Shields, Emily J., Pa., '03
Shiels, Albert, N. Y., '03
Shigley, Anna B., Ohio, '05
Shimer, E. D., N. Y., '05
Shimp, T. W., Ohio, '06
Shinnick, M. Isabelle, Mo., '04
Shires, Mary, N. Y., '05
Shirk, David F., Kans., '95
Shoemaker, W. A., Minn., '95
Shoop, John D., Ill., '00
Shorkley, Mrs. H. B., Cal., '99
Short, Anna A., N. Y., '05
Shotwell, Ambrose M., Mich., '01
Showalter, D. B., La., '05
Showers, F. F., Wis., '05
Shuart, Emma L., Ohio, '06
Shultes, Alice H., Wis., '00
Shutt, Henry M., Ohio, '06
Shutts, Geo. C., Wis., '96
Sibley, Mrs. Bella B., Colo., '06
Sibley, Chas. A., Mass., '95
Siders, Walter R., Idaho, '01
Silas Bronson Lib'y, Conn., '02
Silfa, Belisario, N. Y., '05
Silke, Lucy S., Ill., '93
Silver, Edgar O., N. Y., '94
Silver, Ernest L., N. H., '02
Silvernale, John L., Minn., '06
Simkins, J. D., Ohio, '04
Simmermon, T. L., Ohio, '03
Simmons College, Mass., '02
Simmons, Chas. L., Mass., '02
Simmons, J. W., Mich., '99
Simons, Chas. F., N. Y., '03
Simons, Sarah E., D. C., '06
Simonson, R. B. D., Mo., '00
Simpson, Eunice J., Mass., '03

Simpson, Shadrach, Md., '04
Simpson, Stephen G., Pa., '03
Sims, Frederic L., Ill., '04
Sims, J. F., Wis., '97
Sinclair, S. B., Can., '91
Singer, Edgar A., Pa., '80
Sisson, E. O., Wash., '06
Sites, C. M. Lacy, China, '02
Skaggs, Wm. L., Ark., '04
Skiff, Frederick J. V., Ill., '04
Skinner, Chas. R., N. Y., '90
Skinner, Elizabeth, Colo., '99
Slack, H. W., Minn., '97
Slack, Jennie E., Ill., '03
Slagle, Robt. L., S. Dak., '06
Slater, Charles H., Mo., '04
Slater, Ida M., Pa., '06
Slater, Margaret K., Mo., '04
Slaton, W. F., Ga., '97
Slaton, W. M., Ga., '94
Slauson, H. M., Mich., '94
Slawson, Samuel J., N. Y., '03
Sledd, Andrew, Fla., '04
Sluss, Elmer E., Kans., '06
Sluss, Homer O., Ky., '05
Small, Horace C., Mo., '03
Small, Maurice H., Wis., '03
Small, Robert O., Mass., '03
Small, Walter H., R. I., '02
Smalley, D. H., Ill., '99
Smallwood, Mabel E., Ill., '96
Smart, Frank L., Iowa, '06
Smedley, Eva A., Ill., '97
Smiley, Emory E., Colo., '05
Smiley, Wm. H., Colo., '92
Smith College, Mass., '98
Smith, A. F., Mo., '05
Smith, A. G. C., Pa., '03
Smith, Alexander, Ill., '99
Smith, Anna T., D. C., '95
Smith, Arthur F., Md., '03
Smith, A. Thos., Pa., '93
Smith, C. Alphonso, N. C., '05
Smith, Chas. A., Minn., '02
Smith, Charles H., Ill., '05
Smith, Mrs. Constance B., Ill., '05
Smith, C. V., Pa., '03
Smith, D. E., N. Y., '01
Smith, Edward E., Ill., '96
Smith, Edward S., Ill., '01
Smith, Edwin R., Ill., '97
Smith, Euler B., Ga., '87
Smith, F. P., Kans., '97
Smith, Geo., A., N. Y., '04
Smith, Geo. M., S. Dak., '95
Smith, Geo. W., Colo., '04
Smith, Gerard T., Ill., '04
Smith, Guy D., Mich., '04
Smith, Henry B., Colo., '99
Smith, Herbert A., D. C., '05
Smith, H. J., N. Y., '95
Smith, H. Lester, Ind., '02
Smith, I. J., Mo., '04
Smith, J. Angelina, Mass., '03
Smith, J. B., Pa., '03
Smith, J. F., Ohio, '98
Smith, Jesse L., Ill., '00
Smith, Jos. R., Pa., '99
Smith, Mrs. Martha, N. Y., '05
Smith, Maude, N. Y., '05
Smith, M. B., Mass., '99
Smith, M. Kate, N. Y., '05
Smith, Payson, Maine, '06
Smith, Robt. M., Ill., '02
Smith, Samuel McK., N. Y., '05
Smith, Sidney F., Mass., '95
Smith, Spencer R., Ill., '03
Smith, Miss Theo. L., Mass., '04
Smith, Wayne P., Cal., '05
Smith, W. C., Minn., '02
Smith, Wm. A., N. Y., '03
Smith, Wm. C., Ind., '00
Smith, Wm. H., N. J., '03
Smith, Wm. Z., Okla., '06
Smith, Z. M., Ill., '05
Smyser, Selden F., Minn., '02
Sneath, E. Hershey, Conn., '03
Snedden, D. S., N. Y., '99
Snow, Bonnie E., N. Y., '96
Snow, B. P., Maine, '03
Snow, Francis H., Kans., '93
Snow, Louis F., N. J., '03
Snow, Marshall S., Mo., '04
Snow, Mary S., N. Y., '08
Snyder, Henry, N. J., '94
Snyder, Jessie M., Ga., '97
Snyder, J. H., Ohio, '96
Snyder, J. L., Mich., '89
Snyder, W. H., Maine, '01
Snyder, Z. X., Colo., '87
Snyder, Mrs. Z. X., Colo., '96
Soldan, F. Louis, Mo., '77
Sollitt, Alice E., Ill., '93
Somerville Pub. Lib., Mass., '00
Sommer, Frank H., N. J., '05
Soper, Laura J., Mich., '01
Soulé, Geo., La., '92
Soule, O. M., Ohio, '01
South Carolina College, '02
S. Dak. Agri. College, '99
So. Ill. Nor. University, '99
Southern University, Ala., '06
South Orange Pub. Sch., N. J., '05
Southern Oregon St. Nor. Sch., '06
Southwest Texas St. Nor. Sch., '04
Southwick, H. H., N. Y., '02
Southwick, Mrs. S. F., Okla., '05
Southworth, E., Mass., '03
Southworth, G. A., Mass., '03
Spaid, Arthur R., Del., '03
Spain, Chas. L., Mich., '01
Spalding, J. Lancaster, Ill., '02
Spangler, H. T., Pa., '94
Sparks, J. R., Ill., '02
Sparlin, Ezra M., Pa., '98
Spaulding, F. E., Mass., '96
Spaulding, Randall, N. J., '92
Spayd, H. H., Pa., '92
Spearing, Jessie, La., '03
Speer, W. W., Ill., '96
Spence, Ellen, Canada, '05
Spencer, Enos, Ky., '03
Spencer, Pauline W., Pa., '93
Spencer, Robt. C., Wis., '84
Spencer, Thos. E. Mo., 04
Spero, Mrs. Anna K., Cal., '77
Spicer, Robert, Pa., '05
Spiegle, Grace E., Pa., '99
Spindler, J. W., Kans., '99
Spohrer, Frank O., Mo., '04
Spotts, Harris A., Pa., '03
Sprague, H. B., Mass., '03
Spray, H. W., N. C., '03
Springer, Durand W., Mich., '94
Sputh, Carl B., Ind., '06
Squire, Mary V., N. Y., '96
Stableton, J. K., Ill., '00
Stacey, B. F., Cal., '04
Staley, Laura B., Pa., '05
Stalker, Francis M., Ind., '01
Standinger, Louisa, N. J., '05
Stanley, Edmund, Kans., '86
Stannard, H. J., Vt., '03
Stannard, Mrs. M. J., Mass., '03
Stanton, B. J., N. Y., '03
Staples, Helen F., Minn., '96
Staples, Leroy G., R. I., '03
Starbuck, Edwin D., Iowa, '99
Stark, Eliza A., Mo., '04
Stark, Joshua, Wis., '84
Stark, Wm. E., N. Y., '03
Starkey, F. H., Pa., '05
State Agri. College, Kans., '97
St. Bd. of Education, Mont., '02
St. Coll. of A. & M. Arts, N. C., '04
St. Coll. of Washington, '05
St. F. N. Sch., Farmville, Va., '99
St. Historical Society, Wis., '84
State Library, Cal., '99
State Library, Mass., '98
State Library, Mich., '02
State Library, New Jersey, '01
State Library, N. Y., '03
State Library, Ohio, '01
State Library, Pa., '01
State Library, Wash., '06
State Nor. College, Ala., '01
State Nor. College, Mich., '00
St. Nor. & Ind. Coll., N. C., '98
St. N. Sch., Ashland, Oregon, '06
St. N. Sch., Bellingham, Wash., '00
St. N. Sch., Bloomsburg, Pa., '06
St. N. Sch., Brockport, N. Y., '00
St. N. Sch., California, Pa., '99
St. N. Sch., Cape Girardeau, Mo., '06
St. N. Sch., Cedar Falls, Ia., '97
St. N. Sch., Charleston, Ill., '99
St. N. Sch., Cheney, Wash., '02
St. N. Sch., Chico, Cal., '97
St. N. Sch., Cortland, N. Y., '02
St. N. Sch., De Kalb, Ill., '99
St. N. Sch., Duluth, Minn., '06
St. N. Sch., Edinboro, Pa., '06
St. N. Sch., Ellensburg, Wash., '97
St. N. Sch., Emporia, Kans., '05
St. N. Sch., Farmville, Va., '99
St. N. Sch., Fitchburg, Mass., '98
St. N. Sch., Flagstaff, Ariz., '01
St. N. Sch., Geneseo, N. Y., '06
St. N. Sch., Greeley, Colo., '97
St. N. Sch., Hays, Kans., '05
St. N. Sch., Indiana, Pa., '99
St. N. Sch., Jacksonville, Ala., '99
St. N. Sch., Lewiston, Idaho, '06
St. N. Sch., Lockhaven, Pa., '06
St. N. Sch., Los Angeles, Cal., '97
St. N. Sch., Macomb, Ill., '02
St. N. Sch., Mankato, Minn., '99
St. N. Sch., Mansfield, Pa., '97
St. N. Sch., Marquette, Mich., '99
St. N. Sch., Mayville, N. Dak., '00
St. N. Sch., Millersville, Pa., '97
St. N. Sch., Monmouth, Oregon, '01
St. N. Sch., Moorhead, Minn., '97
St. N. Sch., Mt. Pleasant, Mich., '02
St. N. Sch., Natchitoches, La., '06
St. N. Sch., New Paltz, N. Y., '99
St. N. Sch., Oneonta, N. Y., '03
St. N. Sch., Oshkosh, Wis., '98
St. N. Sch., Oswego, N. Y., '00
St. N. Sch., Peru, Nebr., '02
St. N. Sch., Plattville, Wis., '84
St. N. Sch., Plattsburgh, N. Y., '02
St. N. Sch., Plymouth, N. H., '03
St. N. Sch., Providence, R. I., '97
St N. Sch., River Falls, Wis., '06
St. N. Sch., Salem, Mass., '00
St. N. Sch., St. Cloud, Minn., '97
St. N. Sch., San Diego, Cal., '02
St. N. Sch., San José, Cal., '98
St. N. Sch., Shippensberg, Pa., '06
St. N. Sch., Southwest, Texas, 04
St. N. Sch., Superior, Wis., '00
St. N. Sch., Tempe, Ariz., '01
St. N. Sch., Terre Haute, Ind., '97
St. N. Sch., Trenton, N. J., '97
St. N. Sch., Valley City, N. Dak., '02
St. N. Sch., Warrensburg, Mo., '05
St. N. Sch., West Chester, Pa., '06
St. N. Sch., Western, Mich., '05
St. N. Sch., Westfield, Mass., '97
St. N. Sch., W. Liberty, W. Va., '00
St. N. Sch., Whitewater, Wis., '98
St. N. Sch., Winona, Minn., '97
St. N. Univ., Carbondale, Ill., '99
St. N. Univ., Normal, Ill., '98
State Department of Education, Tex., '06
St. Teachers' Assoc. of Ill., '90
St. University, Iowa, '97
St. University, N. Dak., '99
St. Univ., Lib'y, Ohio, '97
Stauff, John H., Wis., '05
Stauffer, Amos F., N. J., '05
Stearns, J. W., Cal., '84
Stearns, Wallace N., N. Dak., 03
Stecher, Wm. A., Ind., '04

Steele, Wm. L., Ill., '90
Steele, Wm. S., Pa., '05
Steelman, D. T., N. J., '05
Steelman, Etta H., N. J., '05
Steenis, John W., Wis., '04
Stehman, J. H., Ill., '97
Stein, Francis J., Pa., '03
Stein, Helen A., N. Y., '05
Steinem, Mrs. Pauline, Ohio, '05
Stephens, Edwin L., La., '04
Stephens, H. Morse, Cal., '96
Stephens, H. T., Kans., '03
Stephens, M. Bates, Md., '98
Stephens, Wm. L., Nebr., '04
Stephenson, Lillie S., Ill., '95
Sterling, Louise W., Ohio, '06
Sterling, W. D., N. Mex., '02
Stern, Menco, N. Y., '82
Stetson, W. W., Maine, '95
Stevens Inst. of Tech., N. J., '05
Stevens, C. E., Ohio, '01
Stevens, Charles E., Mass., '02
Stevens, Edw. L., N. Y., '99
Stevens, Mary A., Maine, '03
Stevens, Moses C., Ind., '76
Stevens, Plowden J., Jr., N. Y., '95
Stevens, W. J., Mo., '04
Stevens, W. M., Iowa, '02
Stevenson, A. L., Ill., '97
Stevenson, Haviland, N. Y., '01
Stevenson, Philo S., Mo., '04
Stevenson, Wm. C., Ill., '90
Steward, Darius, Minn., '00
Stewart, I. N., Wis., '84
Stewart, Jessie, Ky., '05
Stewart, John A., Mich., '84
Stewart, Jos. S., Ga., '95
Stewart, N. Coe, N. Y., '02
Stewart, Paul E., Cal., '05
Stewart, Sarah A., N. J., '84
Stewart, Seth T., N. Y., '03
Stewart, Wm. M., Utah, '05
Stickney, Lucia, Ohio, '93
Stigall, Oliver, Mo., '98
Stilwell, J. F., Ariz., '06
Stilwell, Wm. E., Ohio, '03
Stine, Chas. W., Pa., '06
Stitt, E. W., N. Y., '96
Stocker, Marie E., Mo., '04
Stockwell, Mrs. H. H., N. Dak., '94
Stockwell, S. S., Wyo., '06
Stockwell, Walter L., N. Dak., '04
Stoddard, Miss C. W., N. Y., '02
Stokes, A. L., S. C., '00
Stokes, Susan G., Cal., '99
Stone, Claude U., Ill., '02
Stone, Edith M., Mich., '04
Stone, Mason S., Vt., '04
Stoneberg, Philip J., Ill., '03
Stoner, C. B., Ohio, '01
Stoner, Sanford L., Colo., '06
Stoner, W. H., Iowa, '02
Stoner, W. W., Nebr., '05
Stoneroad, Rebecca, D. C., '96
Storm, A. V., Iowa, '94
Storms, A. B., Iowa, '04
Storms, John, Mo., '06
Stott, J. W., Ind., '06
Stout, Geo. H., Pa., '84
Stout, Henry F., Ill., '06
Stout, J. D., Wash., '98
Stovall, Anna M., Cal., '99
Stover, Edw. B., S. Dak., '06
Stowell, Thos. B., N. Y., '91
Strachan, Alex., S. Dak., '97
Strachan, Grace C., N. Y., '03
Strachan, Mary G., Ohio, '06
Stratford Lib'y Assoc., Conn., '03
Stratton, C. C., Oregon, '88
Stratton, F. E., N. Dak., '86
Straubenmüller, G., N. Y., '97
Strayer, Geo. D., N. Y., '06
Strickland, W. S., Ohio, '99
Striker, Edith P., N. J., '05
Strine, J. H., Cal., '99
Striplin, W. E., Ala., '02
Strong, Cora, N. C., '05
Strong, Edwin A., Mich., '85
Strong, Frank, Kans., '02
Strong, Jas. W., Minn., '95
Stroup, A. B., N. Mex., '04
Stryker, E. DuB., N. Y., '05
Stryker, Franklin A., N. J., '05
Stuart, Alex. T., D. C., '00
Stuart, A. W., Iowa, '03
Stuart, Margaret, Ill., '01
Stuart, Milo H., Ind., '02
Stubbs, J. E., Nev., '95
Study, J. N., Ind., '97
Stuver, E., Colo., '95
Stuyvesant High School, N. Y., '05
Sudborough, Mrs. G., Nebr., '80
Sulikowski, Charles, Switzerland, '05
Sullivan, D. J., Cal., '05
Sullivan, Ella C., Ill., '99
Sullivan, Isabella, N. Y., '05
Sullivan, James, N. Y., '03
Summers, Alex., D. C., '98
Super, Chas. W., Ohio, '91
Supt. and Prin. Asso., Wis., '84
Supt. of Sch's, Santa Clara Co., Cal., '06
Superior St. Nor. Sch., Wis., '00
Suplee, Etta, Iowa, '95
Surette, Thos. W., N. Y., '01
Suter, Anna, Ind., '90
Suter, Anna L., N. Y., '05
Suter, Miss H. A., La., '94
Sutherland, Annie, N. Y., '05
Sutherland, Margaret W., Ohio, '05
Sutton, W. S., Texas, '95
Suzzallo, Henry, Cal., '05
Swain, G. R., Mich., '01
Swain, Henry H., Mont., '04
Swain, Joseph, Pa. '93
Swan, Phebe, Wis., '97
Swanger, F. A., Cal., '99
Swanson, Oscar E., Wyo., '06
Swart, Rose C., Wis., '95
Swarthmore Coll. Lib'y, Pa., '02
Swartz, Jno. W., Ohio, '99
Sweeney, Ella L., R. I., '00
Sweeney, Thomas H., N. Y., '05
Sweet, Benj. A., Colo., '00
Sweetland, Libbie J., N. Y., '02
Swett, Harry P., N. H., '02
Swett, John, Cal., '99
Swift, Fletcher H., Wash., '05
Sylvester, Emma, N. Y., '05
Symonds, Lucy H., Mass., '03
Syracuse Pub. Lib'y, N. Y., '98
Syracuse University, N. Y., '06
Tadd, J. Liberty, Pa., '92
Tait, Elizabeth S., Pa., '98
Tait, John Alfred, Ohio, '05
Talbot, Henry, Ill., '92
Talbot, Henry P., Mass., '03
Tapley, Lucy H., Maine, '03
Tapley, Wm. W., Mass., '92
Tapper, Thos., N. Y., '02
Tarr, Ralph S., N. Y., '99
Tate, Mary E., N. Y., '05
Tate, W. K., S. C., '99
Taunton Public Library, Mass., '02
Taylor, A. R., Ill., '86
Taylor, Daniel P., Colo., '01
Taylor, G. Warren, Ill., '00
Taylor, Harriet C., Mass., '03
Taylor, J. B., Okla., '03
Taylor, J. C., Pa., '06
Taylor, Jefferson, Cal., '03
Taylor, Jos. S., N. Y., '94
Taylor, R. A., N. Y., '01
Tazewell, Jennie, Ill., '04
Teachers' Asso., Cowley Co., Kans., '86
Teachers' Asso., Milwaukee, Wis., '05
Teachers' Asso., Riley Co., Kans., '86
Teachers' Asso. of Wis., '84
Teachers' College, Dept. Man Tr., N. Y., '99
Teachers' Consult. Lib'y, Trenton, N. J., '05
Teachers' Inst., Phila., Pa., '79
Teague, George, N. J., '05
Tear, Daniel A., Ill., '06
Tefft, Lyman B., Va., '03
Teitrick, Reed B., Pa., '05
Temming, R. V., Okla., '06
Tempe Nor. Sch., Ariz., '01
Templeton, J. C., Nev., '94
Tennerry, Kate E., Ill., '02
Terrel, Harriet E., Ohio, '96
Terry, Jennie V., N. Y., '05
Terwilliger, Lewis, Mont., '04
Teschemacher, Helen A., N.Y., '05
Teuteberg, L. W., Mo., '04
Thackston, Albert J., S. C., '03
Thackston, J. W., N. C., '05
Thames, W. I., Miss., '97
Tharp, Wm. H., Ky., '05
Tharpe, F. D., Mo., '91
Theilmann, Louis, Mo., '95
Thelluson, Chas. F., N. Y., '05
Theobold, Jacob, Jr., N. Y., '05
Thiry, J. H., N. Y., '97
Thomas, A. O., Nebr., '04
Thomas, D. W., Ind., '96
Thomas, E. R., Colo., '02
Thomas, Geo. S., N. Dak., '02
Thomas, Ida, Wyo., '05
Thomas, Isaac, Vt., '99
Thomas, Jennie L., Mich., '00
Thomas, Mathonihah, Utah, '05
Thomas, Richard S., N. Y., '01
Thomas, S. S., La., '04
Thomas, W. Scott, Cal., '99
Thompson, Alfred C., N. Y., '05
Thompson, A. N., Colo., '04
Thompson, Aug. A., N. Y., '05
Thompson, D. M., N. C., '98
Thompson, E. E., Mass., '03
Thompson, F. F., Colo., '03
Thompson, Frank E., Cal., '03
Thompson, H. E., Okla., '95
Thompson, Helen J., N. J., '05
Thompson, J. M., N. Y., '06
Thompson, J. W., N. J., '06
Thompson, John G., Mass., '95
Thompson, K. L., N. Y., '03
Thompson, Louise B., Ohio, '03
Thompson, L. S., N. J., '76
Thompson, M. J., N. Y., '03
Thompson, O. D., Mich., '96
Thompson, S. H., Nebr., '03
Thompson, T. E., Mass., '97
Thompson, Wm. O., Ohio, '94
Thomson, Miss F. E., Ohio, '99
Thomson, Frank D., Ill., '95
Thornburg, Z. C., Iowa, '01
Thorndike, E. L., N. Y., '98
Thornton, Aug. O., Mo., '04
Thorson, I. A., Minn., '98
Thudium, C. C., Mo., '98
Thurber, Chas. H., Mass., '93
Thurston, E. L., D. C., '03
Thwing, Chas. F., Ohio., '95
Thwing, F. F., Ky., '01
Tibbets, Anna M., Nebr., '94
Tibbetts, A. C., Minn., '95
Tibbits, H. S., Ill., '00
Tibbits, Mary K., Mass., '03
Tibbitts, F. A., N. J., '03
Tichenor, Laura J., Mo., '04
Tighe, R. J., N. C., '00
Tilden, Chas. A., Ohio, '05
Tillotson, D. C., Kans., '86
Tilton, Chas. S., Wash., '99
Tinker, B. W., Conn., '97
Tobey, Silas B., Wis., '03
Tobias, W. E., Pa., '06
Tobin, Mary E., Ill., '01
Todd, Samuel B., Ill., '95
Todd, I. H., Ill., '04
Toepel, Theodore, Ga., '01
Toepp, Laurence A., N. Y., '05
Toland, T. L., Texas, '05

Toledo Pub. Lib'y, Ohio, '05
Tomlin, J. H., Ind., '00
Tormey, J. A., Wash., '97
Torreyson, B. W., Ark., '02
Touton, Frank C., Mo., '06
Tower, Carl V., Vt., '03
Tower, Willis E., Ill., '02
Towle, Harry F., N. Y., '03
Towne, Geo. L., Nebr., '00
Townsend, Annie B., Md., '04
Townsend, H. S., Phil. Is., '99
Tracy, Franklin N., Ill., '96
Training Sch. for Tchrs., Brooklyn, N. Y., '05
Training Sch. for Teachers, New York, N. Y., '03
Trant, Amelia E., N. Y., 96
Traphagen, Gertrude M., N. Y., '05
Trask, Helen W., Minn., '02
Travell, Ira W., N. J., '97
Travis, Clyde R., N. Dak., '02
Tremain, Miss Frank E., Ill., '03
Tressler, A. W., Wis., '92
Treudley, F., Ohio, '01
Tripp, Walter B., Mass., '03
Trisler, J. L., Ohio, '01
Trudeau, Chas. F., La., '06
Trueblood, Stella, Mo., '04
Trybom, J. H., Mich., '00
Tualatin Acad. and Pacific Univ., Oregon, '99
Tucker, D. W., N. Dak., '02
Tucker, H. H., N. J., '03
Tucker, Louise E., N. Y., '05
Tucker, Mrs. Rose A., Mo., '04
Tufts, James H., Ill., '05
Tuger, Margaret E., N. Y., '01
Tupper, F. A., Mass., '03
Turner, C. W., Ill., '99
Turner, Eugene F., Tenn., '00
Turner, J. E., Idaho, '95
Turner, Lora A., N. Y., '95
Turner, Mary M., Del., '02
Turner, Robert L., Fla., '05
Turton, Charles M., Ill., '05
Tuthill, James F., N. Y., '03
Tuthill, Lewis H., N. Y., '03
Tuttle, A. E., Vt., '06
Tuttle, James T., Ohio, '05
Tutwiler, Julia S., Ala., '82
Twiggs, T. P., Mich., '01
Twining, Nathan C., Cal., '84
Twiss, Geo. R., Ohio, '94
Twitchell, W. I., Conn., '01
Twitmyer, Edwin, Wash., '02
Twitmyer, Geo. W., Del., '90
Tyler, H. W., Mass., '03
Tyler, Leon L., Ind., 03
Tynan, Joseph, N. Y., '05
Tynan, T. T., Wyo., '99
Tyrrell, Carroleane, Ill., '05
Uihlein, Margaretta, N. Y., '05
Ulmer, Levi J., Pa., '03
Underhill, Volney, Ill., '93
Underwood, F. M., Mo., '04
Underwood, H. K., Pa., '06
Underwood, S. A., Mo., '01
University of Arkansas, '01
University of California, '95
University of Chicago, Ill., '99
University of Cincinnati, Ohio, '06
University of Colorado, '02
University of Denver, Colo., '02
University of Georgia, '95
University of Idaho, '02
University of Illinois, '99
University of Indiana, '99
University of Iowa, '97
University of Kansas, '02
Univ. Lib'y, Nebr. Wes., '05
University of Maine, '03
University of Michigan, '98
University of Minnesota, '00
University of Mississippi, '03
University of Missouri, '95
University of Nebraska, '98
University of N Carolina '99
University of N. Dakota, '99
University of Ohio, '97
University of Oklahoma, '99
University of Pennsylvania, '98
University of Rochester, N. Y., '01
University of Southern California, '06
University of Tennessee, '01
University of Texas, '98
University of Utah, '95
University of Vermont, '01
University of Washington, '98
University of W. Virginia, '99
University of Wisconsin, '05
University of Wyoming, '97
University, Atlanta, Ga., '95
University, Brown, R. I., '01
University, Catholic, of America, D. C., '06
University, Colgate, N. Y., '02
University, Columbia, N. Y., '95
University, Cornell, N. Y., '96
University, Denison, Ohio, '00
University, Harvard, Mass., '95
University, Howard, D. C., '06
University, J. B. Stetson, Fla., '99
University, Johns Hopkins, Md., '99
University, Lawrence, Wis., '99
University, Lehigh, Pa., '99
University, Leland Stanford Jr., Cal., '97
University, Mercer, Ga., '99
University, Miami, Ohio, '95
University, Northwestern, Ill., '02
University, St. Louis, Mo., '01
University, Southern, Ala., '06
University, So. Ill. Nor., '99
University, Vanderbilt, Tenn., '01
University, Valparaiso, Ind., '97
University, Washington and Lee, Va., '01
University, Western, of Pa., '05
University, Yale, Conn., '01
Updegraff, Harlan, D. C., '99
Upton, Ralph R., Ill., '98
Usher, Susannah, Ill., '03
Ustrud, H. A., S. Dak., '06
Uxbridge Free Pub. Lib'y, Mass. '03
Vactor, Elmer R., N. J., '05
Vail, Henry H., N. Y., '97
Vaile, E. O., Ill., '95
Valparaiso Univ., Ind., '97
Van Aken, Mrs. G., N. Y., '84
Van Arsdale, May B., N. Y., '05
Vance, Mary E., Ill., '03
Vance, Wm. McK., Ohio, '00
Van Cleve, C. L., Ohio, '96
Van Cleve, Edw. M., Ohio, '97
Vanderbilt Univ., Tenn., '01
Vanderbilt, Edgar, N. Y., '05
Van Dusen, Elden M., N. Y., '05
Vandyke, J. A., Minn., '96
Van Liew, Chas. C., Cal., '94
Vann, Leonard L. Ala., '05
Van Rensselaer, Martha, N. Y., '94
Van Sickle, Jas. H., Md., '92
Van Wagoner, Mrs. Mary E., Pa., '05
Vassar College, N. Y., '98
Vaughan, Mary E., Ill., '00
Veatch, Nathan T., Kans., '95
Veenfliet, Mrs. M. L., Mich., '01
Venable, Francis P., N. C., '02
Venable, Mary A., Ohio, '02
Verlenden, Edith, N. Y., '05
Verplanck, Fred. A., Conn., '02
Vert, Edmund J., N. Mex., '95
Vickroy, Wilhelm R., Mo., '03
Viebahn, Chas. F., Wis., '84
Vincent, Geo. E., Ill., '02
Virtue, G. O., Minn, '98
Vlymen, Wm. T., N. Y., '05
Vogel, Frank, Mass., '03
Vogel, Geo. J., N. J., '06
Vogel, Wm. H., Ohio, '90
Voorhes, O. P., Ohio, '00
Votaw, Clyde W., Ill., '03
Vroom, Wm. F., N. Y., '05
Wabash College, Ind. '95
Waddle, Chas. W., Colo., '04
Wadhams, John A., Ill., '01
Wadleigh High School, New York, N. Y., '05
Wadsworth, Mrs. L. S., Mass., '03
Wagar, Bertha B., Ohio, '05
Wagner, Jonas E., Pa., '04
Waite, Geo. S., Mich., '00
Wakeman, J. W., N. J., '92
Walcott, G. D., Ill., '06
Waldo, D. B., Mich., '06
Waldo, Eveline A., La., '96
Walke, Matilda L., Ohio, '92
Walker, Amasa, N. Y., '03
Walker, B. M., Miss., '99
Walker, E. W., Wis., '97
Walker, Jos. H., Ga., '01
Walker, P. R., Ill., '90
Walker, Thos., Australia, '05
Walker, Thos. R., Ala., '03
Wallace, Agnes, N. Y., '05
Wallace, May B., Ill., '02
Waller, E. B., Tenn., '05
Walls, Callie K., Ohio. '01
Walrath, M. H., N. Y., '96
Waldschmidt, Anna, Ill., '03
Walsh, Agnes L., N. Y., '05
Walsh, J. H., N. Y., '95
Walsh, Louis S. Maine, '03
Walter, Mary, Ohio, '98
Walter, Sarah J., Va., '98
Walters, Wm. W., Mo., '01
Walton, Geo. A., Mass., '92
Ward Seminary, Tenn., '99
Ward, Annie L., N. Y., '05
Ward, F. D. Ohio, '01
Ward, George W., Md., '05
Ward, Mrs. Jennie P., N. J., '01
Ward, Mary A., N. Y., '05
Wardlaw, J. C., Ga., '02
Wardlaw, P., S. C., '00
Warfield, Wm. C., Ga., '00
Warner, A. B., Mo., '94
Warner, Chas. F., Mass., '99
Warner, Edwin G., N. Y., '06
Warner, Ellen E. K., N. Y., '05
Warr, J. W., Ill., '95
Warren, F. H., Ohio, '03
Warriner, E. C., Mich., '99
Warwick, Bessie B., N. J., '05
Washburn, Kirk N., Mass., '96
Washburn, Morgan, N. Y., '02
Washburn, W. C., Ohio, '06
Washington County Free Lib'y, Md., '02
Washington and Lee Univ., Va., '01
Washington State Lib'y, '06
Waterhouse, A. H., Nebr., '96
Waterman Richard, Mass., '96
Waters, Henry, N. Y., '05
Watkins, Sarah R., N. Y., '02
Watson, Lake G., N. Dak., '02
Watson, Wm. C., Ala., '05
Watt, W. E., Ill., '95
Waynesburg College, Pa., '02
Wayt, Wm. H., W. Va., '06
Weaver, E. W., N. Y., '97
Weaver, John S., Ohio, '99
Webb, A. C., Tenn., '01
Webb, Lindsey, Wis., '03
Webb, Louis K., Cal., '99
Webber, Arthur B., Mass., '03
Webber, Sarah S., Mass., '03
Weber, A. W., Wis., '97
Weber, H. C., Tenn., '05
Webster, E. E., Ill., '99
Webster, Elma J., Mo., '04
Webster, Geo. W., Ill., '99
Webster, W. F., Minn., '96
Weed, Marcus A., N. Y., '05
Weeks, C. W., Nebr., '95
Weir, Samuel, S. Dak., '01
Welch, Willis Y., Pa., '06
Weld, Frank A., Minn., '95

Weldon, Emma, Ill., '05
Wellesley College, Mass., '00
Wellington Pub. Lib'y, N. Z., '05
Wells College, N. Y., '06
Wells, John J., N. Y. '02
Welsh, J. P., Pa., '96
Wentworth, Wm. H., Mich., '05
Wernick, E. V., Wis., '95
Wertz, Adda P., Ill., '01
Wertz, Samuel, Ind., '04
West, Geo. A., N. J., '01
West, Henry S., Md., '05
West, Romeo A., Mo., '05
Westcott, Chas. H., Mass., '03
Westcott, O. S., Ill., '95
West. Branch, St. N. Sch., Hays, Kans., '05
Western College, Ohio, '99
West. Ill., St. Nor. School, '02
Western St. Nor. Sch., Mich., '05
Western Univ. of Pa., '05
Westervelt, Z. F., N. Y., '97
West Hoboken Pub. Sch. Lib'y, N. J., '05
Weston, B. Evelyn, Minn., '03
Weston, Florence M., Minn.. '05
West Virginia University, '99
Wettle, J. V., Mo., '01
Wettstein, Frances, Wis., '03
Wetzel, Wm. A., N. J., '03
Wetzell, W. A., Utah, '02
Whalen, R. W., Colo., '06
Wheaton College, Ill., '99
Wheeler, Clara, Mich., '02
Wheeler, E. E., Ill., '06
Wheeler, F. A., Mass., '03
Wheeler, George, Pa., '05
Wheeler, H. O., Vt., '05
Wheeler, Miriam E., N. Y., '03
Wheeler, Orville G., N. Y., '05
Wheeler, W. H., Ill., '05
Wheeler, Willard J., Ala., '00
Wheeling Pub. Lib'y, W. Va., '01
Wheelock, Chas. F., N. Y., '95
Wherry, J. E., Pa., '04
Whipple, H. A., Wis., '97
Whitcher, Geo. H., N. H., '02
Whitcomb, A. K., Mass., '92
Whitcomb, C. T. C., Mass., '03
White, Chas. G., Mich., '95
White, Chas. L., Maine, '01
White, Daniel A., Ill., '05
White, Daniel H. Cal., '99
White, John A., Wis., '04
White, Joseph M., Mo., '04
White, J. T., Md., '98
White, J. U., Mo., '87
White, Maurice P., Mass., '03
White, Mildred E., Ill., '04
White, Viola M., Maine, '02
White, W. S., Pa.. '97
White, W. T., Tenn., '89
Whiteford, J. A., Mo., '95
Whitman College, Wash., '01
Whitmore, Eva B., Ill., '04
Whitney, Allen S., Mich., '94
Whitney, E. R., N. Y., '03
Whitney, Evangeline E., N. Y., '03
Whitney, Frank P., Ohio, '05
Whitney, Frank W., Mass., '03
Whitney, M. A., Ill., '01
Whitney, Mary A., Kans., '05
Whitney, O. C., Wash., '98
Whittemore, Henry, Mass., '95
Whittemore, L. D., Kans., '03
Whitten, John H., Ill., '06
Whittier, Martha T., Nebr., '04
Whittinghill, R. T., Ky., '06
Wiard, Mrs. G. A., Cal., '02
Wicks, Arthur H., Ohio, '00
Wicks, John F., Ill., '97
Widner Esther A., Ohio, '80
Wieland, Otto E., Wis. '04
Wiggins, Alta, N. Y., '02
Wiggs, Mrs. W. H., Ga., '00
Wight, Frank B., Mass., '03
Wightman, H. J., Pa., '03
Wilber, Austin E., Okla., '01
Wilber, H. Z., Kans., '02
Wilbur, Rachel J., N. Y., '05
Wilburn, Emily P., Ga., '05
Wilcox, Albert H., N. Y., '00
Wilcox, Jessie B., Wash., '99
Wilcox, Walter H., Mo., '04
Wiley, Geo. M., N. Y., '06
Wiley, Wm. H., Ind., '96
Wilkins, A. H., Texas, '94
Wilkins, Emma F., Iowa, '03
Wilkinson, J. J., Ill., '96
Wilkinson, J. N., Kans., '84
Wilkinson, J. W. F., Pa., '05
Willard, C. C., Iowa, '06
Willard, J. Monroe, Pa., '02
Willard, S. P., Conn., '03
Willard, S. S., Pa., '06
Williams, Chas. A., Mass., '03
Williams Coll. Lib'y, Mass., '97
Williams, David, Fla., '97
Williams, Mrs. Delia, Ohio, '70
Williams, Evelina, N. Y., '03
Williams, H. B., Ohio, '00
Williams, Henry G., Ohio, '01
Williams, J. D., Ill., '96
Williams, J. Ulysses, Mont.. '06
Williams, L. W., Mass., '98
Williams, Mary L., N. Y., '05
Williams, Mrs. Mary E., N. Y., '03
Williams, Mary L., Mo., '03
Williams, Philo J., Mass., '86
Williams, Sherman, N. Y., '98
Williams, Wm. H., Wis., '97
Williamson, J. E., Idaho, '95
Willingham, Henry J., Ala., '03
Willis, H. B., N. J., '92
Willis, Mrs. H. B., N. J., '01
Willis, W. A., Iowa, '84
Willis, W. S., N. J., '01
Willison, A. C., Md., '05
Williston, A. L., N. Y., '03
Wilmington Inst. Lib'y, Del., '01
Wilmot, Julia A., Ohio, '03
Wilson, Eugene A., Ill., '99
Wilson, Harry G., Ill., '95
Wilson, H. B., Ind., '00
Wilson, H. L., Wis., '02
Wilson, Horace G., Oregon, '01
Wilson, Howard S., N. J., '05
Wilson, J. Alfred, N. J., '99
Wilson, James F., N. Y., '05
Wilson, Jennie R., Ohio, '06
Wilson, John D., Mo., '05
Wilson, John R., N. J., '06
Wilson, J. Ormond, D. C., '80
Wilson, J. W., Kans., '96
Wilson, Mrs. L. L. W., Pa., '99
Wilson, M. C., Ala., '00
Wilson, V. L., Iowa, '97
Wilson, Wm. A., Pa., '06
Wilson, Wm. E., Wash., '90
Winchester, Myra M., Canada, '04
Windate, Ida M., Ill., '96
Wingebach, Jos. F., N. Y., '02
Winne, James, N. Y., '92
Winner, H. E., Pa., '04
Winona Pub. Lib'y, Minn., '03
Winship, Albert E., Mass., '92
Winslow, Isaac O., R. I., '05
Winter, John E., Iowa, '06
Winters, T. H., Ohio, '97
Winthrop Nor. Coll., S. C., '01
Wirt, Wm. A., Ind., '00
Wise, Henry A., Md., '85
Withers, John W., Mo., '05
Witte, Clementine D., N. Y., '05
Witmer, Chas. K., Pa., '94
Witmer, Lightner, Pa., '98
Witter, Chas. E., Mo., '02
Witter, F. M., Iowa, '97
Wolfe, Elmer E., Ohio, '02
Wolfe, H. K., Nebr., '96
Wolfe, L. E., Texas, '90
Woman's Coll., Baltimore, Md. '03
Woman's Coll., Frederick, Md., '99
Wood, Aaron F., Mich., '06
Wood, Harlan N., Vt., '05
Wood, Jas. A., N. Mex., '97
Wood, John A., Ind., '98
Wood, O. M., P. R., '93
Wood, Stella L., Minn., '02
Wood, Thos. D., N. Y., '03
Wood, Wade H., Ga., '02
Woodbury, Chas. T., Mass., '03
Woodhull, J. F., N. Y., '99
Woodley, F. B., Miss., '06
Woodley, O. I., N. J., '96
Woodley, Wm. H., Mich., '06
Woodman, F. C., N. J., '03
Woodring, James D., Pa., '05
Woodruff, Clinton R., Pa., '06
Woods, Alice, England, '06
Woodside High School, New York, N. Y., '03
Woodward, C. M., Mo., '87
Woodward, Eliz. A., N. Y., '03
Woodward, Eliz. J., Mass., '99
Woodward, E. M., Mass., '03
Woodward, F. R., Mass., '03
Woodward, Mrs. H. A., N. Y., '05
Woodward, J. C., Ga., '97
Woody, H. G., Ind., '93
Woofter, Thos. J., Ga., '04
Woollard, Harriet J., N. Y., '05
Wooley, L. C., N. J., '03
Woolsey, C. H., Conn., '03
Woolsey, P. S., Cal., '01
Wooster, B. C., N. J., '05
Wooster, Lizzie E., Ill., '05
Work, Cree T., Texas, '04
Work, H. B., W. Va., '00
Work, Laura B., Utah, '03
Wright, Anna J., Ohio, '94
Wright, Charles E., Phil. Is., '05
Wright, Edmund W., Maine, '89
Wright, J. L., Tenn., '02
Wright, John A., Ohio, '01
Wright, John H., Mass., '03
Wright, L. I., Mich., '96
Wright, O. A., Ohio, '98
Wright, Paul H., Ohio, '04
Wright, Robt. H., Md., '06
Wright, R. R., Ga., '00
Wright, Wm. R., Mich., '92
Wyatt, H. D., Tenn., '05
Wylie, Mrs. M. J. B., Can., '91
Yale Univ. Lib'y, Conn., '01
Yamaguchi Pub. Lib'y, Japan, '05
Yates, Mrs. Josephine S., Mo., '05
Yates, Lydia A., N. C., '98
Yeaton, Moses, N. Y., '05
Yerkes, Helen K., Pa., '04
Yerkes, S. W., Wash., '02
Yocum, A. Duncan, Pa., '02
Yoder, A. H., Wash., '96
Yoder, W. A., Nebr., '06
Yore, Margaret L., Mo., '04
York, Lewis E., Ohio, '01
Youker, H. S., Wis., '02
Youmans, Fred. M., Ohio, '02
Young, C. M., S. Dak., '02
Young, C. S., Cal., '87
Young, Mrs. Ella F., Ill., '00
Young, Howard E., Md., '04
Young, James T., Pa., '05
Young, J. B., Iowa, '96
Young, Nathan B., Fla., '96
Young, Robert G., Mont., 89
Young, William F., Ill., '04
Zamora, Maria del P., Phil. Is., '04
Zane, Mary S., Pa., '07
Zeller, J. W., Ohio, '01
Zierden, Alicia M., Pa., '07
Zimmers, P. J., Wis., '05
Zion Ed. Inst. Lib'y, Ill., '04
Zirkle, H. W., Colo., '98
Zoller, Henry, Jr., Md., '03
Zueblin, Chas., Ill., '01
Zweifel, Louise C., Ill., '04

LIST OF EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS AND LIBRARIES ENROLLED AS ACTIVE MEMBERS

(Most of These Institutions Have Purchased Full Sets of Back Volumes.)

See list of institutions at the close of each state for date of enrollment and names of administrative officers.

Universities and Colleges

Adelbert Coll. of West. Res. Univ., Cleveland, O.
Adelphi College, Brooklyn, N. Y.
Alabama Polytechnic Institute, Auburn, Ala.
Armour Institute of Technology, Chicago, Ill.
Amherst College, Amherst, Mass.
Atlanta University, Atlanta, Ga.
Baker University, Baldwin, Kans.
Baltimore City College, Baltimore, Md.
Barnard College, New York, N. Y.
Bates College, Lewiston, Me.
Bellevue College, Bellevue, Neb.
Beloit College, Beloit, Wis.
Berea College, Berea, Ky.
Boston College, Boston, Mass.
Boston University, Boston, Mass.
Brigham Young College, Logan, Utah.
Brown University, Providence, R. I.
Bryn Mawr College, Bryn Mawr, Pa.
Butler College, Indianapolis, Ind.
Canisius College, Buffalo, N. Y.
Catholic University of America, Washington, D. C.
Carleton College, Northfield, Minn.
Clark University, Worcester, Mass.
Clemson Agricultural College, Clemson, S. C.
Coe College, Cedar Rapids, Ia.
Colgate University, Hamilton, N. Y.
College of the City of New York, New York, N. Y.
College of the Holy Cross, Worcester, Mass.
College of St. Francis Xavier, New York, N. Y.
Columbia University, New York, N. Y.
Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.
Creighton University, Omaha, Neb.
Dartmouth College, Hanover, N. H.
Davidson College, Davidson, N. C.
Denison University, Granville, O.
Dickinson College, Carlisle, Pa.
Doane College, Crete, Neb.
Emory College, Oxford, Ga.
Epworth University, Oklahoma, Okla.
Fordham University, New York, N. Y.
Geneva College, Beaver Falls, Pa.
Georgetown College, Washington, D. C.
George Peabody Coll. for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn.
George Washington University, Washington, D. C.
Harris Institute, Woonsocket, R. I.
Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.
Hendrix College, Conway, Ark.
Hillsdale College, Hillsdale, Mich.
Howard University, Washington, D. C.
Illinois College, Jacksonville, Ill.
Iowa College, Grinnell, Ia.
Iowa State College, Ames, Ia.
John B. Stetson University, Deland, Fla.
Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.
Kenyon College, Gambier, O.
Lake Erie Coll. and Sem., Painesville, O.
Lawrence University, Appleton, Wis.
Lehigh University, Bethlehem, Pa.
Leland Stanford Jr. University, Cal.
Lincoln College, Lincoln, Ill.
Lombard College, Galesburg, Ill.
Manhattan College, New York, N. Y.
Marist College, Atlanta, Ga.
Massachusetts Inst. of Technology, Boston, Mass.
Mercer University, Macon, Ga.
Miami University, Oxford, O.
Midland College, Atchison, Kans.
Montana State College, Bozeman, Mont.
Mt. Holyoke College, S. Hadley, Mass.
Northwestern College, Naperville, Ill.
Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill.
Oberlin College, Oberlin, O.
Otterbein University, Westerville, O.
Pacific University, Forest Grove, Ore.
Park College, Parkville, Mo.
Perkins Institution, South Boston, Mass.
Pomona College, Claremont, Cal.
Pratt Institute, Brooklyn, N. Y.
Prichett College, Glasgow, Mo.
Radcliffe College, Cambridge, Mass.
Ripon College, Ripon, Wis.
Robert College, Constantinople, Turkey.
Rockford College, Rockford, Ill.
St. John's University, Collegeville, Minn.
St. Louis University, St. Louis, Mo.
School of Education, University of Chicago, Ill.
School of Pedagogy, New York University, N. Y.
Scotia Seminary, Concord, N. C.
Shaw University, Raleigh, N. C.
Simmons College, Boston, Mass.
Smith College, Northhampton, Mass.
South Carolina College, Columbia, S. C.
Southern University, Greensboro, Ala.
State Agricultural College of Alabama.
State Agricultural College of Connecticut.
State Agricultural College of Kansas.
State Agricultural College of Michigan.
State Agricultural College of Minnesota.
State Agricultural College of Mississippi.
State Agricultural College of New Hampshire.
State Agricultural College of New Mexico.
State Agricultural College of North Carolina.
State Agricultural College of Rhode Island.
State Agricultural College of South Dakota.
State Agriculutral College of Utah.
State College of Pennsylvania.
State College of Washington.

State Univeristy of Arkansas.
State University of California.
State University of Colorado.
State University of Georgia.
State University of Idaho.
State University of Illinois.
State University of Indiana.
State University of Iowa.
State University of Kansas.
State University of Maine.
State University of Michigan.
State University of Minnesota.
State University of Mississippi.
State University of Missouri.
State University of Nebraska.
State University of North Carolina.
State University of North Dakota.
State University of Ohio.
State University of Pennsylvania.
State University of Tennessee.
State University of Texas.
State University of Utah.
State University of Vermont.
State University of Washington.
State University of West Virginia.
State University of Wisconsin.
State University of Wyoming.
Swarthmore College, Swarthmore, Pa.
Teacher's College, Dept. of Man. Train., New York.
University of Chicago, Ill.
University of Cincinnati, Ohio.
University of Denver, Col.
University of Oklahoma, Norman, Okla.
University of Rochester, N. Y.
University of Southern California, Los Angeles, Cal.
University of Syracuse, N. Y.
University of State of New York, Albany.
Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tenn.
Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, N. Y.
Wabash College, Crawfordsville, Ind.
Ward Seminary, Nashville, Tenn.
Washington and Lee University, Lexington, Va.
Waynesburg College, Waynesburg, Pa.
Wellesley College, Wellesley, Mass.
Wells College, Aurora, N. Y.
Wesleyan University, University Pl., Neb.
Western College for Women, Oxford, O.
Western University of Pennsylvania, Allegheny, Pa.
Wheaton College, Wheaton, Ill.
Whitman College, Walla Walla, Wash.
Williams College, Williamstown, Mass.
Woman's College, Baltimore, Md.
Woman's College, Frederick, Md.
Yale University, New Haven, Conn.

Normal Schools

City Normal School, Dayton, O.
City Normal School, New Orleans, La.
Cumberland Valley State Normal School, Shippensburg, Pa.
Georgia Normal and Industrial College, Milledgeville, Ga.
Normal and Industrial Institute, Hampton, Va.
Northern Indiana Normal School, Valparaiso, Ind.
Northwestern Normal School, Alva, Okla.
Provincial Normal School, Truro, Nova Scotia.
State Normal College, Troy, Ala.
State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Mich.
State Normal School, Ashland, Ore.
State Normal School, Bellingham, Wash.
State Normal School, Bloomsburg, Pa.
State Normal School, Brockport, N. Y.
State Normal School, California, Pa.
State Nor. Sch. (Third Dis.), Cape Girardeau, Mo.
State Normal School, Carbondale, Ill.
State Normal School, Cedar Falls, Iowa.
State Normal School, Charleston, Ill.
State Normal School, Cheney, Wash.
State Normal School, Chico, Cal.
State Normal School, Cortland, N. Y.
State Normal School, DeKalb, Ill.
State Normal School, Duluth, Minn.
State Normal School, Edinboro, Pa.
State Normal School, Ellensburg, Wash.
State Normal School, Emporia, Kans.
State Normal School, Fairmont, W. Va.
State Normal School, Farmville, Va.
State Normal School, Fitchburg, Mass.
State Normal School, Flagstaff, Ariz.
State Normal School, Geneseo, N. Y.
State Normal School, Greeley, Colo.
State Normal School (West Branch), Hays, Kans.
State Normal School, Indiana, Pa.
State Normal School, Jacksonville, Ala.
State Normal School, Kalamazoo, Mich.
State Normal School, Lock Haven, Pa.
State Normal School, Los Angeles, Cal.
State Normal School, Macomb, Ill.
State Normal School, Mankato, Minn.
State Normal School, Mansfield, Pa.
State Normal School, Marquette, Mich.
State Normal School, Mayville, N. D.
State Normal School, Millersville, Pa.
State Normal School, Monmouth, Ore.
State Normal School, Moorhead, Minn.
State Normal School, Mt. Pleasant, Mich.
State Normal School, Natchitoches, La.
State Normal School, New Platz, N. Y.
State Normal School, Oneonta, N. Y.
State Normal School, Oshkosh, Wis.
State Normal School, Oswego, N. Y.
State Normal School, Peru, Neb.
State Normal School, Platteville, Wis.
State Normal School, Plattsburg, N. Y.
State Normal School, Plymouth, N. H.
State Normal School, Providence, R. I.
State Normal School, River Falls, Wis.
State Normal School, St. Cloud, Minn.
State Normal School, Salem, Mass.
State Normal School, San Diego, Cal.
State Normal School, San José, Cal.
State Normal School, San Marcos, Tex.
State Normal School, Tempe, Ariz.
State Normal School, Terre Haute, Ind.
State Normal School, Trenton, N. J.
State Normal School, Valley City, N. D.
State Normal School, Warrensburg, Pa.
State Normal School, West Chester, Pa.
State Normal School, Westfield, Mass.
State Normal School, West Liberty, W. Va.
State Normal School, West Superior, Wis.
State Normal School, Whitewater, Wis.
State Normal School, Winona, Minn.

State Normal University, Normal, Ill.
State Normal and Indust. Coll., Greensboro, N. C.
Winthrop Normal and Indust. Coll., Rock Hill, S. C.

Libraries

A. K. Smiley Public Library, Redlands, Cal.
Altoona Mechanics Library, Pa.
Ansonia Library, Ansonia, Conn.
Arabut Ludlow Memorial Library, Monroe, Wis.
Bryson Library, Teachers College, New York.
Carnegie Free Library, Allegheny, Pa.
Carnegie Free Library, Braddock, Pa.
Carnegie Library, Homestead, Pa.
Carnegie Library, Fort Worth, Tex.
Carnegie Library, Nashville, Tenn.
Carnegie Library, Pittsburg, Pa.
Carnegie Library, San Antonio, Tex.
Carnegie Public Library, Bradford, Pa.
Carnegie Public Library, Iron Mountain, Mich.
City Library Association, Springfield, Mass.
Cleveland Public Library, Ohio.
Coburn Lib., Colorado Coll., Colorado Springs, Col.
Elkhart-Carnegie Library, Elkhart, Ind.
Emeline Fairbanks Mem. Library, Terre Haute, Ind.
Enoch Pratt Free Library, Baltimore, Md.
Ferguson Library, Stamford, Conn.
Fitz Public Library, Chelsea, Mass.
Forbes Library, Northampton, Mass.
Free Library, Philadelphia, Pa.
Free Library, Port Jervis, N. Y.
Free Library, Wilmington Institute, Del.
Free Public Library, Alameda, Cal.
Free Public Library, Atlantic City, N. J.
Free Public Library, Butte, Mont.
Free Public Library, Cardiff, Wales.
Free Public Library, East Orange, N. J.
Free Public Library, Evanston, Ill.
Free Public Library, Hoboken, N. J.
Free Public Library, Huntington, Ind.
Free Public Library, Jersey City, N. J.
Free Public Library, Louisville, Ky.
Free Public Library, Manchester, England.
Free Public Library, Montclair, N. J.
Free Public Library, Newark, N. J.
Free Public Library, New Bedford, Mass
Free Public Library, New Haven, Conn.
Free Public Library, Owatonna, Minn.
Free Public Library, Passaic, N. J.
Free Public Library, St. Joseph, Mo.
Free Public Library, Topeka, Kans.
Free Public Library, Trenton, N. J.
Free Public Library, Winona, Minn.
Free Public Library, Worcester, Mass.
Gail Borden Public Library, Elgin, Ill.
Gilbert M. Simmons Library, Kenosha, Wis.
Hearst Free Library, Lead, S. D.
Hill's Library of the Newton Theological Institution, Newton Center, Mass.
Hoyt Public Library, Saginaw, Mich.
Imperial Library of Japan, Tokyo.
John Crerar Library, Chicago, Ill.
J. V. Fletcher Library, Westford, Mass.
Kellogg Public Library, Green Bay, Wis.
Library Association, Portland, Ore.
Library of Congress of Chile, Santiago.
Library, Supt. Schools of Santa Clara Co., San José, Cal
Library, Teachers Consulting, Trenton, N. J.
Lincoln City Library, Lincoln, Neb.
Manchester Public Library, Manchester, N. H.
McClelland Public Library, Pueblo, Col.
Mechanics Mercantile Library, San Francisco, Cal.
Mercantile Library Asso., of New York, N. Y.
Mercantile Library Company, Philadelphia, Pa.
Minneapolis Anthenaeum, Minneapolis, Minn.
New Britain Institute, Conn.
Newberry Library, Chicago, Ill.
Oak Park Public Library, Ill.
Ohio County Teach. Lib. Asso., Rising Sun, Ind.
Peck Lib., Norwich Free Academy, Norwich, Conn.
Pedagogical Lib. of Supt. of Sch., Philadelphia, Pa.
People's Library, Newport, R. I.
Public Library, Adams, Mass.
Public Library, Boston, Mass.
Public Library, Brockton, Mass.
Public Library, Brookline, Mass.
Public Library, Brooklyn, N. Y.
Public Library, Buffalo, N. Y.
Public Library of the Calumet and Hecla Mining Co., Calumet, Mich.
Public Library, Cambridge, Mass.
Public Library, Chicago, Ill.
Public Library, Cincinnati, O.
Public Library, Cleveland, O.
Public Library, Davenport, Ia.
Public Library, Dayton, O.
Public Library, Denver, Col.
Public Library, Detroit, Mich.
Public Library, Dover, N. H.
Public Library, Duluth, Minn.
Public Library, East St. Louis, Ill.
Public Library, Erie, Pa.
Public Library, Fitchburg, Mass.
Public Library, Grand Rapids, Mich.
Public Library, Greenfield, Mass.
Public Library, Greensboro, N. C.
Public Library, Haverhill, Mass.
Public Library, Helena, Mont.
Public Library, Kalamazoo, Mich.
Public Library, Kansas City, Mo.
Public Library, Lawrence, Mass.
Public Library, Lexington, Ky.
Public Library, Los Angeles, Cal.
Public Library, Lynn, Mass.
Public Library, Madison, N. J.
Public Library, Malden, Mass.
Public Library, Manchester, Mass.
Public Library, Medford, Mass.
Public Library, Milwaukee, Wis.
Public Library, Missoula, Mont.
Public Library, Newburyport, Mass.
Public Library, New Rochelle, N. Y.
Public Library, New York, N. Y.
Public Library, North Adams, Mass.
Public Library, Omaha, Neb.
Public Library, Pasadena, Cal.
Public Library, Peoria, Ill.
Public Library, Phoenixville, Pa.
Public Library, Plainfield, N. J.
Public Library, Portland, Me.
Public Library, Providence, R. I.
Public Library, Queens Borough, N. Y.
Public Library, Rockford, Ill.

Public Library, Sacramento, Cal.
Public Library, St. Louis, Mo.
Public Library, St. Paul, Minn.
Public Library, Salem, Mass.
Public Library, San Francisco, Cal.
Public Library, Scranton, Pa.
Public Library, Seattle, Wash.
Public Library, Sedalia, Mo.
Public Library, Somerville, Mass.
Public Library, Taunton, Mass.
Public Library, Toledo, Ohio.
Public Library, Uxbridge, Mass.
Public Library, Washington, D. C.
Public Library, Wellington, N. Zealand.
Public Library, Wheeling, W. Va.
Public Library, Yamaguchi, Japan.
Public School Library, Baltimore, Md.
Public School Library, Camden, N. J.
Public School Library, Egg Harbor, City, N. J.
Public School Library, West Hoboken, N. J.
St. Louis Mercantile Library Ass'n, St. Louis, Mo.
Silas Bronson Library, Waterbury, Conn.
State Historical Society of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.
State Library of California.
State Library of Illinois.
State Library of Indiana.
State Library of Iowa.
State Library of Kansas.
State Library of Massachusetts.
State Library of Michigan.
State Library of New Hampshire.
State Library of New Jersey.
State Library of Ohio.
State Library of Pennsylvania.
State Library of Washington.
Stratford Library Association, Stratford, Conn.
Syracuse Public Library, N. Y.
Washington County Free Lib., Hagerstown, Md.

Departments of Education

Department of Common Schools of Ohio.
Department of Education of New York.
Department of Education of Nova Scotia.
Department of Education of Ontario, Canada.
Department of Education of Porto Rico.
Department of Education of Texas.
Department Free Schools, West Virginia.
Department of Public Instruction of Illinois.
Department of Public Instruction of Michigan.
Department of Public Instruction of Minnesota.
Department of Public Instruction of Nebraska.
Department of Public Instruction of North Dakota.
Department of Public Instruction of Virginia.

Boards of Education

Board of Education, Abilene, Kans.
Board of Education, Beloit, Wis.
Board of Education of the City of New York.
Board of Education, Dodge City, Kans.
Board of Education, Fulton Co., Ga.
Board of Education, Janesville, Wis.
Board of Education, La Crosse, Wis.
Board of Education, Milwaukee, Wis.
Board of Education, Nashville, Tenn.
Board of Education, New Haven, Conn.
Board of Education, Northfield, Minn.
Board of Education, Oshkosh, Wis.
Board of Education, Ottawa, Kans.
Board of Education, Plainfield, N. J.
Board of Education, Sedgwick, Kans.
Board of Education, State of Montana.
Board of Regents, State Normal Schools, Wis.
General Education Board, New York, N. Y.

Public Schools

Bayard Taylor School, Philadelphia, Pa.
Birmingham Sub-District School, Pittsburg, Pa.
Broadway School, Camden, N. J.
Center School, Bloomfield, N. J.
Colfax Sub-District School, Pittsburg, Pa.
E. A. Stevens Girls Gram. School, Camden, N. J.
Graded School, Matawan, N. J.
Greeley School, Peoria, Ill.
Hancock School Faculty, Pittsburg, Pa.
High School, Anderson, Ind.
High School, Bayonne, N. J.
High School, East Orange, N. J.
High School, Red Bank, N. J.
Holmes School, Oakland Sub-District, Pittsburg, Pa.
Homewood Sub-District School, Pittsburg, Pa.
John F. Hartranft School, Philadelphia, Pa.
John Lartain School, Philadelphia, Pa.
Josephy Leidy Combined School, Philadelphia, Pa.
Joseph Singerly School, Philadelphia, Pa.
Kaign School, Camden, N. J.
Lincoln Sub-District School, Pittsburg, Pa.
Luckey Sub-District School, Pittsburg, Pa.
Manual Tr. and High School, Camden, N. J.
Minnie Murdock Kendrick School, West Philadelphia, Pa.
Mt. Albion Schools, Pittsburg, Pa.
M. W. Baldwin School, Philadelphia, Pa.
Neptune Township High School, Ocean Grove, N. J.
Newton Girls School, Philadelphia, Pa.
North School, Pittsburg, Pa.
Paschallville School, Philadelphia, Pa.
Polytechnic Preparatory School, Brooklyn, N. Y.
Primary Dept. School No. 2, Jersey City, N. J.
Public School, High Bridge, N. J.
Public School, South Orange, N. J.
Public Schools, City of New York:

Borough of Bronx	29
Borough of Brooklyn	86
Borough of Manhattan	130
Borough of Queens	26
Borough of Richmond	17
Total	288

Rutledge School, Philadelphia, Pa.
School No. 2, Jersey City, N. J.
St. Clair Sub-District School, Pittsburg, Pa.
Webster School, Peoria, Ill.

Other Institutions

Alabama Girls Industrial School, Montevallo, Ala.
Alumni Assoc. New York Training School for Teachers, Brooklyn, N. Y.
Alumni Asso. State Nor. School, Milwaukee, Wis.
Andover Theological Seminary, Andover, Mass.
Assumption Parish Teachers' Asso., Napoleonville, La.
Athenaeum Society, Platteville Normal School, Wis.
Berks County Teachers' Reading Union, Harrisburg, Pa.
Bronx Borough Teachers' Association, New York City.
Carroll School Patron's Association, St. Louis, Mo.

City Supt. and Supervis'g Principals' Assoc., of Wis.
Class Teachers' Organization of Brooklyn, N. Y.
Columbia College of Expression, Chicago, Ill.
County Teachers' Association, Milwaukee, Wis.
Crosby Adams School, Chicago, Ill.
"Educational Exchange," Birmingham, Ala.
Ethical Culture School, New York City.
Froebel Normal Institute, New York City.
Hartford Theological Seminary, Hartford, Conn.
Jacob Tome Institute, Port Deposit, Md.
Keystone Lit. Soc., Kutztown Normal School, Pa.
Loyola School, New York City.
Male Teachers' Organization, New York City.
Milwaukee Principals' Association.
Milwaukee Teacher's Association.
New York Trade School, New York, N. Y.
Pennsylvania State Museum, Harrisburg, Pa.
Philadelphian Society, Platteville Nor. School, Wis.
Philomathean Lit. Soc., Kutztown Nor. School, Pa.
Principals' Round Table of Wilmington, Del.
Public School Teachers, Janesville, Wis.
Riley County Educational Association, Kans.
Rochester Athenaeum and Mechanics Inst., Rochester, N. Y.
Stevens Inst. of Technology, Hoboken, N. J.
St. Stanislaus Seminary, St. Louis University, St. Louis, Mo.
State Educational Association of North Dakota.
State Teachers' Association of Illinois.
State Teachers' Association of Wisconsin.
Teachers' Association, Cowley County, Kansas.
Teachers' Institute, Philadelphia, Pa.
"The Midland Schools," Des Moines, Ia.
Zion Educational Institutions, Library, Zion, Ill.

Recapitulation

Universities and Colleges		161
Normal Schools		78
Libraries		164
State Departments of Education		13
Boards of Education		18
Public Schools:		
New York City	288	
Other Cities	36	324
Other Institutions		40
Total		798

ACTIVE MEMBERSHIP

IN THE

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

CLASSIFIED BY STATES

FOR THE YEAR 1906 (NO MEETING)

	Life Directors	Life Members	Former Active	New Active	Total Active
Totals	29	120	4,377	603	5,168
North Atlantic Division	10	22	1,882	183	2,097
South Atlantic Division	3	7	250	34	293
South Central Division	1	3	218	85	307
North Central Division	12	74	1,649	219	1,974
Western Division	3	13	324	66	406
Dependencies	..	..	21	5	26
Foreign, including Corresponding Members	..	..	33	11	65
North Atlantic Division—					
Maine	..	1	27	3	31
New Hampshire	..	1	26	2	29
Vermont	..	..	17	5	22
Massachusetts	1	3	317	19	340
Rhode Island	1	..	32	..	33
Connecticut	..	1	51	6	58
New York	4	8	993	43	1,048
New Jersey	1	4	189	17	211
Pennsylvania	3	4	230	88	325
South Atlantic Division—					
Delaware	..	..	9	..	9
Maryland	..	1	51	6	58
District of Columbia	2	4	34	7	47
Virginia	..	..	32	2	34
West Virginia	1	..	16	7	23
North Carolina	..	1	22	3	26
South Carolina	..	1	21	..	22
Georgia	..	..	46	6	52
Florida	..	..	19	3	22
South Central Division—					
Kentucky	..	1	41	22	64
Tennessee	1	..	30	4	35
Alabama	..	..	47	13	60
Mississippi	..	..	12	3	15
Louisiana	..	..	22	21	43
Texas	..	..	40	11	51
Arkansas	..	..	11	4	15
Oklahoma	..	..	9	6	15
Indian Territory	..	2	6	1	9
North Central Division—					
Ohio	1	14	280	50	345
Indiana	..	1	102	25	128
Illinois	5	3	426	39	473
Michigan	2	..	133	16	151
Wisconsin	..	32	119	17	168
Iowa	..	2	79	20	101
Minnesota	1	1	119	9	130
Missouri	2	1	226	8	237
North Dakota	..	..	17	9	46
South Dakota	..	..	38	1	39
Nebraska	..	1	58	11	70
Kansas	1	19	52	14	86
Western Division—					
Montana	..	..	18	2	20
Wyoming	..	..	11	5	16
Colorado	1	2	68	12	83
New Mexico	..	..	12	2	14
Arizona	..	..	11	4	15
Utah	..	..	19	6	25
Nevada	..	..	4	..	4
Idaho	..	..	11	3	14
Washington	..	..	46	12	58
Oregon	1	..	12	1	14
California	1	11	112	19	143
Miscellaneous—					
Dependencies	..	..	21	5	26
Foreign, including Corresponding Members	..	1	33	11	45

RECORD OF ACTIVE MEMBERSHIP

IN THE

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

CLASSIFIED BY STATES

FOR EACH YEAR SINCE 1895

State or Territory	Denver	Buffalo	Milwaukee	Washington	Los Angeles	Charleston	Detroit	Minneapolis	Boston	St. Louis	Asbury Park	(No meeting)
	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899	1900	1901	1902	1903	1904	1905	1906
Totals	1,065	1,579	1,858	1,963	2,214	2,332	2,838	3,215	4,288	4,541	5,261	5,168
No. Atlantic Div.	284	486	486	521	592	616	700	772	1,571	1,512	2,179	2,097
So. Atlantic Div.	62	83	81	139	156	202	215	222	263	269	296	293
So. Central Div.	68	90	91	143	144	141	163	173	208	245	260	307
No. Central Div.	534	793	1,055	997	1,011	1,067	1,408	1,649	1,819	2,079	2,061	1,974
Western Div.	114	122	139	147	290	277	292	331	350	356	377	406
Dependencies	....	1	1	1	7	13	16	17	18	19	25	26
Foreign	3	4	5	15	14	16	44	51	59	61	63	65
No. Atlantic Div.												
Maine	4	5	4	7	9	10	12	12	45	39	30	31
New Hampshire	5	2	...	...	2	3	5	10	31	29	30	29
Vermont	1	3	4	3	3	8	12	13	29	27	22	22
Massachusetts	64	84	89	98	113	114	133	155	398	372	350	340
Rhode Island	12	17	15	15	17	18	20	21	38	38	38	33
Connecticut	8	13	16	17	19	18	24	33	69	63	64	58
New York	104	232	217	223	254	257	292	312	686	670	1,155	1,048
New Jersey	39	60	70	73	75	73	78	81	95	94	226	211
Pennsylvania	47	70	71	85	100	115	124	135	180	180	264	325
So. Atlantic Div.												
Delaware	3	5	4	3	3	3	6	6	9	8	10	9
Maryland	9	10	10	20	24	28	29	34	43	45	54	58
Dist. of Col.	17	18	19	50	50	43	48	46	49	49	49	47
Virginia	4	5	6	8	10	17	16	19	28	30	33	34
W. Virginia	8	14	12	13	14	14	21	19	25	21	22	23
North Carolina	4	6	4	10	15	24	22	21	24	25	26	26
South Carolina	2	5	4	7	12	28	23	21	22	21	26	22
Georgia	11	16	18	24	24	33	33	35	44	48	51	52
Florida	4	4	4	4	4	12	17	21	19	22	25	22
So. Central Div.												
Kentucky	17	23	25	31	33	27	32	32	36	46	42	64
Tennessee	8	13	9	13	15	23	23	27	33	28	35	35
Alabama	14	17	15	17	16	22	25	32	39	52	53	60
Mississippi	6	6	6	9	11	11	11	13	14	15	20	15
Louisiana	7	7	9	11	13	12	14	17	23	26	26	43
Texas	10	13	14	19	18	18	19	18	30	39	46	51
Arkansas	3	10	11	37	30	21	26	21	15	14	13	15
Oklahoma	3	1	2	5	8	7	10	9	13	17	16	15
Indian Territory	....	....	....	1	....	....	3	4	5	8	9	9
No Central Div.												
Ohio	76	134	137	150	164	179	254	260	303	296	312	345
Indiana	34	62	73	73	75	86	113	110	122	128	121	128
Illinois	101	192	254	247	261	277	342	410	514	520	516	473
Michigan	35	51	62	65	63	81	165	168	161	159	162	151
Wisconsin	68	81	165	136	124	123	126	138	132	142	171	168
Iowa	39	55	78	64	61	53	79	108	103	104	99	101
Minnesota	31	51	86	78	79	70	88	168	160	149	143	130
Missouri	42	54	67	64	67	70	87	93	110	373	312	237
North Dakota	5	8	13	13	12	14	17	32	41	40	38	46
South Dakota	8	7	10	9	14	17	32	49	47	43	42	39
Nebraska	31	36	49	43	36	39	43	50	56	56	73	70
Kansas	64	62	60	55	55	58	62	63	70	69	72	86
Western Div.												
Montana	4	8	15	14	17	16	22	29	31	30	24	20
Wyoming	5	4	6	5	5	6	7	8	10	9	14	16
Colorado	51	51	48	45	53	47	55	59	66	70	73	83
New Mexico	5	5	7	6	15	14	15	13	14	15	14	14
Arizona	2	3	2	5	14	13	15	17	14	13	13	15
Utah	10	8	10	7	10	7	10	18	21	22	23	25
Nevada	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	4
Idaho	3	3	3	3	5	4	9	8	9	12	13	14
Washington	6	8	7	9	17	19	27	42	51	53	59	58
Oregon	3	4	7	7	9	11	11	10	11	9	10	14
California	23	26	32	44	142	137	118	124	120	121	131	143
Dependencies	....	1	1	1	7	13	16	17	18	19	25	26
Foreign	3	4	5	15	14	16	44	51	59	61	63	65

RECORD OF MEMBERSHIP BY STATES

IN THE

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

FOR EACH YEAR FROM 1857–1905, INCLUSIVE

Excepting for 1861, 1862, 1867, 1878, 1893, and 1906, when no regular meetings were held, and the years 1859, 1860, 1864, 1868, 1869, and 1871, for which no record of membership was preserved. Heavier numbers show membership from the state in which the meeting of the year was held.

STATE OR TERRITORY	Philadelphia	Cincinnati	Chicago	Harrisburg	Indianapolis	Cleveland	Boston	Elmira	Detroit	Minneapolis	Baltimore	Louisville	Philadelphia	Chautauqua	Atlanta	Saratoga	Saratoga	Madison	Saratoga	Topeka	Chicago
	1857	1858	1863	1865	1866	1870	1872	1873	1874	1875	1876	1877	1879	1880	1881	1882	1883	1884	1885	1886	1887
Totals.....	43	75	187	173	126	170	292	380	345	355	214	150	256	354	247	290	253	1,729	625	1,197	9,115
N. Atl. Div.	26	10	27	136	22	53	155	279	125	22	54	10	156	94	25	150	166	792	406	386	773
S. Atl. Div.	8	7	5	8	6	6	25	31	17	5	38	12	19	30	125	41	13	77	16	31	44
S.Cen. Div.	....	6	6	3	5	8	6	5	10	10	11	73	7	10	34	17	10	111	19	47	370
N.Cen. Div.	9	52	149	24	92	103	104	65	188	315	105	65	70	212	62	77	59	1,712	176	708	7,671
West'n Div.	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	....	1	3	6	....	4	8	1	2	2	26	7	25	102
Colonies...	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Foreign ...	....	....	....	2	1	....	1	....	4	....	....	....	....	....	....	3	3	11	1	.....	155
N. Atl. Div.																					
Maine...	....	....	1	....	....	2	21	1	6	2	3	....	....	1	....	1	....	21	2	5	25
N. H....	....	....	1	....	....	2	4	3	2	....	1	....	....	....	1	3	1	64	6	10	23
Vt.....	....	....	1	....	1	3	10	3	....	3	....	....	1	1	....	3	2	43	8	3	41
Mass....	2	3	16	17	2	14	55	30	28	12	8	2	8	13	7	19	42	310	145	85	277
R. I....	....	....	1	6	1	2	5	4	3	....	....	....	1	1	1	5	3	50	13	13	29
Conn....	....	....	1	6	1	4	15	26	7	....	1	1	6	3	2	8	9	40	18	23	36
N. Y....	3	3	6	20	11	16	27	160	55	4	19	4	12	38	9	76	87	143	159	91	211
N. J....	....	1	....	2	1	2	6	20	10	....	5	1	13	2	....	19	13	40	27	35	23
Pa.....	21	3	....	85	5	8	12	32	14	1	17	2	115	35	5	16	9	81	28	121	108
S. Atl. Div.																					
Del.....	4	....	....	1	....	....	....	1	....	....	2	....	4	....	....	....	....	1	.....	4	.....
Md.....	1	2	4	6	4	....	8	8	4	3	23	5	3	1	1	....	1	5	.....	10	8
D. C....	1	5	1	1	1	4	8	6	5	....	6	4	5	15	3	....	6	30	1	7	12
Va.....	....	....	....	....	....	....	2	4	7	....	1	1	1	....	2	3	....	6	4	3	2
W. Va...	....	....	....	....	1	2	2	1	....	1	3	1	3	1	....	1	4	15	3	3	8
N. C....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	3	....	....	1	1	....	1	....	1	1	3	2	.....	2
S. C....	1	....	....	....	....	....	1	3	1	1	....	....	1	2	17	5	1	5	4	1	2
Ga.....	1	....	....	....	....	....	3	3	....	....	2	....	....	10	100	31	....	11	1	2	10
Fla.....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	2	....	....	....	....	2	....	2	....	....	1	1	1	.....
S.Cen. Div.																					
Ky.....	....	5	6	2	1	1	2	1	3	2	5	55	3	4	7	5	2	33	2	8	151
Tenn....	....	....	....	....	3	3	1	....	3	1	1	8	2	2	7	2	4	12	6	5	62
Ala.....	....	1	....	....	....	1	2	....	1	2	....	....	....	1	14	9	1	9	1	1	16
Miss....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	1	....	1	2	....	....	1	....	2	7	1	2	7
La.....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	....	1	....	....	1	1	2	....	....	3	7	8	11
Texas...	....	....	....	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	4	1	2	1	1	1	22	1	15	55
Ark.....	....	....	....	....	1	3	1	2	2	4	3	3	....	....	2	....	....	22	.....	8	67
Okla....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Ind. T...	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	....	....	....	....	....	3	1	.....	1
N.Cen. Div.																					
Ohio....	4	26	17	11	15	50	29	18	52	15	27	14	34	155	32	37	21	121	43	67	581
Ind.....	1	13	12	2	41	10	3	7	14	1	10	32	12	21	12	12	9	54	15	46	418
Ill.....	1	6	60	6	14	16	28	14	27	42	18	6	6	7	3	7	8	354	33	164	1,750
Mich....	....	....	8	2	6	5	10	1	59	14	11	1	2	7	....	1	....	77	12	20	273
Wis.....	....	3	35	....	4	7	5	6	9	72	9	1	2	....	1	3	1	546	18	18	486
Iowa....	1	2	9	1	5	7	6	6	7	52	10	4	7	4	2	3	4	304	18	87	1,146
Minn....	....	....	1	....	1	1	4	1	4	88	4	1	2	5	5	2	4	132	9	11	649
Mo.....	2	2	4	2	3	5	15	11	11	20	13	5	3	10	3	6	7	46	11	73	625
N. D....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	}	....	....	1	....	....	....	....	23	1	5	149
S. D....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	} 2	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Neb.....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	1	4	8	3	1	....	2	2	3	3	39	5	27	634
Kan	....	....	3	....	3	2	3	....	1	1	....	....	1	1	2	3	2	16	11	190	960
West'n Div.																					
Mont....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	1	....	....	....	3	1	1	9
Wyo....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	2	2	8
Colo....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	3	1	....	....	2	....	....	1	12	2	11	40
N. M....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	2
Ariz.....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1
Utah....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	....	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1
Nev.....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	2	....	....	....	1	.....	1	6
Idaho...	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	.....	3
Wash....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	.....
Ore.....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	2	....	1	.....	1	3
Cal.....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	....	....	....	3	1	1	11
Depend's	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	....	....	....	3	....	2	2	1	....	1	5	.....	4	18
Alaska...	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Hawaii..	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
P. Rico..	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Phil. I'd	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Foreign	....	....	....	2	1	....	1	....	4	....	....	....	....	....	....	3	3	11	1	.....	155

RECORD OF MEMBERSHIP BY STATES

IN THE

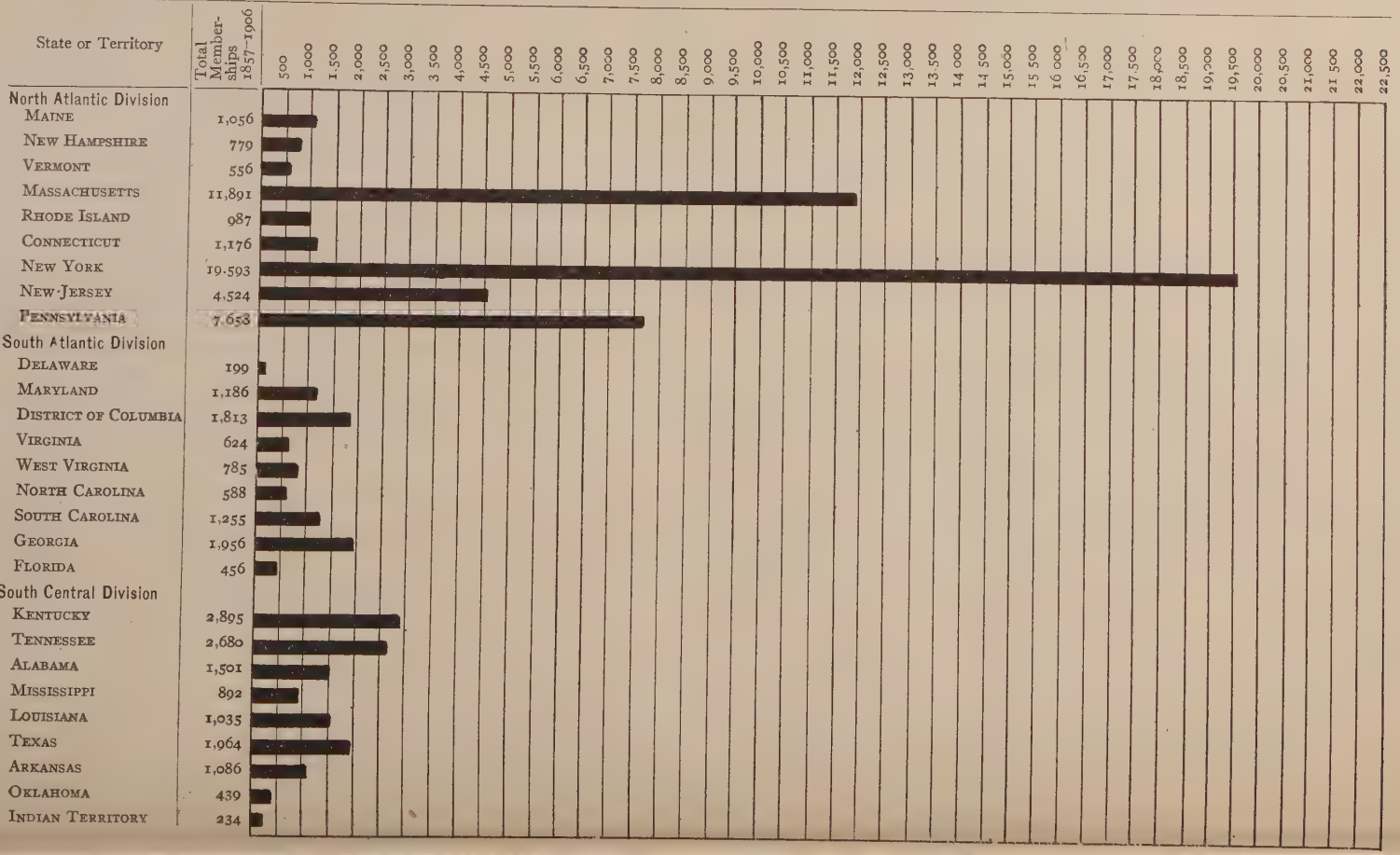
NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

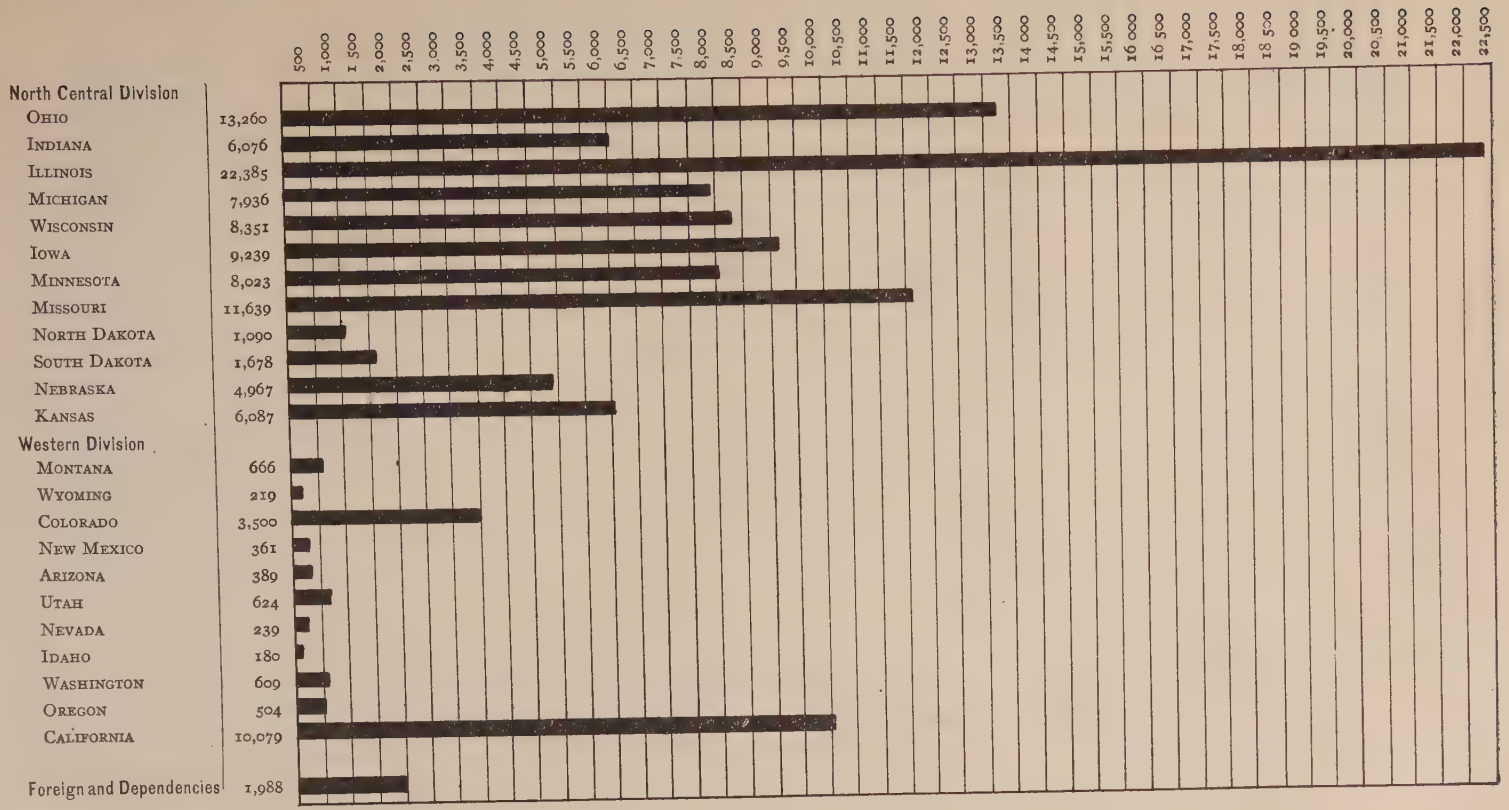
FOR EACH YEAR FROM 1857–1905, INCLUSIVE

Excepting for 1861, 1862, 1867, 1878, 1893, and 1906, when no regular meetings were held, and the years 1859, 1860, 1864, 1868, 1869, and 1871, for which no record of membership was preserved. Heavier numbers show membership from the state in which the meeting of the year was held.

State or Territory	San Francisco	Nashville	St. Paul	Toronto	Saratoga	Asbury Park	Denver	Buffalo	Milwaukee	Washington	Los Angeles	Charleston	Detroit	Minneapolis	Boston	St. Louis	Asbury Park and Ocean Grove
	1888	1889	1890	1891	1892	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899	1900	1901	1902	1903	1904	1905
Totals	7,216	1,984	5,474	4,778	3,360	5,015	11,297	9,072	7,107	10,532	13,656	4,640	10,182	10,355	34,983	8,108	23,042
N. Atl. Div.	803	101	795	426	1,187	1,711	1,462	2,940	942	1,492	1,877	783	1,309	1,556	14,163	1,640	11,156
S. Atl. Div.	113	128	95	151	309	271	289	237	172	1,146	361	1,177	473	363	1,845	388	780
S. Cen. Div.	216	1,074	261	417	253	460	899	419	304	1,587	818	414	768	301	1,954	507	1,306
N. Cen. Div.	1,074	642	4,156	2,933	1,456	3,357	7,211	5,083	5,314	5,882	5,074	1,903	6,891	7,532	15,618	4,940	9,647
West'n Div.	4,974	38	122	196	104	73	1,403	377	362	411	5,475	344	686	481	937	545	654
Colonies										1	12	13	16	17	25	21	32
Foreign	36	1	45	655	51	43	33	16	13	13	39	6	39	105	441	67	67
N. Atl. Div.																	
Maine	11		32	30	10	5	24	7	7	10	16	12	13	32	677	47	32
N. H.	11		32	9	5	7	27	8	6	6	14	5	7	26	432	30	33
Vt.	4		40	4	20	4	13	14	15	11	11	8	21	25	189	29	25
Mass.	206	28	290	114	212	52	191	197	159	159	294	139	196	281	**7,459**	405	414
R. I.	30	4	31	42	23	12	55	35	23	36	50	18	23	28	335	38	56
Conn.	48	4	31	18	63	13	26	43	24	31	46	24	41	68	315	71	103
N. Y.	210	29	228	117	**611**	326	521	**2,132**	411	509	756	327	512	595	2,323	700	8,132
N. J.	41	13	12	16	65	**969**	168	179	110	172	154	93	173	116	408	111	**1,504**
Penn.	242	23	99	76	178	323	437	325	187	558	536	157	323	385	2,025	209	857
S. Atl. Div.																	
Del.	3	1	2	5	6	8	17	11	8	9	9	4	7	13	47	8	24
Md.	17	3	7	13	49	45	53	23	31	80	50	81	76	62	313	57	129
D. C.	32	13	21	10	35	24	47	29	57	**382**	99	57	137	97	508	51	93
Va.	18	12	2	8	2	24	36	21	10	63	22	38	22	27	186	37	60
W. Va.	6	6	27	49	20	37	49	52	16	129	29	18	56	28	137	39	38
N. C.	8	12	2	13	17	15	5	14	4	76	27	72	29	33	131	35	79
S. C.	13	22	4	18	14	52	1	31	7	92	22	**691**	30	25	98	24	66
Ga.	16	43	23	31	163	64	62	43	30	261	87	145	77	43	363	90	241
Fla.		16	7	4	3	2	19	13	9	54	16	71	39	35	62	47	50
S. Cen. Div.																	
Ky.	22	114	39	57	42	128	176	77	98	408	136	68	215	73	521	74	349
Tenn.	83	**607**	97	124	57	124	66	57	25	248	113	96	108	37	402	45	269
Ala.	45	123	35	79	51	41	41	59	25	229	69	74	35	52	231	74	179
Miss.	10	87	44	42	36	20	49	25	19	100	65	27	20	15	145	**93**	70
La.	7	19	13	25	21	35	108	25	42	146	60	26	46	41	210	41	135
Texas	29	89	20	53	9	82	294	99	41	257	221	55	148	26	229	76	131
Ark.	12	29	12	34	33	25	84	63	41	132	96	46	116	28	114	37	66
Okla.						4	58	14	11	60	47	21	71	17	55	39	42
Ind. T.	8	6	1	3	4	1	23		2	7	11	1	9	12	47	28	65
N. Cen. Div.																	
Ohio	225	60	361	355	178	990	592	565	357	1,313	580	286	753	486	2,653	393	1,744
Ind.	71	89	206	149	65	258	321	250	205	591	354	173	357	261	1,086	194	701
Ill.	222	204	625	666	214	871	1,495	1,174	785	1,340	1,216	557	1,142	1,247	4,013	939	3,105
Mich.	40	29	137	259	285	155	204	589	327	379	196	110	**2,193**	372	1,383	190	579
Wis.	57	28	443	222	72	143	188	413	**1,870**	361	287	187	293	677	1,078	195	611
Iowa	96	67	572	278	110	164	1,086	578	543	383	593	82	444	801	1,176	189	392
Minn.	58	16	**933**	118	54	86	193	303	333	164	267	121	382	**2,498**	1,111	199	263
Mo.	133	68	249	320	189	435	1,113	406	285	795	673	166	415	187	1,471	2,209	1,558
N. D.	{ 8	7	{ 99	32	16	8	28	34	53	26	38	16	98	308	161	48	47
S. D.			109	31	20	9	78	83	118	45	86	30	141	390	271	70	79
Neb.	40	10	147	220	126	127	742	363	251	103	331	86	325	196	707	103	357
Kan.	124	64	275	283	127	111	1,171	325	187	382	453	89	348	109	508	121	211
West'n Div.																	
Mont.	4	5	37	24	9	3	15	43	78	20	70	24	88	60	82	42	46
Wyo.	8		5	13	4	2	48	7	10	8	13	7	15	10	26	12	18
Colo.	109	8	56	114	59	58	**1,136**	177	145	196	465	65	118	74	305	130	213
N. Mex.	26	2	1	7	5		26	16	21	27	90	18	31	15	26	27	20
Ariz.	45	1	1		2	2	11	6	6	21	158	19	34	22	24	20	15
Utah	127			10	8	4	89	37	22	25	106	8	32	25	55	31	35
Nev.	134		1				2	5	3	2	49	3	6	7	7	2	8
Idaho	12				1	1	3	10	6	3	32	11	19	13	27	26	15
Wash.	27	1	6	18	1	2	6	16	8	12	56	20	81	71	108	95	74
Ore.	204	8	7	5	5		14	9	7	10	79	13	45	27	26	14	14
Cal.	4,278	13	8	5	10	1	53	51	56	87	4,357	156	217	157	251	146	196
Denend's										1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Alaska											9	5	4	5	12	5	6
Hawaii											2	4	5	5	8	8	14
P. Rico												3	6	6	4	7	11
Phil. I'd												6	39	105	441	67	67
Foreign	36	1	45	655	51	43	33	16	13	13	39						

CHART SHOWING TOTAL AND RELATIVE NUMBER OF RECORDED MEMBERSHIPS IN EACH STATE IN THE NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION (1857–70) AND THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION (1871–1906), BASED UPON THE FOREGOING TABLES

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North Central Division
Ohio 13,260
Indiana 6,076
Illinois 22,385
Michigan 7,936
Wisconsin 8,351
Iowa 9,239
Minnesota 8,023
Missouri 11,639
North Dakota 1,090
South Dakota 1,678
Nebraska 4,967
Kansas 6,087
Western Division
Montana 666
Wyoming 219
Colorado 3,500
New Mexico 361
Arizona 389
Utah 624
Nevada 239
Idaho 180
Washington 609
Oregon 504
California 10,079
Foreign and Dependencies 1,988

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INDEX

[Names of department presidents and authors of formal papers are set in SMALL CAPS.]

Accession-book for libraries, 248–49
Act of incorporation, 4–5; 21–24
Act to incorporate the National Education Association of the United States, 21–24
Active members, List of, for 1906, 743–901
Active membership, Table of, for 1906, 930
Active membership, Table of, for 1895 to 1906, 931
ADDICOTT, JAMES EDWIN.—Art as related to manual training, 207–14
Administration, List of articles on, 1860 to 1906, 723–26
Agricultural education, List of articles on, 1876 to 1906, 661
Agricultural instruction in the kingdom of Hungary (BÉLA DE TORMAY) 445–51
Alabama Educational Association, Resolution of, in favor of a Southern Teachers' League, 500
ALDERMAN, EDWIN A.—*In memoriam* Charles Duncan McIver, 311–18
Aley, Robert J., Discussion on Teaching arithmetic, 99–102
Alphabetizing, 256–57
America, What France owes to, in the matter of education (J. J. GABRIEL COMPAYRÉ) 417–20
American Association for the Advancement of Education (WILL S. MONROE) 471–74
American Association for the Advancement of Science, 1838– (L. O. HOWARD) 475–78
—— ——Constitution of the Council, 478
American education, Fifty years of (E. E. BROWN) 327–41
American Institute of Instruction (A. E. WINSHIP) 457–63
American Library Association, 270–72; (MELVIL DEWEY) 479–90
—— ——Constitutional provisions, 484–85
—— ——Meetings since 1896, 483
—— ——Object of, 483
—— ——Report of Joint Committee of, and N. E. A. on Instruction in library administration in normal schools (E. G. BALDWIN) 215–81
A. L. A. Catalog, 487
A. L. A. Publishing Board, 486; Publications, 271–72
American Library Institute, 486–87
American Lyceum Association (WILL S. MONROE) 465–67
American Normal School Association: Meetings, officers, and topics, 589–95; Topics, 591–95; reorganized as Department of Normal Schools, 524
American public education, List of articles on, 1859 to 1906, 661–63
ANDREWS, E. BENJAMIN.—Simpler spelling; what can be most wisely done to hasten it, 148–53
Anna T. Jeanes Fund for the Assistance of Negro Rural Schools in the South, 494–95
Architecture, List of articles on, 1869 to 1906, 663
——Rural school (J. W. OLSEN) 141–48*
Arithmetic, The Teaching of (SIMON NEWCOMB) 86–99; Discussion: R. J. Aley, 99–102
Art as related to manual training (J. E. ADDICOTT) 207–14
Art Education, Department of: Meetings, officers, and topics, 623–26
Art education, List of articles on, 1869 to 1906, 664–66
Association of American Geologists, 474, 475
Association of American Geologists and Naturalists, 475, 477
Attendance, Diagram of total, for fifty years, 934–35
——Statistical table of, 1857–1905, 932
BALDWIN, ELIZABETH G.—Report of the Joint Committee of the American Library Association and the National Educational Association, on Instruction in library administration in normal schools, 215–81
BARDEEN, CHARLES WILLIAM.—Educational journalism, 506–14
Baylor, Adelaide S., Discussion on Salaries, 192
BEALE, DOROTHEA.—Secondary education of girls during the past fifty years in England, 377–86
Benedict, Martin G., Discussion on Local training-schools, 126
Best means and methods of improving teachers already in the service (W. McK. VANCE) 126–30
Bibliography of topics from 1857 to 1907, 659,–730
Bicknell, Thos. W., Resolution on Services of, 528
Biography, List of articles on, 1892 to 1905, 666–67
Biological sciences, List of articles on, 1870 to 1905, 667–68
Blind, Education of the, List of articles on, 1898 to 1906, 668
Blodgett, A. B., Discussion on Local training-schools, 125
Board of Trustees, Members of, 543; Twentieth annual report, 14–18
Book, Opening a new, 250
Book numbers, 261, 263–64
Book-binding, 266–70

Book-plates, 250–51
Books, Care of, 228
——Cataloging and classification of, 251–61; Bibliography, 258–59
——Incoming, 248–52
——Selecting and ordering, for a school library, 240–43
Books and magazine articles on library work, 275–77
Boys, What kind of education is best suited to? (R. P. HALLECK) 58–65; Discussion: F. L. Soldan, C. D. Lowry, 71–72
BRAINERD, Rev. Dr. THOMAS.—Home and school training in New England in the colonial period, 454–55
Brentano, Franz, Sketch of (H. SCHWARTZ) 426
BRERETON, CLOUDESLEY, S. H.—Teaching of modern languages in England, 366–77
BROWN, ELMER ELLSWORTH.—Fifty years of American education, 327–41
BRUMBAUGH, MARTIN G.—Means of improving efficiency of grammar school—Eliminations and modifications in course of study, 108–12
Bureau of Education, Committee on the National, 739–40
Business Education, Department of: Meetings, officers, and topics, 637–39
BUTLER, NICHOLAS MURRAY.—Report of Committee of Conference between Colleges and Secondary Schools, 734
BUTTRICK, WALLACE.—General Education Board, 490–95
By-Laws, 4; 541
By-Laws, Proposed, 24–28
Calendar of meetings, 6–7; with List of executive officers, 541–43
Calf-path, The; poem (SAM W. FOSS) 151–52
Call for a convention to organize a national association (D. B. HAGAR) 516–17
CANFIELD, JAMES H.—Letter of transmission in Report of Joint Committee on Instruction in library administration in normal schools, 215–16
Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (H. S. PRITCHETT) 504–6
Cataloging and classification of books, 251–61; Bibliography, 258–59
Chicago selected for next meeting of Department of Superintendence, 31
Child, The incorrigible (JULIA RICHMAN) 158–73
Child-Study, Department of: Meetings, officers, and topics, 639–41
Child-study, List of articles on, 1884 to 1905, 668–70
Children, city, Forms of industrial education best adapted to (C. H. KEYES) 203–7
Children's reading, 244–48; Bibliography of, 246–48
City normal or training-school, Influence of the (ELLA F. YOUNG) 121–24
City-school system, Interrelation of functions in a, 117–24
City-schools systems, List of articles on, 1874 to 1905, 670–71
City superintendents of larger cities, Round Table of, 117–24
City training-school or normal school, Influence of the (ELLA F. YOUNG) 121–24
Civic life of the community, Effect of moral education in the public schools upon the (W. O. THOMPSON) 42–49; Discussion, 49–51
Classical education, List of articles on, 1865 to 1905, 671–72
Classification of library books, 259–61
Classification of topics from 1857 to 1907. 659–60
Classified lists of subjects, 661–730
Classroom libraries, 227–28
Classwork, How the superintendent may correct defective, and make the work of the recitation teach the pupil how to prepare his lesson properly (W. T. HARRIS) 341–51
Coeducation, List of articles on, 1874 to 1906, 672
College-entrance requirements, Committee on, 736–37
College-entrance requirements, List of articles on, 1890 to 1905, 672–74
Colleges and universities, List of articles on, 1864 to 1906, 687–92
Colonial period, Home and school training in New England in the (THOMAS BRAINERD) 454–55
Colonial period, Home and school training in the South in the (T. J. WERTENBAKER) 455–57
Colonies, American, Origin of free schools in the, 453–54
Commercial education, List of articles on, 1892–1905, 673–74
Committee of Conference between Colleges and Secondary Schools, Report of (N. M. BUTLER) 734
Committee of Fifteen on Elementary Education History of, 735
Committee of Ten on Secondary Studies, Topics included in Report of, 656–57; History of, 734–35
Committee of Twelve on Rural Schools, History of, 736
Committee on College Entrance Requirements, History of, 736–37
Committee on Contemporary Education Doctrine, History of, 740
Committee on Industrial Education in Schools for Rural Communities, Topics included in Report of, 657–58; History of, 738–39
Committee on Instruction in Normal Schools in Library Administration, History of, 741
Committee on the National Bureau of Education, History of, 739–40

Committee on Nominations, 30; Report, 30–31
Committee on Normal Schools, History of, 737
Committee on the Relations of Public Libraries to Public Schools, History of, 737
Committee on Resolutions, 30; Report, 34
Committee on Salaries, Tenure of Office and Pensions of Teachers, Topics included in Report of, 657; History of, 737–38
Committee on Simplification of Spelling, Report (E. B. Cox) 31; Resolution for new committee referred, 31
Committee on Taxation as Related to Public Education, Topics included in Report of, 658; History of, 738
Committee on Universal System of Key Notation, History of, 740–41
Committees of investigation, Special, and their reports, 733–41
COMPAYRÉ, J. J. GABRIEL.—What France owes to America in the matter of education, 417–20
Compulsory education, List of articles on, 1871 to 1905, 674–75
Congress of Art Education, 1893, Topics of papers read at, 654
Congress of Business Education, 1893, Topics of papers read at, 655–56
Congress of Educational Journalism, 1893, Topics of papers read at, 656
Congress of Elementary Education, 1893, Topics of papers read at, 653
Congress of Experimental Psychology, 1893, Topics of papers read at, 655
Congress of Higher Education, 1893, Topics of papers read at, 652
Congress of Industrial and Manual Instruction, 1893, Topics of papers read at, 654–55
Congress of Kindergarten Education, 1893, Topics of papers read at, 653
Congress of Music Education, 1893, Topics of papers read at, 654
Congress of Physical Education, 1893, Topics of papers read at, 655
Congress of Professional Training of Teachers, 1893, Topics of papers read at, 653–54
Congress of Rational Psychology, 1893, Topics of papers read at, 655
Congress of School Supervision, 1893, Topics of papers read at, 652
Congress of Secondary Education, 1893, Topics of papers read at, 652
Congress of Technological Instruction, 1893, Topics of papers read at, 654
Congresses of Education, International, 1893, Topics of papers read at General session, 652; Appendix: Papers presented but not read, 656
Connecticut State Teachers' Association, 514
Consolidation of schools in Indiana, 138
Constitution of National Educational Association, 1–4; with the various amendments, 536–41
Constitution of National Teachers' Association, 534–35
Convention of teachers and superintendents of public schools, Philadelphia, 1849, 467–71
COOK, JOHN W.—*In memoriam* Albert Grannis Lane, 297–311; Discussion on Moral education in public schools, 50
Cooper, Frank C.—Discussion on Moral education in public schools, 51
CORSON, OSCAR T.—The superintendent's authority and the teacher's freedom, 80–86
COTTON, FASSETT A.—Teachers' salaries and how affected by the minimum-salary law [of Indiana] 132–39
Council, *see* National Council of Education
Country child, What form of industrial training is most practical and best suited to the (O. J. KERN) 198–203
Country life, The new, 134–35
Country schools, The ideal for, 137–38
Course of study of the grammar school, Eliminations and modifications in (M. G. BRUMBAUGH) 108–12
COX, EDWIN B.—Report of Committee on Simplification of Spelling, 31
Curriculum, List of articles on, 1876 to 1905, 675–77
Cutter author tables, 261–62
Defectives and delinquents (other than blind), Articles on, 1879 to 1906, 677–78
Denfield, R. E., Discussion on Local training-schools, 125
Department of Art Education, Meetings, officers, and topics, 626–29
Department of Business Education, Meetings, officers, and topics, 637–39
Department of Child-study, Meetings, officers and topics, 639–41
Department of Elementary Education organized, 525; Meetings, officers, and topics, 599–603
Department of Higher Education organized, 525; Meetings, officers, and topics, 595–99
Department of Indian Education, Meetings, officers, and topics, 650–51
Department of Kindergarten Education, Meetings, officers, and topics, 626–29
Department of Manual Training, Meetings, officers, and topics, 603–7
Department of Music Education, Meetings, officers, and topics, 629–33
Department of Normal Schools, organized, 524
Department of Physical Training, Meetings, officers and topics, 641–43
Department of School Administration, Meetings, officers and topics, 645–46
Department of School Superintendence organized, 524–25
Department of Science Instruction, Meetings, officers and topics, 643–45

Department of Secondary Education, Meetings, officers and topics, 633–36
Department of Special Education, Meetings, officers and topics, 648–50
Department of Superintendence, Secretary's Minutes, 29–35
Department officers, 10–11
Departments, List of, 1,536; with place and year of establishment of each, 575–76
Developments and changes in primary teaching in France during the Third Republic (1870–1906) (P. E. LEVASSEUR) 408–17
DEWEY, MELVIL.—American Library Association, 479–90
Dilthey, Wilhelm, Sketch of (H. SCHWARTZ) 427
Directors, 8–10, 558
Directors by election, List of state, 9–10, 547–57
Directors, Life, List of 8–9, 558
Directors, Perpetual, List of, 558
Downing, A. S., Discussion on Local training-schools, 126
Dühring, Eugen, Sketch of (H. SCHWARTZ) 429–30
EASTMAN, W. R.—The public library a distinct organization, 223
Eaton, John, *In memoriam* (SHELDON JACKSON) 283–93
EBERHARDT, JOHN C.—Examination of eyes of school children, 173–77
Education, Fifty years of American (E. E. BROWN) 327–41
——History of, List of articles on, 1858 to 1905, 690–92
——Theory, Philosophy, Nature, and Meaning, List of articles on, 1873 to 1905, 679–80
——What France owes to America in the matter of (J. J. G. COMPAYRÉ) 417–20
——What kind of, is best suited to boys? (R. P. HALLECK) 58–65; Discussion: F. L. Soldan, C. D. Lowry, 71–72
——What kind of, is best suited for girls? (Miss ANNA J. HAMILTON) 65–71; Discussion: F. L. Soldan, C. D. Lowry, 71–72
Educational associations, 453–74; Other educational associations, 474–506
Educational awakening in England (M. E. SADLER) 361–66
Educational institutions and libraries enrolled as active members, List of, 925–29
Educational journalism (C. W. BARDEEN) 506–14
Educational literature, List of articles on, 1860 to 1905, 678
Effect of moral education in the public schools upon the civic life of the community (W. O. THOMPSON) 42–49; Discussion, 49–51
Elective studies, List of articles on, 1874 to 1905, 680–81
Elementary education, Committee of Fifteen on, 735
Elementary Education, Congress of, 1893, Topics of papers read at, 653
Elementary Education, Department of, organized, 525; Meetings, officers and topics, 599–603
Elementary education, List of articles on, 1863 to 1906, 681–82
Elementary schools in the South promoted by scientific farming, 491–92
England, Educational awakening in (M. E. SADLER) 361–66
England, Secondary education of girls during the past fifty years in (DOROTHEA BEALE) 377–86
England, Teaching of modern languages in (C. S. H. BRERETON) 366–77
English language and literature as subjects of study, List of articles on, 1869 to 1906, 682–84
Eucken, Rudolf, Sketch of (H. SCHWARTZ) 429
Examination of the eyes of school children (JOHN C. EBERHARDT) 173–77
Examinations, List of articles on, 1863 to 1902, 684
Exhibitions and Museums, List of articles on, 1875 to 1905, 685–86
Eyes of school children, Examination of (J. C. EBERHARDT) 173–77
FELMLEY, DAVID.—The next step in the salary campaign, 183–91; Resolution on a Simplified spelling-primer, 33; Discussion on Simpler spelling, 157–58
Fifty years of American education (E. E. BROWN) 327–41
Finances and taxation, List of articles on, 1866 to 1905, 686
Financial statistics, Comparative summary of, 733
Fischer, Kuno, Sketch of (H. SCHWARTZ) 421–22
Forecast of work of the Association (J. HANCOCK) 526–28
Forms of industrial education best adapted to city children (C. H. KEYES) 203–7
FOSS, SAM WALTER.—Poem, The Calf-path, 151–52
France, Developments and changes in primary teaching in, during the Third Republic (1870–1906) (P. E. LEVASSEUR) 408–17
——Secondary education of girls in (CAMILLE SÉE) 386–95; Bibliography, 394–95
—— What France owes to America in the matter of education (J. J. GABRIEL COMPAYRÉ) 417–20
Free schools in the American colonies, Origin of, 453–54
Fund, The permanent, Growth of, since 1886, 733
Funds, Report of the, 15–18
GEDDES, J. JR.—What can most wisely be done to hasten simpler spelling? 153–57
General Education Board (W. BUTTRICK) 490–95

General sessions: Topics, 561–75
Geography as a subject of study, List of articles on, 1871 to 1905, 686–87
German education, The past and the future of (E. PAULSEN) 430–45
Germany, Rehabilitation of philosophy in (H. SCHWARTZ) 420–30
Gifts to higher education of John D. Rockefeller, 491, 493–94; of Andrew Carnegie, 504–6
Gillan, S. Y., Discussion on Moral education in public schools, 50–51
Girls, Secondary education of, during the past fifty years in England (DOROTHEA BEALE) 377–86
Girls, Secondary education of, in France (CAMILLE SÉE) 386–95; Bibliography, 394–95
Girls, What kind of education is best suited for? (Miss ANNA J. HAMILTON) 65–71; Discussion: F. L. Soldan, C. D. Lowry, 71–72
GORDY, WILBUR F.—The local training-school as an agency for the preparation of teachers, 124–25
Government and discipline in character-training, 37
Government and discipline of schools, List of articles on, 1863 to 1900, 687
Grammar school, Improving efficiency of—Eliminations and modifications in course of study (M. G. BRUMBAUGH) 108–12
Grammar-school principals, How can the supervising influence of, be improved (L. H. JONES) 112–14; Discussion: C. M. Jordan, C. N. Kendall, 114–17
Greenwood, J. M., Discussions on: Local training-schools, 125; Moral education in public schools, 50
HAGAR, DANIEL B.—Call for a convention to organize a national association, 516–17; Extracts from presidential address, 522–24; from closing address, 525
HALLECK, REUBEN POST.—What kind of education is best suited to boys? 58–65
HAMILTON, Miss ANNA J.—What kind of education is best suited for girls? 65–71
HANCOCK, JOHN.—Forecast of work of the Association, 526–28
Harper, Willian Rainey, *In memoriam* (H. P. JUDSON) 293–96
HARRIS, ADA VAN STONE.—Influence of the supervisor, 117–21
HARRIS, WILLIAM TORREY.—How the superintendent may correct defective classwork and make the work of the recitation teach the pupil how to prepare his lesson properly, 341–51; Organization and functions of the National Educational Association, 529–33; What kind of language-study aids in the mastery of natural science? 73–79; Discussion on Simpler spelling, 158
Heating and ventilation, Sanitary, 146
Heinze, Max, Sketch of (H. SCHWARTZ) 422
HEMPL, GEORGE.—The new phonetic alphabet, 192–97
Hertling, Georg (Freiherr) von, Sketch of (H. SCHWARTZ) 422
High schools, List of articles on, 1873 to 1905, 720–21
Higher education: Colleges and universities, List of articles on, 1864 to 1905, 687–90
Higher Education, Congress of, 1893, Topics of papers read at, 652
Higher Education, Department of, organized, 525; Meetings, officers and topics, 595–99
Higher education, Modern system of, for women in Prussia (F. PAULSEN) 395–408
Historical chapter, 453–560; topics, 575
History of education, List of articles on, 1858 to 1906, 690–92
History teaching, List of articles on, 1889 to 1905, 692–93
Holton, Edwin L., Discussion on Improving teachers already in service, 131–32
Home and school training in New England in the Colonial period (THOMAS BRAINERD) 454–55
Home and school training in the South in the colonial period (T. J. WERTENBAKER) 455–57
HOWARD, L. O.—The American Association for the Advancement of Science, 475–78
HOYT, DAVID W.—*In memoriam* Thomas Blanchard Stockwell, 318–22
Hughes, James L., Discussion on Moral education in public schools, 51
Hungary, Agricultural instruction in the kingdom of (BÉLA DE TORMAY) 445–51
Hunt, Mrs. Mary Hanchett, *In memoriam* (A. E. WINSHIP) 296–97
Hygiene, *see* School hygiene
HYRE, Mrs. SARAH E.—Women's part in public-school education, 51–58
Illinois' State Teachers' Association, 515
Improvement of the study period, Suggestions for the (F. M. McMURRY) 102–8
Incorporation, Act of, 4–5; 21–24; Certificate of, 5; Certificate of extension, 5; Resolution on, 4
Incorrigible child, The (JULIA RICHMAN) 158–73
Index, 939–49
Indian education and other minor alien races, List of articles on, 1884 to 1905, 693–95
Indian Education, Department of: Meetings, officers, and topics, 650–51
Indiana, Minimum-salary law of (F. A. COTTON) 132–30
Indiana State Teachers' Association, 515
Industrial education, Forms of, best adapted to city children (C. H. KEYES) 203–7
Industrial education, List of articles on, 1863 to 1906, 695–96
Industrial training, What form of, is most

practical and best suited to the country child? (O. J. KERN) 198–203
Institutions, Educational, and libraries enrolled as active members, 925–29
International Congress at Liège, Recent (W. S. MONROE) 351–55
Interrelation of functions in a city-school system, 117–24
Iowa State Teachers' Association, 515
JACKSON, SHELDON.—*In memoriam* John Eaton, 283–93
John D. Rockefeller Foundation for Higher Education, 493–94
JONES, LEWIS H.—How can the supervising influence of grammar-school principals be improved? 112–14
Jordan, C. M., Discussion on Supervising influence of grammar-school principals, 114–15
Journalism, Educational (C. W. BARDEEN) 506–14
JUDSON, HARRY PRATT.—*In memoriam* William Rainey Harper, 293–96
Kansas securities, Disposition made of, 15
Kendall, C. N., Discussion on Supervising influence of grammar-school principals, 114–15
KERN, O. J.—What form of industrial training is most practical and best suited to the country child? 198–203
KEYES, CHARLES H.—Forms of industrial education best adapted to city children, 203–7
Kindergarten Education, Department of: Meetings, officers, and topics, 626–29
Kindergarten, List of articles on, 1872 to 1905, 696–99
Lane, Albert Grannis, *In memoriam* (JOHN W. COOK) 297–311; Trustees on death of, 14
Language-study, What kind of, aids in the mastery of natural science? (W. T. HARRIS) 73–79
Languages, Teaching of modern, in England (C. H. S. BRERETON) 366–77
Laws, Summary of state, relating to school libraries, 277–81
League of Library Commissions, 486
LEVASSEUR, PIERRE ÉMILE.—On the developments and changes in primary teaching in France during the Third Republic (1870–1906) 408–17
Librarian, The teacher and the (N. C. SCHAEFFER) 355–61
Libraries enrolled as active members, List of, 927–28
Libraries, Public, Committee on Relations of, to Public Schools, 737
Libraries, Reference, for schools, 221–22
Libraries, School, 221–24; Lists for, 245
Library, How to use a, 228–33
Library, The public, and the public school, 224–28; Bibliographical references, 225–27; *See also* Public Library
Library and school, List of articles on, 1880 to 1906, 699–700
Library administration, Articles in periodicals on, 276–77; Useful books on, 275–76; Method and limits of instruction in, 218–20; Committee on Instruction in Normal Schools in, 741
Library Association and the National Educational Association, Report of the Joint Committee of the American on Instruction in, in Normal Schools (E. G. BALDWIN) 215–81
Library associations, 270–75
Library associations, State, 274
Library clubs, Local, 274–75
Library commissions, State, 272–74
Library Department; Meetings, officers, and topics, 646–48
Library development, Results of, 488–90
Library instruction in schools, 231–33
Library Journal started, 482
Library schools, 275, 487–88
Liège, Recent International Congress at (W. S. MONROE) 351–55
Life directors, List of, 558
Life members, List of, 559–60
Lighting, Sanitary, 143
Lipps, Theodor, Sketch of (H. SCHWARTZ) 427–28
Living, Cost of, 133, 138
Loan-desk, 264–66
Lowry, Charles D., Discussion on Kind of education best suited for boys and girls, 72
McIver, Charles Duncan, *In memoriam* (E. A. ALDERMAN) 311–18
McKinney, Charles, Discussion on Simpler spelling, 158
MCMURRY, F. M.—Suggestions for improvement of the study period, 102–8
Mann, Horace, Addresses as president of Convention at Philadelphia, 1849, 467–71
Manual training, Art as related to (J. E. ADDICOTT) 207–14
Manual Training, Department of: Meetings, officers, and topics, 603–7
Manual training, List of articles on, 1869 to 1906, 700–3
Marble, Albert Prescott, *In memoriam* (C. E. MELENEY) 322–26
Massachusetts Teachers' Association, 514
Mathematics as a subject of study, List of articles on, 1871 to 1906, 703
Means afforded by the public schools for moral and religious training (T. A. MOTT) 35–42
Means of improving the efficiency of the the grammar school—Eliminations and modifications in the course of study (M. G. BRUMBAUGH) 108–12
Meeting, First large, of the Association, 528
Meeting-places for Department of Superintendence, Resolution on (C. G. PEARSE) 32
Meetings, 3–4, 27; 535; 540
Meetings, Calendar of, 6–7; 541–43

Meinong von Handschuchsheim, Alexius, Sketch of (H. SCHWARTZ) 426
MELENEY, CLARENCE E.—*In memoriam* Albert Prescott Marble, 322–26
Members, Life, List of, 559–60
Members, List of Life, Active, and Corresponding, 744–901; Index, 904–23
Members, List of original, of N. T. A. at Philadelphia, 521
Members, List of perpetual, 558
Membership, active, Classified, by states, for 1906 (Table), 930
Membership, active, Growth of, 1895 to 1906, 731
Membership, active, Record of, by states, 1895–1906 (Table), 931
—— —— by states for each year, 1857 to 1905, 932, 933
Membership, Classes and conditions of, 1–2, 22, 24–25; 534; 536–37
Membership, Total, classified by states from 1857 to 1906 (Tables) 932–33; chart showing same, 934–935
Memberships, Chart of recorded, 1857 to 1906, 935–35
Memberships, Organization of active permanent, 533
Memorandum concerning reincorporation, 19–20
Men and women as teachers, 136
Miller, Thomas C., Discussion on Minimum-salary law [of West Virginia] 140–41
Minimum-salary law [of Indiana], Teachers' salaries and how affected by (F. A. COTTON) 132–39
——[of Pennsylvania] Discussion: N. C. Schaeffer, 140
——[of West Virginia] Discussion: T. C. Miller, 140–41
Missouri State Teachers' Association, 515
Modern system of higher education for women in Prussia (F. PAULSEN) 395–408
MONROE, WILL S.—American Association for the Advancement of Education, 471–74; American Lyceum Association, 465–67; Recent International Congress at Liège, 351–55; State teachers' associations organized before 1857, 514–15; Western Literary Institute and College of Professional Teachers, 463–64
Moral and religious training, Means afforded by the public schools for (T. A. MOTT) 35–42
Moral education in the public schools, Effect of, upon the civic life of the community (W. O. THOMPSON) 42–49; Discussion: W. J. Shearer, J. M. Greenwood, and others, 49–51. *See also* Religious and moral education
MOTT, THOMAS A.—The means afforded by the public schools for moral and religious training, 35–42
MURPHY, EDGAR GARDNER.—Southern Education Board, 495–99
Museums, School, 227; List of articles on, 1875 to 1905, 685–86
Music Education, Department of: Meetings, officers, and topics, 630–33
Music in schools, List of articles on, 1870 to 1905, 703–6
Name of Association, 1, 21, 534, 536
National Association of School Superintendents: Meetings, officers, and topics, 576–79; reorganized as Department of School Superintendence, 524–25
National Association of State Libraries, 486
National Council of Education, Historical sketch, 607–8; Constitution and By-Laws, 608–11; Executive officers, 1881–1907, 611–12; Membership, 612–18; Topics, 618–23; Objects and duties of the, 26–27
National Educational Association, Calendar of meetings, 6–7; 541–43; General sessions: Topics, 1870–1906, 561–75; Historical sketch, 521–34; List of Departments, with place and year of establishment of each, 575–76; New departments, 524–25; Organization and functions of the, 529–33; Reincorporation, 533–34; Report of Joint Committee of A. L. A. and on Instruction in Library Administration in Normal Schools (E. G. BALDWIN) 215–81
National Education Association of the U. S., Act to incorporate, 21–24
National organization of teachers, 518–20
National Teachers' Association (1857–70) Calendar of meetings, 6, 541–42; Historical sketch, 516–21; organized, 518; Officers elected, 520–21; Original members, 521; Constitution, 534–35; Topics, 1857–69, 561–62
Natorp, Paul, Sketch of (H. SCHWARTZ) 423–24
Natural science, What kind of language study aids in the mastery of? (W. T. HARRIS) 73–79
Nature-study, List of articles on, 1858 to 1905, 706
Necrology for 1905–6, 741–42
Negro education, List of articles on, 1866 to 1904, 706
Negro rural schools in the South, Fund for the assistance of, 494–95
New England, Home and school training in, in the colonial period (THOMAS BRAINERD) 454–55
New Hampshire State Teachers' Association, 515
New Jersey State Teachers' Association, 515
New York Teachers' Association, 514
NEWCOMB, SIMON.—The teaching of arithmetic, 86–99
Next step in the salary campaign (D. FELMLEY) 183–91
Nominations, Committee on, 30; Report, 30–31
Normal schools and training of teachers, List of articles on, 1864 to 1905, 707–11
Normal Schools, Committee on, 737

Normal Schools, Department of, organized, 524; Meetings, officers and topics, 590–95
—— List of, enrolled as active members, 926–27
Normal schools, Report of the Joint Committee of the American Library Association and the National Educational Association on Instruction in Library Administration in (E. G. BALDWIN) 215–81
Officers and their duties, 2–3, 22–23, 25–26, 535, 537–40
Officers for 1905–1906 and 1906–1907, 8–11
Officers, List of executive, with Calendar of meetings, 541–43
Ohio State Teachers' Association, 514
OLSEN, J. W.—Rural school architecture, 141–48*
Organization, List of articles on, 1866 to 1906, 723–6
Organization and functions of the N. E. A. (W. T. HARRIS) 529–33
Origin of free schools in the American colonies, 453–54
PALMER, SOLOMON.—Call for a Southern Educational Association, 500–1
Papers and discussions, Department of Superintendence, 35–117
——Titles of, from 1857 to 1907 arranged by years and departments, 561–651
Past and future of German education (F. PAULSEN) 430–45
PAULSEN, FRIEDRICH.—Modern system of higher education for women in Prussia, 395–408: The past and the future of German education, 430–45
PEARSE, C. G.—Resolution on meeting-places for Department of Superintendence, 32
Pennsylvania, Minimum-salary law of (N. C. Schaeffer) 140
Pennsylvania State Teachers' Association, 515
Pensions for teachers, List of articles on, 1896 to 1905, 711
Perpetual directors, List of, 558
Philosophy, Rehabilitation of, in Germany (H. SCHWARTZ) 420–30
Phonetic alphabet, Need of a, 154–56
—— The new (G. Hempl) 192–97
Physical Education, Congress of, 1893, Topics of papers read at, 655
Physical education, List of articles on, 1869 to 1905, 711–13
Physical sciences, List of articles on, 1863 to 1905, 713
Physical Training, Department of: Meetings, officers, and topics, 641–43
Place of next meeting of Department of Superintendence to be Chicago, 31
Preparation of teachers, Local training-school as an agency for the (W. F. GORDY) 124–25
Primary teaching, Developments and changes in, in France during the Third Republic (1870–1906) (P. E. LEVASSEUR) 408–17
PRITCHETT, HENRY S.—The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 504–6
Promotion of teachers, What should be the basis for the, and the increase of salaries (J. H. VAN SICKLE) 177–83
Prussia, modern system of higher education for women in (F. PAULSEN) 395–408
Psychology and education, List of articles on, 1874 to 1904, 713–14
Psychology, Experimental, Congress of, 1903, Topics of papers read at, 655
Psychology, Rational, Congress of, 1893, Topics of papers read at, 655
Public Libraries started, 482
Public library, The, a distinct organization (W. R. EASTMAN) 223
——and the public school, 224–28
——Growth, place, and purpose of, 217–18
Public-school education, Woman's part in (Mrs. SARAH E. HYRE) 51–58
Public school, The public library and the, 224–28; Bibliographical references, 225–27
Public schools, Effect of moral education in the, upon the civic life of the community (W. O. THOMPSON) 42–49; Discussion, 49–51
Public schools, Means afforded by, for Moral and religious training (T. A. MOTT) 35–42
Publications, Inventory and price list of, 936–37
Receipts and expenses of Secretary's office, 731–32
Recent International Congress at Li ge (W. S. MONROE) 351-55
Recitation, How to make the, teach the pupil to prepare his lesson (W. T. HARRIS) 341–51
Reference-books, What, and how to use, 229–31; 247
Rehabilitation of philosophy in Germany (H. SCHWARTZ) 420–30
Reincorporation, Memorandum concerning, 19–20; 533–34
Religious and moral education, List of articles on, 1858 to 1906, 715–16
Resolutions, Committee on, 30; Report, 34
Revenue, Lack of, 135
Revenue, The fixed, 732
Rhode Island Institute of Instruction, 514
RICHMAN, JULIA.—The incorrigible child, 158–73
Riehl, Alois, Sketch of (H. SCHWARTZ) 424
Rockefeller, John D., Gift of, to General Education Board, 491; Larger gifts to higher education, 493–94
Round-Table Conference on Simplified spelling, 33, 148–58
Round Table of city superintendents of larger cities, 32, 117–24
Round Table of city superintendents of smaller cities, 32, 124–32

Round Table of state and county superintendents, 32, 132–48
Rural-school architecture (J. W. OLSEN) 141–48*
Rural schools, Committee of Twelve on, 736
Rural schools, List of articles on, 1875 to 1905, 716–17
RUSSELL, WILLIAM.—Address to Philadelphia Convention, 1857, 518–20
Sabin, Henry, Discussion on Moral education in public schools, 50
SADLER, MICHAEL ERNEST.—Educational awakening in England, 361–66
Salaries, Can we afford to pay larger? 139
——Cause of low, 135
——How affected by the minimum-salary law [of Indiana] (F. A. COTTON) 132–39; Discussion: T. C. Miller, N.C. Schaeffer, 140–41
——Next step in the salary campaign (D. FELMLEY) 183–91; Discussion: A. S. Baylor, 192
——Next steps in effort to secure better, 138–39
——of teachers, List of articles on, 1884 to 1906, 717–18
——Reasons for better, 136
——Tenure of Office and Pensions of Teachers, Committee on, 657, 737–38
——, What should be the basis for the promotion of teachers and the increase of (J. H. VAN SICKLE) 177–83
SCHAEFFER, NATHAN C.—The teacher and the librarian, 355–61; Discussion on Minimum-salary law [of Pennsylvania] 140
School Administration, Department of: Meetings, officers, and topics, 645–46
School hygiene, List of articles on, 1881 to 1904, 718–19
School laws, List of articles on, 1892 to1905, 719
School libraries, 221–24; Lists for, 245; Summary of state laws relating to, 277–81
School library, Cataloging and classification of a, 251–61; How to start a, 222–23
——Call numbers, shelf-list, loan system, 261–66; Selecting and ordering books for a, 240–43
School-library room, The, 234–39
School museums, 227. *See also* Museums
School Superintendence, Department of, organized, 524–25; List of meetings and officers, 577–78; Topics: 579–89; *See also* Superintendence, Department of
School teachers and superintendents, Convention of, 1849, 467–71
Schuppe, Wilhelm, Sketch of (H. SCHWARTZ) 424–25
SCHWARTZ, HERMANN.—Brief sketches of: Franz Brentano, 426; Wilhelm Dilthey, 427; Eugen Dühring, 429–30; Rudolf Eucken, 429; Kuno Fischer, 421–22; Max Heinze, 422; Georg Hertling, 422; Theodor Lipps, 427–28; Alexius Meinong von Handschuchsheim, 426; Paul Natorp, 423–24; Alois Riehl, 424; Wilhelm Schuppe, 424–25; Karl Stumpf, 426–27; Wilhelm Windelband, 425; Wilhelm Wundt, 428; Eduard Zeller, 422–23
SCHWARTZ, HERMANN.—The rehabilitation of philosophy in Germany, 420–30
Science Instruction, Department of: Meetings, officers, and topics, 643–45
Science teaching, List of articles on, 1869 to 1906, 719–20
Secondary Education, Department of: Meetings, officers, and topics, 633–36
Secondary education: High schools, List of articles on, 1873 to 1905, 720–21
——how aided by the General Education Board, 493
——of girls during the past fifty years in England (DOROTHEA BEALE) 377–86
——of girls in France (CAMILLE SÉE) 386–95
Secretary's minutes, Department of Superintendence, 29–35
Secretary, Report of, 731–42
Secretary, Review of the reports of the, 731–42
SÉE, CAMILLE.—Secondary education of girls in France, 386–95; Bibliography, 394–95
Shearer, Wm. J., Discussion on Moral education in public schools, 49–50
Shelf-list, 262–63
Simkins, J. D., Discussion on Moral education in public schools, 50
Simplified spelling, Round Table Conference on, 33, 148–58
Soldan, F. Louis, Discussion on Kind of education best suited for boys and girls, 71–72
South, Home and school training in the, in the colonial period (T. J. WERTENBAKER) 455–57
Southern Education Board (E. G. MURPHY) 495–99
Southern Educational Association (R. J. TIGHE) 499–504
Special Education, Department of: Meetings, officers, and topics, 648–50
Spelling, Committee on Simplification of, 31
Spelling, List of articles on, 1860 to 1906, 721–22
Spelling primer, Resolution on an improved (D. FELMLEY) 33
Spelling, simpler, What can be most wisely done to hasten (E. B. ANDREWS) 148–53; (J. GEDDES, JR.) 153–57; Discussion: D. Felmley and others, 157–58
Spelling, Simplified, Round-Table Conference on, 33, 148–58
Spelling, traditional, The evils of, 152–53
State aid to poor corporations, 133
State and county superintendents, Round Table of, 132–48
State and education, List of articles on, 1859 to 1901, 722–23

State Teachers' Association of Michigan, 514–15
State Teachers' Associations organized before 1857 (Will S. Monroe) 514–15
Stockwell, Thomas Blanchard, *In memoriam* (D. W. Hoyt) 318–22
Study, J. N., Discussion on Local training-schools, 125
Study period, Suggestions for improvement of the (F. M. McMurry) 102–8
Stumpf, Karl, Sketch of (H. Schwartz) 426–27
Subjects, Classified lists of, 661–730
Suggestions for improvement of the study period (F. M. McMurry) 102–8
Superintendence, Department of, 29–214; Secretary's minutes, 29–35; Papers and discussions, 35–214
Superintendent, How the, may correct defective classwork and make the work of the recitation teach the pupil how to prepare his lesson properly (W. T. Harris) 341–51
Superintendent's authority, The, and the teachers' freedom (O. T. Corson) 80–86
Superintendents of smaller cities, Round Table of, 124–32
Superintendents, Round Table of City, 32
Superintendents, Round Table of State and County, 32, 132–48
Supervising influence of grammar-school principals, How can the, be improved? (L. H. Jones) 112–14; Discussion: C. M. Jordan, C. N. Kendall, 114–17
Supervision, Organization and Administration, List of articles on, 1866 to 1906, 723–26
Supervisor, Influence of the (Ada Van S. Harris) 117–21
Teacher, The, and the librarian (N. C. Schaeffer) 355–61
Teachers already in the service, Best means of improving (W. McK. Vance) 126–30; Discussion: E. L. Holton, 131–32
Teachers and Superintendents, Convention of, at Philadelphia, 1849, 467–71
Teachers, List of articles on, 1860 to 1905, 726–27
——More adequate facilities for training, needed, 138–39; must organize, 139
——Pensions for, List of articles on, 1896 to 1905, 726–27
——preparation of, The local training-school as an agency for the (W. F. Gordy) 124–25; Discussion; W. G. Benedict and others, 125–26
——Training of, List of articles on, 1864 to 1906, 707–11
——What should be the basis for the promotion of, and the increase of salaries of (J. H. Van Sickle) 177–83
Teachers' freedom, The superintendents' authority and the (O. T. Corson) 80–86
Teachers' salaries and how affected by the minimum-salary law [of Indiana] (F. A. Cotton) 132–39; Discussion: T. C. Miller, N. C. Schaeffer, 140–41. *See also* Salaries
Teaching not yet a profession, 136
——of arithmetic (Simon Newcomb) 86–99
——of modern languages in England (C. H S Brereton) 366–77
——Principles and methods, List of articles on, 1863 to 1903, 727–28
Technical education, List of articles on, 1874 to 1905, 728–29
Textbooks, List of articles on, 1866 to 1897, 729
Thompson, Wm. Oxley.—Effect of moral education in the public schools upon the civic life of the community, 42–49; Discussion, 49–51
Tighe, Richard J.—The Southern Educational Association, 499–504
Titles of paper and discussions from 1857 to 1907 arranged by years and departments, 561–651
Topics, Bibliography of, from 1857 to 1907, 659–730
Topics, Classification of, from 1857 to 1907, 659–60
Tormay, Béla de.—Agricultural instruction in the kingdom of Hungary, 445–51
Training, Home and school, in New England in the colonial period (Thomas Brainerd) 454–55
—— ——in the South in the colonial period (T. J. Wertenbaker) 455–57
——of teachers, List of articles on, 1864 to 1906, 707–11
Training-school, The local, as an agency for the preparation of teachers (W. F. Gordy) 124–25; Discussion: W. G. Benedict and others, 125–26
Treasurer's report, 12–14
Trustees, Board of Annual report, 14–18
——Members of Board of, 543
Twentieth century, Demands of, are large, 135
Universities, List of articles on colleges and, 1864 to 1905, 687–90
Universities and colleges enrolled as active members, Lists of, 925–26
Valentine, T. W.—Address at convention to organize a national convention, 517–18
Vance, Wm. McKendree.—Best means and methods of improving teachers already in the service, 126–30
Van Dyke, Henry, Lines on work, 130
Van Sickle, James H.—What should be the basis for the promotion of teachers and the increase of teachers' salaries? 177–83
Vermont State Teachers' Association, 514
Vice-presidents, List of, with terms of service, 544–46
Wertenbaker, Thomas Jefferson.—Home and school training in the South in the colonial period, 455–57
West Virginia, Minimum salary law of (T. C. Miller) 140–41
Western Literary Institute and College of

Professional Teachers (WILL S. MONROE) 463–64
What France owes to America in the matter of education (J. J. G. COMPAYRÉ) 417–20
Whitcomb, A. K., Discussion on Local training-schools, 126
Wilkinson, J. N., Treasurer, Report of, 12–14
Windelband, Wilhelm, Sketch of (H. SCHWARTZ) 425
WINSHIP, ALBERT E.—The American Institute of Instruction, 457–63; *In memoriam* Mrs. Mary H. Hunt, 296–97
Wisconsin State Teachers' Association, 515
Woman's education and work, List of articles on, 1874 to 1906, 729–30
Woman's part in public-school education (Mrs. SARAH E. HYRE) 51–58
Women, Modern system of higher education for, in Prussia (F. PAULSEN) 395–408
Work, Lines on (Henry Van Dyke) 130
Writing, List of articles on, 1893 to 1905, 730
Wundt, Wilhelm, Sketch of (H. SCHWARTZ) 428
YOUNG, ELLA FLAGG.—Influence of the city normal school or training-school, 121–24
Zeller, Eduard, Sketch of (H. SCHWARTZ) 422–23